Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India

June 2013

Publication Editors: Marina Faetanini and Rukmini Tankha
Proof-reading: Kate Pond
Graphic design and page layout: Colorcom Advertising
Printed by: Colorcom Advertising

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Printed in India
Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India

Internal Migration in India Initiative

Supported by Sir Dorabji Tata Trust as part of the Tata Trust Migrant Support Program
Social Inclusion of Migrants in India, proposed by UNESCO in the framework of the Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII), is the result of contributions shared by practitioners and resource persons: Bandana Agarwal; Asif Alig; Ashima Aneja; Mridula Bajaj; Teresa Benedict, Hitesh Bhatia; Rajendra Bhise; Bharti Birla; Anjali Borhade; Manab Chakraborty; Arvind Kumar Chaudhary; Prem Chawla; Umi Daniel; Swarcha Devgun; Gopal Garg; Subash Chandra Ghosh; Ankit Goyal; Shikha Gupta; Amit Gurung; Ishteyaq Jafri; Shasthi Nath Jha; Sai Krishna Kanchan; Vivek Kumar Kaushik; Bhasin Khan; Rajiv Khandelwal; Manish Khera; Kirti Mishra; Manjula Manjari Mishra; Rita Panicker; Abani Mohan Panigrahi; Hari Ram; Amrita Sharma; Meera Shenoy; Md. Ismail Sheriff; Rajneesh Shrivastava; Indu Prakash Singh; Shikha Singh; Abhishek Sinha; Abhinav Sinha; Indrani Sinha; Vandana Thottoli; Achyut Yagnik.

Our interactions with internal migrants deeply enriched our work and we are thankful for having learned from the experiences and lifestories of, in particular: Ajay Kumar, Priya Sharma, Rajita Kindo, Bardani Tirkey, Seema, Dharampal, Prerna, Badshah, Muktar Hassan, Nur Mohammad, Gulab Shah, Mausami, Milan.

Special thanks are due to all the partners and participants of the UNESCO-UNICEF National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development (6-7 December 2011) and of the Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII) network, for their precious guidance and expertise. The paper writers and presenters for the workshop deserve special mention: Indu Agnihotri, Ram B. Bhagat, Priya Deshingkar, Indrani Mazumdar, Neetha N. Pillai, S. Irudaya Rajan, Smita, Ravi S. Srivastava, Ann Whitehead. This publication has also greatly benefited from the collaboration of UN-HABITAT, UN Women, ILO, UNAIDS, UNFPA, UNHCR, WHO and IOM. We are deeply grateful, in particular, to Priya Deshingkar for peer reviewing the publication and enriching it with her vast knowledge and experience. Several colleagues and partners have provided useful knowledge and comments in the preparation of this publication, namely Ramya Subrahmanian, Poornima Dore, Nitin Kumar, Kulwant Singh, Smita Mitra, and Moe Chiba.

This publication was prepared by Rukmini Tankha, Project Officer, under the guidance of Marina Faetanini, Programme Specialist, and the administrative support of Nidhi Ralhan, Programme Assistant, from the Social and Human Sciences Sector, UNESCO New Delhi. We thankfully acknowledge the contribution of several interns, such as Swati Chhibber, Amy Jones, Juliette Le Pannére and Sophie Rau.

Deepest gratitude is due to Sir Dorabji Tata Trust whose funding and support has made this publication possible.
In India, internal migration accounts for a large population of 309 million as per Census of India 2001, and by more recent estimates, 326 million (NSSO 2007-2008), nearly 30 per cent of the total population. Internal migrants, of which 70.7 per cent are women, are excluded from the economic, cultural, social and political life of society and are often treated as second-class citizens. The constraints faced by migrants are many - 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.

In the absence of proofs of identity and residence, internal migrants are unable to claim social protection entitlements and remain excluded from government sponsored schemes and programmes. Children face disruption of regular schooling, adversely affecting their human capital formation and contributing to the inter-generational transmission of poverty. Further, migrants are negatively portrayed 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.

Migration and urbanisation are an integral part of economic development and societal transformation, and historical experience has shown that it cannot be stopped. The rising contribution of cities to India’s GDP would not be possible without migration and migrant workers. Migrants are indispensable and yet invisible key actors of 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 revealed that they contribute 10 per cent to the national GDP (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009).

A holistic approach to addressing the multiple challenges associated with internal migration is yet to be developed. Internal migration is, by its very nature, a cross-sectoral theme, which requires the interaction of several departments and Ministries at central and state level governments. It involves a majority of women, and men and children, young and old, migrating in family or alone, on a long or short term basis, for work, for marriage, or both; it touches the entire spectrum of the human life: education, labor, citizenship, gender, children, health, nutrition, voting; it is an urban and rural phenomenon. There is an urgent need to develop a governance system for internal migration in India, i.e. a dedicated system of institutions, legal frameworks, mechanisms and practices aimed at supporting internal migration and protecting migrants.

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. Through this publication, UNESCO wishes to increase
visibility and recognition of the internal migration phenomenon in India, disseminate evidence-based experiences and practices, and provoke a paradigm shift in the perception and portrayal of migrants by addressing myths and misconceptions and creating awareness on the benefits of migrants’ inclusion in society.

I do hope that *Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India* will spread to other countries which face similar internal migration challenges and allow them to identify problems, compare experiences and develop effective solutions, so that a socially inclusive human society can truly be achieved.

I wish to thank all practitioners, researchers and colleagues who have contributed to the completion of this publication and I am particularly grateful for the overall support extended by UNICEF and Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, which brings us a step closer to the realization of a more just and inclusive Indian society, based on cultural diversity, social cohesion and human rights.

Shigeru AOYAGI
Director and UNESCO Representative to Bhutan, India, Maldives and Sri Lanka
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What is at stake and what are the challenges to be faced?
Major Net Migration Flow in India (duration 0-9 years), 2001

Lead source states
Andhra Pradesh
Bihar
Chhattisgarh
Jharkhand
Madhya Pradesh
Odisha
Rajasthan
Tamil Nadu
Uttar Pradesh
Uttarakhand

Key destination states
Delhi
Gujarat
Haryana
Karnataka
Maharashtra
Punjab

Bhagat and Mohanty, 2009.
What is at stake and what are the challenges to be faced?

Internal Migration: A Neglected Priority World-Wide

Internal migrants - those who move within national boundaries - are several times more significant in terms of the numbers involved compared to those who move across countries, but fail to receive the attention international migration receives from researchers, international organisations and funding agencies. According to the UNDP Human Development Report 2009, the number of those who moved across the major zonal demarcations 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 per cent of urban growth results from internal migration from rural to urban areas (UNESCO/UN-HABITAT, 2012). Urban growth is the result of a number of factors besides net rural-urban migration, including natural increase, net increase in new towns and jurisdictional changes. In India for instance, about 60 per cent of growth in the urban population is due to natural increase, while rural–urban migration has contributed to about 20 per cent of increase in urban population (HPEC, 2011).

In China, according to the 2010 Census, internal migrants are estimated at approximately 221 million people (Zhu and Lin, 2012). Internal migration in China has been defined by the hukou system, a household registration system which dates to 1958, and strictly divides China’s population into urban or rural categories. The hukou system has historically imposed severe restrictions on the rights and benefits of internal migrants, as rights and social protection entitlements, such as grain rations, employer-provided housing, health care and education,

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1 The Census of India defines an internal migrant as a person residing in a place other than his/her place of birth (Place of Birth definition) or one who has changed his/her usual place of residence to another place (change in Usual Place of Residence or UPR definition). The National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) confines itself to the UPR definition. In both the surveys, a resident is defined as one who has been staying in a location for six months or more (except newly born infants) (Srivastava, 2012a). This publication uses the UPR definition of an internal migrant.
are given to households on the strict basis of their authorized geographical domain. In recent times, the *hukou* system has become more lenient and flexible, and there has been a growing awareness that a non-urban-centred and non-residence-based approach is needed to ensure the rights of internal migrants in all locations.

**Internal Migration: The Indian Context**

Free movement is a fundamental right of the citizens of India and internal movements are not restricted. 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”.


India’s total population, as recorded in the recently concluded Census 2011, stands at 1.21 billion. Internal migrants in India constitute a large population: 309 million internal migrants or 30 per cent of the population (Census of India, 2001), and by more recent estimates 326 million or 28.5 per cent of the population (NSSO 2007–08). Lead source states of internal migrants include Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha, Uttarakhand and Tamil Nadu, whereas key destination areas are Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab and Karnataka. There are conspicuous migration corridors within the country: Bihar to National Capital Region, Bihar to Haryana and Punjab, Uttar Pradesh to Maharashtra, Odisha to Gujarat, Odisha to Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan to Gujarat (UNESCO/UNICEF, 2012b).

Projections indicate that internal migrants may increase in number to approximately 400 million in Census 2011 (Rajan, 2013). This far exceeds the estimates of Indian emigrants i.e. 11.4 million (The World Bank, 2011). Further, internal migration remains grossly underestimated due to empirical and conceptual difficulties in measurement.

Despite the fact that approximately three out of every ten Indians are internal migrants, internal migration has been accorded very low priority by the government, and existing policies of the Indian state have failed in providing legal or social protection to this vulnerable group. This can be attributed in part to a serious data gap on the extent, nature and magnitude of internal migration.

Migration in India is primarily of two types: (a) Long-term migration, resulting in the relocation of an individual or household and (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). Yet, macro surveys such as the Census fail to adequately capture flows of short-term migrants and do not record secondary reasons for migration.

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2 Data on migration from the Census of India 2001 is mostly used in this publication, since data on migration from the Census of India 2011 is not yet available.

3 Short term migrants are defined as those migrants who had stayed away from their Usual Place of Residence for a period of 1 month or more but less than 6 months during the last 365 days, for employment or in search of employment.
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 per cent of internal migrants as per Census 2001, and 80 per cent of total internal migrants as per NSSO (2007-08). Marriage is given by women respondents as the most prominent reason for migrating: cited by 91.3 per cent of women in rural areas and 60.8 per cent of women in urban areas (NSSO 2007–08). However, several researchers are working to uncover the more complex reality lying behind statistics and consider that women migrate for a number of other reasons that are not captured by census and macro-data surveys.

About 30 per cent 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). Furthermore, several studies have pointed out that migration is not always permanent and seasonal and circular migration is widespread, especially among the socio-economically deprived groups, such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other Backward Castes (OBCs), who are asset-poor and face resource and livelihood deficits (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009).

The intensity of migration is expected to increase in the future as a response to economic crises, political instability and global environment change (Deshingkar and Sandi, 2012). In particular, global environment change, especially climate change impacts will directly affect population mobility. Estimates indicate that by 2050, 200 million people worldwide may become permanently displaced due to environmental factors such as sea level rise, floods, more intense droughts, and other climate-driven changes (Myers, 2002). In such a scenario, migration should be seen as an appropriate and manageable adaptation strategy to cope with environmental, socio-economic and political stress (UNESCO, 2011; Foresight, 2011).

There is an urgent need to develop a governance system for internal migration in India, i.e. a dedicated system of institutions, legal frameworks, mechanisms and practices aimed at supporting internal migration and protecting migrants. Issues of internal migration need to be addressed in a comprehensive and focused manner, and mainstreamed into national development planning and policy documents, such as the Five Year Plans, Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission and City Development Plans.

**Internal Migration and Urbanisation**

“... cities should be able to provide basic services to migrant workers, their families and other vulnerable sections of society including women and children.”

*Draft Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012–2017)*

India’s urban population has increased from about 286 million in 2001 to 377 million in 2011, and is expected to increase to 600 million (out of a total population of 1.4 billion) by 2030 (Census of India, 2011 and Planning Commission, 2011). For the first time since Independence (1947), urban population growth (91 million) has exceeded rural population growth (90.5 million) within the last decade (Census of India, 2011).
Internal migrants constitute about one-third of India’s urban population, and this proportion has been increasing: from 31.6 per cent in 1983 to 33 per cent in 1999-2000, and to 35 per cent in 2007-08 (NSSO 2007-08). The increase in the migration rate to urban areas has primarily occurred due to an increase in migration rate for females, which has been rising from 38.2 per cent in 1993 to 41.8 per cent in 1999-2000 to 45.6 per cent in 2007-08. As discussed earlier, although women migrants declare to migrate on account of marriage, many of them take up work, joining the pool of migrant workers in urban areas. Male migration rate in urban areas has remained constant over this period (between 26 and 27 per cent), but employment-related reasons for migration of males increased from 42 per cent in 1993 to 52 per cent in 1999-2000 to 56 per cent in 2007-08. This shows the increasing importance of employment-related migration to urban areas. Internal migrants are thus key actors of prosperous cities, boosting economic activity and economic growth (Bhagat, 2011).

Better inclusion of migrants in cities is a necessary step towards sustainable urban development, based on cultural diversity, social cohesion and human rights. Yet, most of the million-plus cities have recorded significant declines in their population growth, suggesting they may have become less welcoming to migrants, revealing patterns of exclusionary urban growth (Kundu, 2012).

There is a pressing need to ensure that urban settlements become inclusive spaces as they expand in size and diversity. This would require adequate and affordable housing, health and education services as well as infrastructure and sanitation. Improving migrants’ access to government services and welfare programmes can improve the quality of life of migrants. This will in turn lay the foundations for a more inclusive and integrated society and balance economic prosperity and social diversity.
Internal Migration Challenges

Internal migration patterns and dynamics intersect with two developments in India’s current human development context. First, rapid urbanisation and the growth of second tier cities and towns: increased levels of migration cause cities to face many socio-economic and environmental challenges that exacerbate urban poverty and intensify inequalities in access to income and services, and thereby deepen social exclusion. Second, the expansion of rights based approaches - increasingly enshrined in law - to ensure that basic services are accessible to all citizens is a process in the making, transforming India’s social policy landscape from welfarism to rights-based development.

Due to the lack of analytical refinement in the way that internal migration is defined, design and delivery of services for migrants is hampered. Migrants continually face difficulties in becoming a full part of the economic, cultural, social and political lives of society. Regulations and administrative procedures exclude migrants from access to legal rights, public services and social protection programmes accorded to residents, on account of which they are often treated as second-class citizens. Internal migrants face numerous constraints, including: a lack of political representation; inadequate housing and a lack of formal residency rights; low-paid, insecure or hazardous work; limited access to state-provided services such as health and education; discrimination based on ethnicity, religion, class or gender; extreme vulnerability of women and children migrants to trafficking and sex exploitation (UNESCO/UN-HABITAT, 2012).

Internal migrants, especially seasonal and circular migrants, constitute a “floating” population, as they alternate between living at their source and destination locations, and in turn lose access to social protection benefits linked to the place of residence. There remains no concerted strategy to ensure portability of entitlements for migrants (Deshingkar and Farrington, 2009). Planning for migrant families who are not settled but on the move warrants a fundamental rethinking of development approaches and models (Smita, 2007).

Understanding Internal Migrants’ Exclusion

Migrants are looked upon as ‘outsiders’ by the local host administration, and as a burden on systems and resources at the destination. In India, migrants’ right to the city is denied on the political defence of the ‘sons of the soil’ theory, which aims to create vote banks along ethnic, linguistic and religious lines. 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). This leads to marginalisation of migrants in the decision-making processes of the city, and exacerbates their vulnerabilities to the vagaries of the labour market, poverty traps, and risks of discrimination and violence.

Women migrants face double discrimination, encountering difficulties peculiar to migrants, coupled with their specific vulnerability as victims of gender-based violence, and physical, sexual or psychological abuse, exploitation and trafficking.
Internal migrants contribute cheap labour for manufacturing and services and in doing so contribute to national GDP, but this is not recognised. Far from being a drain and burden, migrants are in fact providing a subsidy.

Poor migrants typically do the 3-D jobs (Dirty, Dangerous and Degrading) which locals do not want to do; this is different to ‘stealing jobs’.

Migration and urbanisation are an integral part of economic development and societal transformation, and historical experience has shown that it cannot be stopped.

In practice, internal migrants do not have the freedom and dignity that the Constitution promises. Policy makers and urban planners mostly view migration as a negative process and have therefore created an inconducive and unsupportive environment through neglect and inaction.

By not accepting migrants or providing facilities for them, governments are merely increasing the risks and costs of migration and reducing its development potential.

Internal migration is a non-issue in India since all citizens “have the right (…) to move freely throughout the territory of India; to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India”.

The design of the Census and NSSO data surveys enable respondents to give only a single reason for migration. Though marriage is reported by women as the most prominent reason for migration, women’s labour migration and economic contribution remain inadequately captured owing to this mono causal approach. This has contributed towards undercounting of women’s migration for employment.

Internal migrants are a drain on society and a burden for the economies of the destination.

Internal migrants steal jobs from the local population.

In hospitable and harsh cities are the best deterrent to migration flow.

In practice, internal migrants do not have the freedom and dignity that the Constitution promises. Policy makers and urban planners mostly view migration as a negative process and have therefore created an inconducive and unsupportive environment through neglect and inaction.

Women’s migration is mostly for marriage and associational reasons (as members of a migrating family).

Migrants are further marginalised through negative portrayal in the media, and stigmatisation by municipal and state leaders who exploit communal divides and prejudices.

**Myths and Facts about Internal Migration**

A fundamental misunderstanding and lack of recognition of the migratory phenomenon is increasingly at the root of misconceived policies or stubborn inaction regarding internal migration. Policies and programmes facilitating migrant integration at the destination remain weak at best or non-existent. Further, migrants are subjected to hate propaganda from local fundamentalists who, motivated by fear and parochialism, blame them for all civic and social unrest at the destination.

Clear and consistent data on migration is urgently required to dispel myths and misunderstanding about internal migrants, as displayed on the opposite page.

**Benefits of Migrants’ Inclusion in Society**

“In our increasingly diverse societies, it is essential to ensure harmonious interaction among people and groups with plural, varied and dynamic cultural identities as well as their willingness to live together. Policies for the inclusion and participation of all citizens are guarantees of social cohesion, the vitality of civil society and peace.”

*From Article 2, UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity, 2001*

Internal migration is an integral part of development and cities are important destinations for migrants. The rising contribution of cities to India’s GDP would not be possible without migration and migrant workers. Some of the important sectors in which migrants work include: construction, brick kiln, salt pans, carpet and embroidery, commercial and plantation agriculture and variety of jobs in urban informal sectors such as vendors, hawkers, rickshaw puller, daily wage workers and domestic work (Bhagat, 2012).

Estimates of the domestic remittance market are roughly USD 10 billion for 2007-08 (Tumbe, 2011). Evidence reveals that with rising incomes, migrant remittances can encourage investment in human capital formation, particularly increased expenditure on health and, to some extent, on education (Deshingkar and Sandi, 2012).

Many positive impacts of migration remain unrecognised. Migrants are indispensable and yet invisible key actors in 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 revealed that they contribute 10 per cent to the national GDP (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009). In particular, women migrants’ economic
contribution at the destination remains unacknowledged, despite the fact that they shoulder the double burden of livelihood (being often engaged as unregistered, unpaid and therefore invisible workers) and household work, in the absence of traditional family-based support systems.

Migrants bring back to source locations a variety of skills, innovations and knowledge, known as ‘social remittances’, including changes in tastes, perceptions and attitudes, such as for example, a lack of acceptance of poor employment conditions, low wages and semi-feudal labour relationships, and improved knowledge and awareness about workers’ rights (Bhagat, 2011). Migration may provide an opportunity to escape caste divisions and restrictive social norms, and work with dignity and freedom at the destination (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009). Women left behind enjoy empowerment effects, with increased interaction in society, including their participation as workers and as household decision-makers (Srivastava, 2012a). Internal migration can expand people’s freedoms and capabilities, and make substantial contributions to human development in terms of improved incomes, education and health (UNDP, 2009).
Ten key areas for better inclusion of migrants: Innovative practices
Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India
Ten key areas for better inclusion of migrants: Innovative practices

1. Registration and Identity

In the absence of documentary proof of identity and local residence, regulations and administrative procedures exclude migrants from access to legal rights, public services and social protection programmes accorded to residents, on account of which they are often treated as second-class citizens. As a result, internal migrants face barriers in accessing subsidised food, housing and banking services.

However, there is optimism that the new Unique Identification programme (*Aadhar*) could change this. The Unique Identification Authority of India (UIDAI) was created to issue to every resident a unique identification number (*Aadhar*) linked to the resident’s demographic and biometric information, which they can use to identify themselves anywhere in India, and to access benefits and services. As part of its outreach efforts to ensure that *Aadhar* reaches out to poor and marginalised sections of society, UIDAI held consultations with individuals and civil society organisations representing a number of special interest groups, including migrant labourers. As a result of these consultations, the UIDAI signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on 29 July 2010 with the National Coalition\(^5\) of Organisations for the Security of Migrant Workers.

The MoU outlines the framework of the UIDAI-Coalition partnership for ensuring inclusion of migrants in the unique identification project, and ensuring they are issued a secure and unique identification number. This includes developing strategies for enrolment such as special enrolment drives for migrants alongside spreading communication and awareness about *Aadhar* within migrant communities to help them understand its potential benefits.

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\(^5\) The Coalition is comprised of over 30 civil society organisations across the country concerned with migrants’ welfare and security.
It also involves envisioning _Aadhar_-enabled applications to serve the needs of the migrant communities, and enabling leaders and staff of civil society organisations working with migrant communities to act as their ‘introducers’, especially in cases where there is a lack of proof of address or identity (UIDAI, 2010).

The process of enrolment of migrants in the _Aadhar_ programme needs to be closely monitored because in practice they may be enrolled later than non-migrant population. In the meantime, NGOs have started to make efforts to provide migrants with identity cards. The first cards for migrant workers were introduced by the Migrant Labour Support Programme (MLSP) implemented by the Gramin Vikas Trust in Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat. The scheme was successful in helping migrants establish their identity when questioned by the police and other authorities. These informal ID cards were accepted and endorsed by the district administration in several districts in Madhya Pradesh. For example Jhabua district issued 30,000 ID cards to migrants in collaboration with MLSP in 2005-06 (Prasad and Deshingkar, 2006).

**BOX 1: IDENTITY CRISIS AND NUMBERS: AAJEEVIKA BUREAU**

As a response to the identity crisis that a migrant faces – especially during inter-state migration - Aajeevika Bureau undertakes a process of registration of migrants and issues identity cards. The worker applies for the identity card by filling out a simple registration form that captures demographic information including the duration of their migration cycle and his/her destination, trade and income. Migrants get this information verified by the _Sarpanch_, the elected head of their _panchayat_ (village level institution of local self-government). Following this, migrants are issued with an identity card that contains all relevant details, including their domicile, trade, education and contact details.

Started in 2005, the registration and identity service achieved a significant milestone in December 2007. After two years of advocacy efforts the card was recognised as a valid proof of identity by the Ministry of Labour and Employment of Rajasthan. With this authorisation, the card has found greater acceptability as a credible proof of identity among employers, police and local administration. Going beyond a mere proof of introduction, this card has now become the gateway to numerous services such as employer verification, opening of bank accounts and enrolment for social security services. The photo ID is also a critical document preventing migrants from experiencing police harassment that is common place in cities.

Aajeevika Bureau states that over a span of seven years, they have been able to register a total of over 70,000 migrants. Under the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust (SDTT) supported migration programme, this service has now been replicated by 32 organisations across 41 districts of
states such as Odisha, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Rajasthan, covering source areas in high out-migration states as well as key urban destinations, reaching out to over 100,000 migrants. While civil society organisations have demonstrated how migrants can be counted, registered and offered a verifiable proof of identity, it is clear that the scale of migration in reality demands a much larger, state-driven response to solve this identity crisis.

This simple yet powerful tool designed by Aajeevika has resulted in securing the identities of a mobile and vulnerable population who were otherwise struggling to assert their citizenship rights in urban spaces. Away from their homes and local community support systems, often speaking a language that no one understands, the identity card gives them a sense of security and entitlement.

Source: Aajeevika Bureau (www.aajeevika.org)

BOX 2: IDENTITY CARD: LABOURNET

The Bangalore based LabourNet programme has also issued migrants with identity cards. Through its network of Worker Facilitation Centres in Karnataka, LabourNet undertakes the registration of unorganised sector workers, including migrants, through referrals and direct field-based registration drives. As part of registration, details pertaining to workers’ qualifications and experience, family details and proof of address are collected and entered into a centralised database. Following registration - for which workers are charged an annual fee of ₹ 150 (USD 3) - they get accident insurance coverage, a laminated LabourNet identity card and a bank account opened in their name. LabourNet has registered approximately 44,000 workers since 2006.

Source: LabourNet (www.labournet.in)
BOX 3: TRADE UNION CARDS FOR MIGRANTS: DISHA FOUNDATION

Disha Foundation in Nashik has issued identity cards to 15,000 migrants enrolled in the trade unions of various sectors. Migrants are provided with official membership and a photo identity card for the union, based on a detailed registration form that includes basic demographic information. The total cost for a lifetime membership is ₹ 10 (USD 0.18) and it is offered to migrants in Nashik city as well as at source villages.

These trade union cards have been authorised by the gram panchayats (village level institution of local self-government) of source villages, and have proved extremely valuable for migrants at destinations. Many migrants have reported that the identity card has served as an important document, providing them with a proof of identity necessary for accessing public services in Nashik city, besides ensuring protection against police harassment and wage exploitation. Some migrants were able to vote with the union card in absence of any other photo identification at a source village, Kharwal in Peth block.

Source: Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)
2. Political and Civic Inclusion

“Being a registered voter, by definition implies stability, whereas migration or being a migrant is synonymous with mobility. There is a dichotomy between stability for voting and mobility for livelihood and the choice between voting and livelihood is obvious.”

Dr. Jagdeep Chhokar⁶, Founder and Trustee, Association for Democratic Reforms

Democratic elections are an important medium through which the poor are provided with a formal channel to express their satisfaction or grievances against the ruling political party. However, due to seasonal migration, migrants often remain absent from their constituencies at the source during the time of elections. According to a study, *Political Inclusion of Seasonal Migrant Workers in India: Perceptions, Realities and Challenges⁷* (Sharma et al, 2010), nearly 60 per cent of respondents reported having missed voting in elections at least once because they were away from home in search of work.

Additionally, 54 per cent of respondents claimed that they had returned to their home villages during elections with the intention of voting, of which 74 per cent returned specifically for elections of the panchayat (village level institution of local self-government). In the case of short-distance movements, almost 50 per cent of migrants indicated that they were brought back to their hometowns during elections by the funding and sponsorship of local candidates, for whom they were expected to vote.

The study demonstrated that migrants remained more aware of and connected to political developments in their source locations rather than at the destinations, where they exercised limited political agency, remaining preoccupied with harassment and threats to their livelihood and shelter. Media reports have also indicated that at destinations, political leaders often exploit migrants as a pawn in divisive vote banks politics, tarnishing migrants for their ethnic, linguistic and religious differences and blaming them for disturbing the social and economic order.

A number of Urban Local Bodies and Municipalities in India, including New Delhi, Vishakhapatanam and Coimbatore, have declared citizen’s charters to recognise the rights of citizens and take responsibility for responding to their needs. Citizen’s charters seek to provide pertinent information to citizens about services being delivered by the Municipal Corporation, create a system that will receive public grievances, and redress them in a time bound manner while making citizens aware of their rights and responsibilities. In theory, citizen’s charters could form the basis for migrants’ claims to their right to the city (Bhagat, 2011).

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⁶ Key Note Address "The Importance of Being In: Migrants and the Right to Vote" delivered at the Workshop on Political Inclusion of Migrant Workers and their Access to Basic Services, Lucknow, 10-11 March, 2011.
⁷ The study covered 686 migrants spanning five states (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Gujarat), and covering 15 locations. It was undertaken by five civil society organisations - Ajeevika Bureau, Udaipur; Grameen Development Services (GDS), Lucknow; Gramin Evam Samajik Vikas Sansthan (GSVS), Ajmer; Disha, Nashik and Ghoghardiha Prakhand Swarajya Vikas Sangh (GPSVS), Madhubani.
For example, in the citizen’s charter of Coimbatore in Tamil Nadu the Mayor invites citizens to make use of the charter: “We invite citizens to use this charter to ensure better standards of service and bring to the notice of the concerned authorities as listed. Any failure or non-compliance of citizen’s charter, the people are requested to contact the concerned authorities. We invite greater participation, support and assistance from the citizens, which we value most.”

An upcoming bill pending in Parliament - The Right of Citizens for Time Bound Delivery of Goods and Services and Redressal of their Grievances Bill, 2011 – could further ensure a mechanism of accountability of public authorities. The bill mandates every public authority to publish a citizen’s charter, outlining timelines for delivery of goods and services. It would enable a citizen to file a complaint related to non-functioning of public authorities, violation of a law, policy or scheme or any grievance related to citizens charters, and offending officers could be penalized with a maximum fine of ₹ 50,000 (USD 900).

Migrants, especially those with low levels of education and political voice, will need assistance in accessing such instruments. The role of civil society organisations will be critical in creating awareness among migrants about their rights.

**BOX 4: A WELCOME GIFT FOR MIGRANTS**

In August 2012, the Chief Minister of Kerala directed the state’s labour department to distribute goodwill kits to migrants as a gift to celebrate Onam, Kerala’s main festival. Each kit cost approximately ₹ 150 and contained vegetables and various articles such as rice, oil, sugar, tea and red pepper. The kits were intended as a token, in recognition of the contribution of migrants to the state’s development.

This timely gesture of good will was extended in the midst of a nationwide panic among migrants from north-east India who massively fled from Pune, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Chennai and Goa, fearing backlashes attacks by locals, after violent ethnic clashes erupted between Bodo tribals and Muslims in Kokrajhar, Assam, North East.

“In mid-August, as other States saw them fleeing in large numbers, Kerala quickly doused any attempt to trigger panic among the labourers in the State by announcing a Cabinet decision to thank them instead, through a unique gesture: providing them goodwill kits containing vegetables and provisions as a gift to celebrate Onam with the local people.

Chief Minister Oommen Chandy said the government had meant it to be an ‘expression of love and good sentiments’ of Malayalis towards the migrant workers and as an assurance that they were part of the population of the State.” (Excerpt from Frontline, Vol.29, Issue 18, September 8 – 21, 2012).

Source: IANS (2012); Krishnakumar (2012)

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Vishakhapatnam: http://www.vuda.gov.in/citizen_charter.html
POLICY

Special provisions are needed to ensure the voting rights of internal migrants irrespective of their multi-locational residence. Sainath (2004) suggests that to guarantee migrants their right to vote, it needs to be ensured that regional harvest schedules do not overlap with election dates. Overall processes of governance need to be democratized in order to include internal migrants in decision making processes and planning (e.g. development of master plans in cities), and promoting their representation in local bodies.

3. Labour Market Inclusion

Migrants are mostly employed in the informal economy, often working as construction workers, agricultural labourers, hawkers and vendors, domestic servants, rickshaw pullers, electricians, plumbers, masons and security personnel. Devoid of social security and legal protection, they work in poor conditions and face labour market discrimination. Minimum wages are often flouted and employers bear no responsibility for health, shelter and other basic requirements of migrants.

In order to improve the employability of migrants in remunerative sectors, some state governments and NGOs have undertaken skills-building programmes. Disha Foundation, an NGO, has organised skill upgradation and capacity building programmes to develop the skill sets of migrants, so they may compete in the labour market and reap the benefits of new opportunities. A labour bank of skilled workers is formed at source as well as destination levels so that migrants can easily access job opportunities. The bank provides a pool of skilled and semi skilled workers like painters, plumbers, carpenters, masons and agricultural workers.

By establishing links with government and non-governmental stakeholders such as the Tribal Department, Forest Department, Agricultural Department, Industrial Training Institutes, Manufactures and Exporters Association, Builders Association, Raisin Manufacturers’ Association, poultry farms, hotel management colleges and existing government livelihood and training programmes, migrants have been provided with skill certification. According to the Disha Foundation, this certification has helped them obtain better jobs and increased incomes. Similarly LabourNet in Bangalore has also launched a skills training and job linkages programme.
POLICY

It is necessary to create job fairs and employment exchanges for internal migrants to be able to negotiate opportunities with employers, including training, placement and skill upgradation, with the mediation of NGOs and civil society organisations. Planned and skilled migration with hand-holding support from the state government and/or private companies and assured placement constitutes a new paradigm of migration that demonstrates the potential benefits of assisted migration. But, in situations where the migrants are uneducated and poor, creating awareness about their rights and knowing to whom to turn for information and support in negotiations is critical.

BOX 5: PREVENTING BONDED LABOUR AMONG SEASONAL MIGRANTS

For the poorest migrants, the terms and condition of work are akin to bonded labour. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has collaborated with the Ministry of Labour and Employment and state governments in India to promote decent work, especially in the brick kiln sector, with the aim of preventing seasonal migrants from becoming vulnerable to bonded labour. Seasonal migrant labourers are often provided cash advances by labour contractors in return for their labour and, in turn, contractors retain financial and often physical control of labourers. Because of this arrangement some migrants remain locked in debt-migration cycles, using earnings from migration to alleviate past debt.

Based on the outcomes of a pilot undertaken in Tamil Nadu, the project aims to cover the brick kiln sector in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh. The project aims to reduce household vulnerability to bondage among migrants in the brick kiln sector, which has thus far continued despite the Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act (1976). The promotion of decent work includes: improvement of workplace conditions, transparency in wage payments, social dialogue to resolve workplace problems, enrolling migrant workers in government schemes at source and destination states, unionising workers and providing migrant children with schooling opportunities.

In particular, to tackle cases of bondage among inter-state migrant workers, the project seeks to establish an inter-state coordination mechanism with anchorage at the national level. A Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) has been signed between Odisha (sending state), Andhra Pradesh (receiving state) and the Ministry of Labour and Employment on 8 June 2012 for inter-state coordination to reduce the vulnerability to bondage of migrant workers. Subsequently, a Migrant Workers Cell was constituted on July 6, 2012, to look into the issues of inter-state migrants and to provide assistance to the states and for facilitating resolution of grievances between the states.

Similar MoUs are expected to be signed by Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Bihar with corresponding destination states.

Source: ILO (www.ilo.org/newdelhi); Ministry of Labour and Employment (www.labour.nic.in)
BOX 6: SKILLS TRAINING, ASSESSMENT AND JOB LINKAGES: LABOURNET

LabourNet seeks to create a more productive workforce comprised of trained and certified workers, ensuring them easy and institutionalised access to jobs. This is done by providing training support to workers, with the aim of increasing employability and improving remuneration. LabourNet imparts skills training and regular skills assessment of workers through their Worker Facilitation Centres in Karnataka, following which workers are certified in a number of different trades, for example as carpenters, masons, electricians, and beauticians. According to LabourNet, the programme has provided training for 6,300 workers, conducted skills assessments for 7,500 workers and provided job linkages to over 8,000 workers.

Source: LabourNet (www.labournet.in)

BOX 7: JEEVIKA, GOVERNMENT OF BIHAR: MIGRATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

Operating within the framework of the National Rural Livelihoods Mission, Jeevika, Bihar Rural Livelihoods Project, is an initiative from the Government of Bihar, supported by The World Bank. It is a community-driven poverty alleviation project, working in 400 villages and covering 700,000 households. Jeevika promotes market-linked skills enhancement and placement of Bihari migrant workers, by collaborating with private companies, such as Vardhaman Spinning (Oswal group), Orient Craft Fashion Institute of Technology and Matrix Clothing Pvt. Ltd, Gurgaon.

The partnership seeks to ensure the mobilisation of rural youth from Bihar for employment opportunities. These companies conduct job fairs in source locations of Bihari migrants, providing employees with information on workplace, hostels and other facilities and informing the youth regarding the salaries and incentives being offered. Jeevika supports these companies through the recruitment process, ensuring that community resource persons counsel the youth, and prevent dropouts from the programme, for which additionally, a dedicated call centre has been set up in Bodhgaya.

Jeevika also enrolls migrants in short-term training courses to facilitate a shift to higher incomes and organised sector jobs. In the future, Jeevika aims to converge with the state labour department for issuing identity card to ensure entitlements of social security and pensions to migrants, and to prevent exploitation by police on buses and trains. At the block level, Migration Resource Centres are planned and community professionals will be employed to help build a data base of migrants with details of their destinations, income, and name of contractor.

In addition to Jeevika, the Government of Bihar has also instituted the Bihar State Migrant Labour Accident Grant Scheme, which provides compensation to a deceased migrant family up to ₹1 lakh in event of death (USD 1,786); ₹75,000 for permanent disability (USD 1,340) and ₹37,500 for partial disability (USD 670). A Joint Labour Commissioner has also been positioned at New Delhi to address grievances of Bihari migrants.

Source: Jeevika, Bihar Rural Livelihoods Promotion Society (BRLPS) (www.brlp.in)
BOX 8: MIGRANTS AND TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT IN MAHARASHTRA

The Tribal Development Department, Government of Maharashtra and Disha Foundation, Nasik have joined efforts to establish a Migration Resource Centre with support from the Revenue, Urban Land Ceiling, Municipal Corporation, and Public Works Departments. The Migration Resource Centre plans to generate data on migrant flows for better informed programmes and policies. It also intends to address migration at both the destination and source. The Centre has a two-fold approach: firstly, it will facilitate migration to Nashik city during the migration period through livelihood skills building and job linkages, education and health services. Secondly, it will focus on the better implementation of existing government programmes at source villages of migrants in Nashik district, with the goal of reducing distress migration.

This Centre marks the culmination of seven years of advocacy by Disha Foundation to mainstream migration into government policies. The Central Ministry of Tribal Affairs has sanctioned a grant for the construction of the Migration Resource Centre and the Maharashtra state government has financed the programme cost for three years. The land for the construction of the centre has been allotted by the Urban Land Ceiling Department. The Tribal Ministry intends to pilot this initiative in Nashik and, based on the results, hopes to ensure its wider replication at the state and national level.

Source: Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)

4. Legal Aid and Dispute Resolution

Migrants are predominantly engaged in the informal sector where labour laws and safety measures remain unimplemented, and minimum wages are not respected, particularly for women. Further, poor literacy levels act as an impediment in claiming rights and entitlements for internal migrants. In India, as per Census of India 2011, the overall literacy rate was 74.04 per cent, with male literacy rate being 82.14 per cent and female literacy rate being 65.46 per cent. Regarding migrants, data from Census of India 2001, reveals that more than half of the female migrants (57.8 per cent) and 25.8 per cent of the male migrants were illiterate (Rajan, 2013). Further, NSSO data (2007-08) reveals that 52 per cent short-duration migrants were either illiterate or had not even completed primary education (Srivastava, 2012a).

Since migrants mostly have restricted access to education, they remain unaware of their legal rights and are unable to access an impartial forum to register their grievances. Women migrants are even more vulnerable to exploitation, possessing negligible or often lower educational qualifications than their male counterparts. As a result, they face harassment and other aspects of labour market discrimination. Due to their mobile status, migrants face difficulties in unionising, and remain a fragmented workforce.
POLICY

Internal migrants, both men and women, should be able to access legal aid and counselling to protect them from work and wage-related malpractice, and to ensure they have access to grievance handling and dispute resolution mechanisms to negotiate with their employers and/or contractors.

BOX 9: “LEGAL CLINIC DAYS” FOR MIGRANTS IN RAJASTHAN

Here too, NGOs have provided the critical brokerage between migrants and the formal system to improve their access to legal services. In Rajasthan, Aajeevika Bureau has been providing legal counselling for migrants with a view to support workers who grapple with the vagaries of the informal labour market. The legal aid service encompasses dedicated programmes for legal literacy and direct legal help through mediation and litigation in special cases. In the case of a dispute, workers can approach the walk-in resource centres (Shramik Sahayata evam Sandarbha Kendras or 3SKs) to register their case and seek counsel and aid.

This process of intermediation is institutionalised through regular legal clinic days. Legal clinic days are adaptations of the formal court mechanism, wherein disputing parties are given an objective hearing and advice by a trained lawyer. The resource centre plays the role of an objective mediator between the complainant and the offenders. There is an emphasis on resolving disputes through intermediation and negotiation rather than litigation, which can be expensive and time consuming for workers to pursue.

Data from Aajeevika Bureau shows that to date nearly 1,005 cases have been registered, of which 540 cases have been resolved, mainly through arbitration. This intervention has resulted in a settlement of over USD 100,000 in favor of workers.

Source: Aajeevika Bureau (www.aajeevika.org)
**BOX 10: LABOUR LINE IN UDAIPUR**

Aajeevika Bureau has launched a phone-based help line for workers called Labour Line in Udaipur, Rajasthan. The helpline involves a dedicated phone line answered by a trained counsellor. It allows workers to reach out for counsel in case of any problem related to wages, retrenchment or abuse. Labour Line is supported by a network of walk-in resource centres. Since it was launched in August 2011, Labour Line has received over 700 phone calls from across the state.

The majority of cases that reach the centre pertain to wage payments and are limited mostly to male workers. Instances of disputes being reported by women are fewer and the on-going initiative is trying to reach out to female workers. Nevertheless, the high rate of calls to Labour Line demonstrates that there is a great need to provide fast track dispute redressal forums for workers in the unorganised sector.

Source: Aajeevika Bureau (www.aajeevika.org)

**BOX 11: DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN ALLAHABAD**

PEPUS or Paryavaran Evam Prodyogiki Utthan Samiti (Society for Environmental and Technical Upliftment), based in Jhusi, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh, facilitates the process of dispute resolution for migrant labourers, and aims to reach a settlement through mutual dialogue.

PEPUS has promoted the formation of a collective of migrant labourers working in brick kilns, known as Bhatta Parivarik Vikas Sewa Samiti (Association for Development of Families of Brick Kiln Workers), which is registered under the Indian Societies Registration Act 1860. To resolve disputes, migrant labourers first submit a written complaint at the Migrant Resource Centre (Shramik Sahayata Kendra). After discussion, an information letter is issued by the collective to the opponent party (usually the labour contractor or brick kiln owner), comprising details of the dispute and date of hearing. On the day of the dispute hearing, both parties assemble at the centre, after which the migrant labourer first presents details regarding the dispute, following which the opponent party puts forth their case regarding the complaint. On most occasions, disputes are settled by the proactive mediation and arbitration of the collective. Disputes that cannot be settled through mutual dialogue are forwarded to an advocate of the High Court, who attends the centre on a regular basis and takes necessary action for dispute resolution. Most of the disputes registered between labourers and employers relate to payment, and the centre assists labourers in getting due wages from their contractor or employer.

PEPUS states that it has undertaken dispute resolution covering a total of 600 villages, in Bihar block, Pratapgarh district and Muratganj block, Kausambi district of Uttar Pradesh. Migrant labourers have begun raising their voice against injustice and harassment. PEPUS’ data shows that they have registered a total of 187 cases, of which 50 cases have been resolved, with a total of ₹739,141 (USD 13,200) unpaid wage arrears being accorded to labourers.

Source: PEPUS (www.pepus.org)
BOX 12: ATTENDANCE DIARIES IN BHUBANESWAR

Pratikar is based in the worksites of the urban areas of Bhubaneswar city, Khordha district, Odisha. At these worksites, since there is an absence of written records of days of work and wages, contractors try to exploit labourers. To address this, Pratikar has issued *Shramik Haziri Diaries* (attendance diaries) in which migrant workers can keep an account of days worked and payment details. Such records help migrants get the correct wages at the time of final settlement. Based on the legal aid provided by Pratikar - a monthly legal advice day and legal literacy camp with the help of an advocate - 27 migrants have received financial compensation amounting to ₹ 460,500 (USD 8,225).

As unions can greatly facilitate the resolution of disputes through dialogue and empower migrant laborers, Pratikar is in the process of establishing a union of unorganised sector migrant workers, which will be registered formally under the Indian Trade Union Act, 1926, as “Rajdhani Shramik Sangha, Bhubaneswar, Odisha” (Capital Labour Union, Bhubaneswar, Odisha).

Source: Pratikar

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BOX 13: A COMPLAINT BOX IN MAHARASHTRA

A grievance handling cell has been initiated by the Department of Labour, Maharashtra, with the support of Disha Foundation, for specifically handling migrants’ employment, wages and related grievances. A complaint form is dropped into a complaint box, one of which has been placed at each of two labour markets. A local committee comprising *naka* workers (workers at a migrant halt point) handles lighter complaints, referring only major cases to the labour department. Disha Foundation believes that the involvement of the labour department as well as the *gram panchayats* (village level institution of local self-government) at source villages has clearly made contractors accountable for paying minimum wages and avoiding harassment at the workplace. As a result, several *panchayats* have banned contractors who have had wage exploitation cases against them.

Source: Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)
5. Inclusion of Women Internal Migrants

The current discourse on migration has failed to adequately address gender-specific migration experiences, even though women constitute an overwhelming majority of migrants (70.7 per cent according to the Census of 2001). A gender perspective on internal migration is imperative since women have significantly different migration motivations, patterns, options and obstacles than men.

Marriage is given by women respondents as the most prominent reason for migrating: cited by 91.3 per cent of women in rural areas and 60.8 per cent of women in urban areas (NSSO 2007–08). However, several researchers are working to uncover the more complex reality lying behind statistics and consider that “this narrow picture painted by government statistics fails to grasp the complexity of both the scale and motives of women who migrate for [other] reasons […], or who may enter the labour force after migrating as a member of a migrating household.” (Agnihotri et al., 2012b). In fact, since respondents are authorized to cite only one reason for migrating, working women who move for marriage are not recorded as labour migrants even though they work prior to and after migrating. Women’s migration for employment also remains under-reported due to cultural factors, which emphasize social rather than economic roles for women (Shanti, 2006), and contribute towards women becoming invisible economic actors of society. The design of the Census and NSSO data surveys should be amended to better capture migration motivations.

Women migrants, especially those in lower-end informal sector occupations, remain invisible and discriminated against in the workforce. Female migrants are less well represented in regular jobs and more likely to be self-employed than non-migrant women. NSSO data (2007–08) indicates that nearly 60 per cent of female migrants in rural areas were self-employed and 37 per cent were casual workers, whereas in urban areas, 43.7 per cent of women migrants were self-employed and 37 per cent were engaged in regular jobs (Srivastava, 2012a). They are paid less than male migrants and enjoy no maternity leave, other maternity entitlements, or breast-feeding breaks at worksites. Lack of access to proper sanitation has serious health consequences but women and girls suffer in silence because of the stigma around women’s personal hygiene issues. A unique campaign was staged in Mumbai on International Women’s Day in March 2012, The Queue to Pee Campaign, and this is hopefully the beginning of much-needed public debate and action on this issue.

In India, occurrences of gender-based violence of women are widespread: as per the National Crime Records Bureau, between 2006 and 2010, the total number of crimes against women increased by 29.6 per cent. Further, according to the National Family Health Survey (NFHS-III), one third of women aged 15 to 49 had experienced physical violence, and one in 10 had been a victim of sexual violence (Planning Commission 2012).

Migrant women and adolescent girls, in particular, remain vulnerable to sexual harassment and abuse, especially at the hands of agents and contractors. Poverty may cause women migrants to get pushed into sex work at the destination, either by coercion or to supplement their earnings. Recently, the Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 20139 was passed to strengthen penalties for

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9 The Act was passed following the 16 December 2012 Delhi gang rape case, in which a female student, “Nirbhaya” (“the fearless”), was beaten with utmost brutality and gang raped, ultimately succumbing to her injuries.
http://mha.nic.in/pdfs/criminalLawAmndmt-040213.pdf
crimes against women, and in particular, trafficking of persons for exploitation, i.e. “prostitution or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude, or the forced removal of organs”.

There is an urgent need for promoting safe migration for women migrant workers, in particular domestic workers, who constitute a highly vulnerable and socially sensitive group. Most women who migrate to big cities are from poor families and are illiterate. Their lack of education, experience and skills leaves them vulnerable to exploitation from illegal placement agencies and touts. Estimates indicate that the number of domestic workers in India vary from 4.75 million (NSS 2004-05) to 6.4 million (Census 2001) (MoLE, 2011). The National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector has estimated that out of four million domestic workers, 92 per cent are women, girls and children, and 20 per cent are under 14 years of age. However, other sources suggest that these figures are underestimated and that the number of domestic workers in the country could be much higher. The sector is said to have grown by 222 per cent since 1999-2000 and is the largest sector of female employment in urban India, involving approximately 3 million women (MoLE, 2011). To address issues pertaining to registration of domestic workers, provision of legal protection and minimum wages, prevention of trafficking and other forms of exploitation of women and children and regulation of placement agencies, the National Commission for Women (NCW) has drafted a bill entitled “Domestic Workers Welfare and Social Security Act 2010”, however, this proposed legislation is yet to be passed in Parliament.

As recognized by the Draft Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-17), there is a need to reach out to women migrants through initiatives such as establishing a system of registration, monitoring and accountability of placement agencies for domestic workers; ensuring portability of entitlements; extending financial services to transmit remittances and setting up of migrant resource centres to provide information on training and placement for better integration into labour markets.

POLICY

There is an urgent need to fill knowledge and research gaps to incorporate gender-sensitive realities and to capture multiple reasons for women’s migration. Gender-sensitive approaches need to be mainstreamed into migrant support initiatives, including collection of sex-disaggregated data and adoption of gender budgeting, besides increasing awareness of the rights and entitlements of women migrants, and promoting and facilitating safe migration. Though India is a signatory to international conventions and protocols for the prevention of gender-based discrimination and trafficking in transnational migration, similar legislation needs to be put in place for internal migration of women in India.
### BOX 14: INTERNATIONAL LAW AGAINST GENDER-BASED DISCRIMINATION AND TRAFFICKING

**CEDAW General Recommendation No. 26 on Women Migrant Workers:** India is a signatory of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and ratified the convention in 1993. However, in practice CEDAW General Recommendation No. 26 on Women Migrant Workers (2008) remains largely unimplemented. CEDAW General Recommendation No. 26 especially outlines recommendations that respect, protect and fulfill the human rights of women migrant workers, against sex- and gender-based discrimination.

**Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNCTOC):** India is a signatory to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNCTOC), which has as one of its Protocols as the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children. The Protocol obligates State Parties to undertake measures for prevention of trafficking as also for providing physical, psychological and social recovery of victims of trafficking.

**SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution:** The Government of India has also signed and ratified the SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution. The Convention deals with the various aspects of prevention and suppression of trafficking in women and children; repatriation and rehabilitation of victims of trafficking and prevention of use of women and children in international prostitution networks, particularly where countries of the SAARC region are the countries of origin, transit and destination.

Though all these protocols and instruments pertain to the international migration of women workers, there is an urgent need to create awareness of their provisions and broaden their implementation, and to adapt roles and responsibilities for relevant stakeholders to similarly promote and facilitate internal migration of women migrant workers.

BOX 15: BODHICREW AND FEMALE MIGRANT DOMESTIC WORKERS

Many domestic worker recruitment agencies have been in the news for all the wrong reasons recently, including the exploitation of workers and their families. But there are exceptions, such as Bodhicrew Services Pvt Ltd, a training and placement agency for domestic workers in West Bengal. Through its “Just Help” programme, Bodhicrew offers complete domestic work solutions to the rapidly growing middle class of India. Having started its operations in January 2012, Bodhicrew offers training and guarantees safe migration, good jobs and fair wages for female domestic workers. It also supports legislative, administrative and policy changes that contribute to the employability, dignity, and welfare of domestic workers and their families.

Bodhicrew’s operational area is North Bengal and, having started from one district of Darjeeling in January 2012, they have gradually spread their work to the districts of Jalpaiguri and Cooch Behar in West Bengal. In the future, Bodhicrew proposes to expand to Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, and Odisha.

The process of recruitment starts with a mass mobilisation exercise of organising a Job Mela (or Job Fair) at the gram panchayat (village level institution of local self-government) level, where the initial shortlisting of candidates is done. Once selected, Bodhicrew obtains a No Objection Certificate from the parents of candidates and submits this to the local gram panchayat and police station. Following training, candidates are placed in New Delhi, and after the placement Bodhicrew assists the candidate in Delhi Police Verification and in obtaining proof of identity. Thus, Bodhicrew works closely with local police, gram panchayats, NGOs, and church organisations during the entire recruitment and training process.

Currently, Bodhicrew has sourced, trained and successfully placed 30 domestic workers in New Delhi and has helped ensure the workers receive government-issued identity proofs for accessing social protection entitlements. In response to increasing demand, Bodhicrew has also included other trades such as cooks, security guards and construction workers in their portfolio. Bodhicrew aims to train and deploy 100,000 domestic workers in the next four years.

Source: Bodhicrew Services Pvt. Ltd. (www.bodhicrew.com)

Case Study: When Rajita Meets Bodhicrew

Rajita Kindo, aged 24 years, belongs to the Oraon tribe, in Darjeeling, West Bengal. After completing her class 10 examination, she stopped her studies and began looking for work. The jobs she took up in Darjeeling included working in tea gardens - for which she earned ₹ 500 a week (USD 9); and working in a mall, where she earned ₹ 2,700 a month (USD 48). However, the pay remained inadequate and given at infrequent intervals. Having initially heard of Bodhicrew Services from the local village ASHA (Accredited Social Health Activist), Rajita went to the Darjeeling office of Bodhicrew to learn more about the opportunities for working as domestic help in Delhi homes. Convinced that she would make a better living, and placing faith in the organisation on the basis of references received from trusted local sources, she packed her bags and enrolled in the residential training programme of Bodhicrew. There she received two weeks’ training for a number of processes, including learning basic Hindi and English, cooking, how to operate machines such as vacuum cleaners, microwaves and washing machines, and some basics in social etiquette. Today, after coming to Delhi with only ₹ 200 (USD 4) in her pocket, she now earns ₹ 6,000 a month (USD 107), most of which she sends back home, keeping ₹ 2,000 (USD 36) for herself. Though Rajita’s parents were initially reluctant to send her to Delhi to work, they are now less wary having learnt about her safe and secure living and working arrangements.
In India, 60 per cent of women do not have access to toilets. Migrant workers are a particularly vulnerable population when it comes to access to sanitation, living in slums or squatter settlements lacking basic civic amenities. In the absence of toilets, women are forced to defecate in the open, with the constant fear of being seen by bystanders, or being physically assaulted. To protest against this discrimination, 35 different organisations came together to initiate the ‘Right to Pee’ campaign in Mumbai, highlighting the distress faced by so many women, and pushing for the construction of toilets.

Other campaigns such as the “Occupy Men’s Restrooms” movement on Women’s Day on 8 March 2012 (by the Nagpur-based NGO Sahyog) and the “No Toilet No Bride” campaign by the Haryana Government have similarly pushed for ensuring women’s right to basic sanitation and health.

Source: Behl (2012); Dang (2012); Politzer and Misra (2012)
Tara’s experience encouraged Sanlaap to begin a new project, rebuilding the lives of young girls and women who were survivors of trafficking, training girls in life skills and providing them with education about their rights and how to identify traffickers, as well as the need for informing the police in the case of malpractice. At home, the girls are connected to vocational trainings to ensure they are able to make a living, look after themselves and educate others about trafficking. This ongoing project has been run by Sanlaap since 2010, with the support of UN Women and the NGO, Child Rights and You (CRY). At least 40 girls and young women have been identified and trained under this project.

Though Sanlaap initially started out by only providing rehabilitation support to survivors who have been rescued and preventing second generation prostitution, they slowly realised the need to get involved in the source areas and carry out prevention activities to combat the challenge of trafficking. Sanlaap generates awareness of safe migration, trafficking and violence against women at the community level by involving community leaders and ensuring community policing. Sanlaap also undertakes sensitization programmes for panchayat members (village level institution of local self-government) and district administration personnel, alongside undertaking capacity building for Community-based Organisations (CBOs) working on issues of trafficking through a series of trainings, including on migration and trafficking.

In addition to this, Sanlaap runs four shelter homes in and around Kolkata for minors rescued from commercial sexual exploitation, girl children of women in prostitution and other vulnerable girl children. The shelter homes house more than 250 girls. These homes offer a holistic programme encompassing education, mental health intervention, vocational training and economic initiatives, dance movement therapy and legal aid.

Source: Sanlaap (www.sanlaapindia.org)

Case Study: How Tara Survived Abuse with the Support of Sanlaap

When Tara came to the Sanlaap shelter from Mumbai, she had been sexually abused and was HIV positive. According to Tara, some men had paid money to her parents to take her to the city and provide her with work, and if she did not become a prostitute her parents would have to return that amount; an amount that Tara’s parents were not in a position to put together. Tara had anticipated that there would be men who, posing as her family, would try to contact her, and that they should be avoided. To protect Tara from these traffickers, a report was written by the psychiatric counsellor at Sanlaap stating that Tara was depressed and could not be released from the shelter. Tara blossomed at the Sanlaap centre, completing all activities given to her and not fearing to talk back in favour of the rights of the girls who lived at the shelter. After two years, Tara went back to her home and Sanlaap entrusted her with the responsibility of working with other survivors of trafficking and other vulnerable girls in her surroundings. She reported to the panchayat (village level institution of local self-government) and the other community based organisations that worked in her district. She became part of the Awareness Building Project that Sanlaap was undertaking, looking out for girls going to work in cities, cautioning them to remain alert and aware of the person facilitating their journey, and maintaining details of their address and phone number. Tara also helped in rehabilitating an abused girl who returned to the panchayat from the city with the help of the police.

Source: Sanlaap (www.sanlaapindia.org)
UN Women, in partnership with UN-HABITAT, the Government of Delhi and the NGO Jagori is running the Safe Cities Programme, with the aim to provide solutions and strategies to make Delhi safer for women. Launched on 25 November 2009, the programme recognizes that lack of safety imposes restrictions on women’s mobility and detrimentally impacts their ability to avail of opportunities offered by city life. According to a UN Women baseline survey in Delhi, almost 2 out of every 3 women in Delhi’s public spaces reported facing incidents of sexual harassment between 2-5 times a year.

The objective of the programme is to create cities where women can move around freely without the fear of harassment and violence at all times. Based on the safety audit methodology, the recommendations included: creating improved infrastructure provision and accessibility of public toilets, public transport and street lighting; introducing reforms in urban planning and police response; developing civic awareness and providing trainings to sensitize key urban actors (bus and auto drivers), among others. Some of these recommendations were included in the Justice Verma Committee report of February 2013, which reviewed existing laws and provisions on violence against women following the brutal gang rape and subsequent death of a 23-year-old in Delhi in December 2012.

This initiative is part of the UN Women Safe Cities Global Programme (2011-15) being implemented in four other pilot cities worldwide - Cairo (Egypt), Kigali (Rwanda), Port Moresby (Papua New Guinea) and Quito (Ecuador).

Source: UN Women (www.unwomensouthasia.org)

6. Inclusion through Access to Food

The Public Distribution System of India (PDS) provides essential food items at subsidised rates in order to ensure access to food for those who cannot afford to buy it at market rates. With a network of more than 462,000 fair price shops distributing commodities worth more than ₹ 30,000 crore (USD 5,357 million) annually to about 160 million families, the PDS in India is perhaps the largest distribution network of its kind in the world.

Under the PDS scheme, each family below the poverty line is eligible for 35 kg of rice or wheat every month, while a household above the poverty line is entitled to 15 kg of food grain on a monthly basis. In order to access grain and other supplies, beneficiaries must present a ration card that is given to them at their usual place of residence and is not transferrable. Thus, migrants are unable to access the PDS system at destination. Although a few states have issued government orders from time to time to enable intra-state migrant workers to access PDS, there is very little awareness of such schemes among both government officials and migrants, leading to poor uptake. Furthermore, they do not include inter-state migrants.
Findings of the Disha Foundation, Nashik indicate that due to irregular employment, many migrant families face acute food scarcity, with some migrant families acknowledging that women and children are often forced to beg in the streets to supplement the family income. Further, as Aajeevika Bureau suggests, most migrant families are unable to find low-cost fuel options for cooking, including access to Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), since it is relatively expensive and again requires proof of residence. They end up paying exorbitant costs to purchase kerosene from the black market, which constitutes a major drain on their incomes.

It is important to note that under Chapter III of the initial draft of The National Food Security Bill 2011\(^\text{10}\), that aims to guarantee food and nutritional security in India, recognized that: “The migrants and their families shall be able to claim their entitlements under this Act, at the place where they currently reside.” The Bill is currently pending in Parliament.

**POLICY**

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 have started to fill this critical gap, but clearly NGOs cannot match the scale of the government and this issue requires renewed attention.

\(^{10}\text{The recently promulgated National Food Security Ordinance 2013 provides entitlement of 5 kilograms of food grains (rice, wheat and coarse grains) per person per month at a subsidized price of ₹ 1 to ₹ 3 per kilogram (USD 0.02 to 0.05). Nearly two thirds of the total population, i.e 800 million people, covering 75 per cent of the rural population and 50 per cent of the urban population would benefit from this entitlement.}\)
BOX 19: TEMPORARY RATION CARDS: DISHA FOUNDATION

Using State Government Resolution 1000/ GR 399/ 2000/ NP28 issued on 9 November 2000, which asserts the right of seasonal migrants to access and use a temporary ration card during their stay in a destination city, Disha Foundation has tried to address the food security needs of migrants within existing government programmes. Disha played a pivotal mediating role between the Department of Public Distribution System, state government authorities, including Additional Collector and officials, and the community.

Following consultations with the Department of Public Distribution System (and on-site visits by the authorities), an order was issued to provide seasonal migrants with temporary ration cards for four months (extendable to 12 months) against their existing ration cards. Once they depart from the destinations, migrants must have the cards cancelled by the department, so that they are once again eligible for subsidised food grain in their home villages. These temporary ration cards can be renewed on their return to Nashik.

For the provision of ration cards, certain administrative relaxations were made for migrants by the Department of Public Distribution System. For instance, the following were used in lieu of proof of identity and residence: a letter from the contractor stating where the migrant works; a photo of the migrant with family members and luggage at the naka (recruiting point and temporary residence); a recommendation from another registered migrant from the same village; a Disha Union card and letter of recommendation from Disha. Based on these documents, 55 new ration cards were issued to migrants of Civil Naka in Nashik. As a result, migrant recipients have become eligible to purchase food grains at a concessional rate from ration shops close to their halt points, and are entitled to a monthly food grain quota. Based on this case, the Public Distribution System has issued 1,200 temporary ration cards to migrant nomadic tribes in Nashik, Maharashtra.

Source: Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)
BOX 20: COMMUNITY KITCHENS: HINDUSTAN PETROLEUM CORPORATION & AAJEEVIKA BUREAU

Hindustan Petroleum Corporation Limited (HPCL), a leading petroleum company, has embarked upon a program to set up community kitchens or Suvidha Rasoi Ghars, through its Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiative. These community kitchens are spaces with stoves and LPG cylinders where groups of migrants can cook on an hourly basis. The installation cost is borne by the company and requires no paperwork.

Over the past two years, Aajeevika has partnered with HPCL to provide this service to migrant workers in different parts of Ahmedabad. More recently, the centre has also started a mobile kitchen initiative for migrant workers, who are homeless and hence cannot access this facility inside a physical space. Currently, this service is being run at ten different locations, benefitting more than 400 migrant workers across the city of Ahmedabad.

Internal migrant workers who access this facility are able to experience a significant reduction (almost 50 per cent) in their fuel costs. Not only is this cost-effective, it is also very convenient and more hygienic, contributing to better health outcomes for the migrant community. It saves a great amount of time, which in turn, can translate into better incomes for the migrants, thus facilitating greater returns from migration. These kitchens have been able to provide a dignified cooking alternative to large sections of this vulnerable population.

Source: Aajeevika Bureau (www.aajeevika.org)

7. Inclusion through Housing

Migrants face difficulties in accessing housing and other basic amenities such as water and sanitation, and often live in urban slums, facing constant threats of displacement and eviction from government officials. Shelter solutions show little appreciation for the needs of seasonal migrants, who come to the cities for short periods of time. Some shelter programmes - such as slum rehabilitation schemes – are, in fact, discriminatory towards new migrants, because they require evidence of residence for a minimum period prior to allocation. Among migrants, homeless migrants in particular face a worse predicament than slum dwellers, as they live on pavements and frequently bear the brunt of police assaults.

A few municipal corporations have set up night shelters for the homeless urban poor, which are also accessible to internal migrants. But such initiatives appear to be discretionary, and dependent on the goodwill of the municipal corporation towards the urban poor and migrants.
POLICY

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 provision of de facto residential rights and housing. In-situ upgradation of existing slum dwellings could be a 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.

BOX 21: HOMELESS MIGRANTS OR CITY MAKERS?

Many of the homeless in Delhi are migrants, from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, who have left their villages on account of extreme distress situations. While the term ‘homeless’ is a situational description and focuses on deprivation, the term “city makers” gives a more positive and dynamic identity. They are construction workers, rickshaw pullers, domestic help, rag pickers and other daily wage workers who provide critical services in the city.

The CityMakers’ Programme is the urban poverty intervention for homeless populations of the Indo-Global Social Service Society (IGSSS). The programme was created out of the need for a comprehensive network to address homelessness in the city. It works towards: (i) ensuring a dignified life for city makers with opportunities to grow and prosper; (ii) creating community leaders from urban slums as housing rights activists in ten cities, falling under the Rajiv Awas Yojana: Towards a Slum-Free India scheme; (iii) building a National Coalition on Urban Housing Rights. Besides Delhi and Bangalore, IGSSS has initiated work in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Haryana.

IGSSS is presently managing three permanent shelters and six temporary tent shelters which are functional around-the-clock, as well as two model bamboo-canvas shelters in the Nigambodh Ghat area of New Delhi, as a safe, airy and eco-friendly alternative to the temporary tent shelters. IGSSS also manages two Homeless Citizens Resource Centres (HCRCs): HCRC North Delhi and HCRC Central and New Delhi. HCRCs are an initiative of the Delhi Government under Mission Convergence, which aim to improve the quality of life of homeless citizens through a single window system.

Source: Indo-Global Social Service Society (www.igsss.org)
The Bhopal Municipal Corporation started the Ram Roti Yojana scheme in November 2010 to provide good low-cost food and shelter options to poor persons. Operational in Bhopal, Indore, Gwalior and Jabalpur in Madhya Pradesh, a night halt at the rein baseras (night shelters) costs only ₹ 2 per night (USD 0.04) for which each traveller is provided with a bed sheet, blanket, pillow and durrie (cotton carpet), as well as access to toilet and bathroom facilities. Under the scheme, food is served in the morning and evening from counters at bus stands and railway stations to people making a night halt at shelters and poor travellers, at the rate of ₹ 5 (USD 0.09) per head. The food packet contains six rotis, cooked vegetables, pickles, onions and green chilli.

Prior to the implementation of the scheme, existing shelters in Bhopal, Indore, Gwalior and Jabalpur were renovated to ensure they were well-equipped, and were maintained by the respective municipal corporations. Each night shelter has the capacity to accommodate 300 persons making a night halt. Other facilities at the shelter include a ramp for handicapped persons and installed water coolers. In February 2011, the Urban Administration and Development Minister announced that rein baseras would be constructed in the cities of Madhya Pradesh that have a population of 100,000 or more - such as Hoshangabad, Itarsi, Betul, Vidisha and Sehore - and also be extended to the remaining 10 municipal corporations in the state (Satna, Rewa, Dewas, Ujjain, Khandwa, and Burhanpur).

Source: Department of Public Relations, Madhya Pradesh (www.mpinfo.org)
8. Educational Inclusion

Seasonal migrants often take their children along when they migrate for work, which negatively impacts upon the regular and continued schooling of children. There is an overlap between the academic session in schools (June-April) and the seasonal migration cycle (November–June), on account of which migrant children who are enrolled in schools end up attending school only between June and November. This temporary discontinuation of study frequently results in their dropping out of school altogether. In the case that migrant children take up education at 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.

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. Health risks such as malnutrition and anaemia 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. Despite the Child Labour (Prohibitions & Regulation) Act, 1986, children work for long hours as unregistered and invisible workers in family labour units, whose wages are paid on a piece-rate basis.

**BOX 23: SEASONAL HOSTELS IN GUJARAT: SETU**

SETU is the Centre For Social Knowledge and Action’s intervention to provide elementary education to children in the 11-14 years age group in seasonal hostels. It began in 2004 and by 2008 was extended to five districts of Gujarat: Jamnagar, Rajkot, Junagadh, Surat and Dangs. By 2010, a total of 5,478 children had been covered by SETU’s seasonal hostels in 54 villages of seven blocks. 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. They were overseen by a Village Committee and the village panchayat (village level institution of local self-government), and supported by the SETU team.

The seasonal hostel model has since been adopted by Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) at the state and central level as an effective model to prevent the migration of children, to educate them and to prepare them as full citizens. Every year more than 100 seasonal hostels are sanctioned by the state and managed by NGOs in Gujarat.

Source: SETU, Centre for Social Knowledge and Action
BOX 24: WORKSITE SCHOOLS IN ANDHRA PRADESH AND TAMIL NADU: AIDE & ACTION

Through its multiple interventions, Aide et Action has directly reached out to 9,000 inter-state migrant children between 2009 and 2012, making education accessible to children in their native schools.

Aide et Action indicates that 6,453 inter-state migrant children, in 163 worksite schools in 10 districts in Andhra Pradesh, have benefitted from their intervention. Similarly, in the Tiruvellur district of Tamil Nadu, Aide et Action has established 10 worksite schools catering to 430 migrant children of families working in brick kilns. These worksite schools were set up with the support of worksite owners, close to the brick kilns where parents of the children were working. Aide et Action has also collaborated with Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) Tamil Nadu to ensure education for the children of migrant workers working in rice mills and construction sites.

Additionally, in order to retain the children of the migrant fishing community, Aide et Action has established nine seasonal hostels in Srikakulam, Andhra Pradesh with the support of a local NGO, Action in Rural Technology and Service. In 2013, SSA Odisha, in association with Aide et Action, has planned to retain 5,000 children through seasonal hostels in the Balangir, Nuapada and Bargarh districts of Odisha.

Source: Aide et Action (www.aea-southasia.org)

POLICY

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.

\(^{11}\) Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is the Government of India’s flagship programme for the achievement of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) in a time-bound manner, making free and compulsory education available to children in the 6-14 years age group.
BOX 25: RESIDENTIAL CARE CENTRES IN ODISHA: LOKADRUSTI

Starting with a pilot in 2004 with the support of the American Indian Foundation (AIF) New Delhi, Lokadrusti set up seven seasonal hostels in seven of the most migration-prone villages in the Kharia Block of Nuapada district, which experiences frequent distress migration of families to brick kilns in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Between 2004 and 2012 Lokadrusti opened 168 seasonal hostels in the migration-prone villages of Nuapada district, preventing the migration of 4,671 children (3,032 boys and 1,634 girls), and subsequent dropping out of school. During the reporting period, three batches of migrant children have successfully completed higher secondary examination (class 12) with merit, and many have been enrolled in colleges. In addition to this, 2,153 migrant children have been reintegrated into their native schools through bridge courses. Figures from Lokadrusti show that by June 2012 they had been able to give learning support to 11,594 children.

The seasonal hostel approach that started on a pilot basis has become a successful model for the District Primary Education Programme, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA). These seasonal hostels are called ‘Residential Care Centres’ (RCC) by the SSA authority and are maintained in the existing government schools of the respective villages, with the support of village SHGs, school teachers, sub inspectors of schools and Panchayati Raj Institution members.

Though it was difficult initially to convince parents to leave their children behind, parents now voluntarily bring their children to the Residential Care Centres. Lokadrusti firmly believes that the dropout rate of children has been reduced on account of RCCs and the bridge courses provided by them.

Source: American India Foundation (www.aif.org); Lokadrusti (www.lokadrusti.org)
**BOX 26: VOLUNTEERS FOR NATIVE LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

India has rich linguistic diversity and the Census of India 2001 lists 122 languages having more than 10,000 native speakers and 234 mother tongues. The Indian Constitution recognizes 22 languages. Language barriers are an important obstacle faced by interstate migrant families, including migrant children. Language is often used to promote cultural parochialism and becomes the basis of anti-migrant sentiments of locals. It is important to address language-based difficulties faced by internal migrants in order to ensure assimilation of internal migrants at the destination, and to prevent their alienation and social, cultural and political marginalization.

For instance, migrant children traveling from Odisha and speaking Odia often face difficulties when they migrate to Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh, because they do not speak Tamil and Telugu. To address this issue, Aide et Action has mobilised education volunteers from the source villages of the migrant children to teach them in their mother tongue. These education volunteers are appointed on a seasonal basis and are paid jointly by Aide et Action and the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) of the destination states. Additionally, text books are provided by SSA Odisha for Odia migrant children studying in Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. After the children return to their source villages, education volunteers receive transfer certificates for the children from the respective SSAs at the destination. Based on the number of students that have studied in worksite schools at the destination, Aide et Action writes a letter to SSA Odisha to reintegrate these children into the nearest schools to their home villages. The education volunteers assist the parents in reintegrating children into the village school.

A similar initiative had been launched by the Jhabua district administration in Madhya Pradesh, in collaboration with the Migrant Labour Support Programme of Gramin Vikas Trust to send Hindi-speaking teachers with children accompanying their migrant parents to neighbouring states. Although the initiative was successful, it was not up-scaled as it was a special project introduced by the Collector and not part of regular programming.

Source: Aide et Action (www.aea-southasia.org)

**BOX 27: MAPPING AND TRACKING MIGRANT CHILDREN**

To track migrant children, Aide et Action has initiated a practice of keeping a database of migrant families through a village migration register in source states like Odisha. The village migrant register is kept in 66 villages covering three districts: Balangir, Nuapada and Bargarh. This register not only tracks migrant children but also helps in identifying probable migrant children for the coming season. Aide et Action has identified these children and carries out advocacy with the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan* Odisha to retain these children at source.

Similarly, in Nuapada district, Odisha, Lokadrusti helps the community to draw a social map around the neighborhood of the school and identify and mark migration-prone households on this map. Besides this, Lokadrusti maintains a migration register in each project village to track migration trends, which is maintained at the community level.

Source: Aide et Action (www.aea-southasia.org); Lokadrusti (www.lokadrusti.org).
BOX 28: MOBILE LEARNING CENTRE: BUTTERFLIES

The mantra of the Mobile Education Programme of Butterflies is: “If the children cannot come to the school, let us take the school to them”. Under the Mobile Education Programme, the Chalta Firta School (Mobile Learning Centre) has brought the school to the children’s doorstep. Its objective is to bring out-of-school children, migrant and non-migrant alike, into the education net. This has especially benefitted migrant children, who often cannot attend school because they do not possess school certificates and other proofs of identification. Butterflies’ Mobile Education Programme also facilitates the admission of out-of-school children into formal schools, with the consent and participation of the parents.

The mobile school enhances the learning experience of children in multiple ways: through sports, arts and crafts activities, access to children’s libraries and theatre in education. Innovative teaching methodologies are used to engage creatively with children, such as play methods and age-appropriate learning materials (educational toys like blocks, flash cards and multilingual educational books). Children have access to different types of technology-based tools, like LCD TVs and laptops. Teachers, who are referred to as ‘child right advocates’, provide computer education to children and share educational software. For each student, personalised lesson plans are developed using innovative teaching and learning methods. To promote holistic development, children are provided with regular sessions of life-skills education. Child right advocates provide additional technical support to children after school hours in completing their homework so that they do not drop out of school.

When migrant families go to their villages (for instance during harvest and Holi festival), a list of children is maintained so that they may be reintegrated once they return. In case parents migrate to new locations, Butterflies facilitates the process of making affidavits so that the children may go to formal schools at their next destination.

Currently Butterflies reaches out to 427 children across 11 project locations in Delhi and 4 project locations in the Haridwar district of Uttarakhand, and is being implemented in close collaboration with State Education Departments in Delhi and Uttarakhand. Butterflies has helped reintegrate more than 700 out-of-school children into formal schools in Delhi and Uttarakhand, and more than 80 percent of these children have continued to study in the formal school.

Source: Butterflies (www.butterflieschildrights.org)

Case Study: Mausami Growing Up With Mobile Crèches

Mausami is a beautiful 10 year old girl from Dakshin Dinajpur district, West Bengal. She was previously studying in class 3 of a local government school in her village, but was forced to abandon her studies when she joined her parents who came to work in Delhi. She has been attending a Mobile Crèches centre in Delhi for the past two years. She says that if it were not for the Mobile Crèches facilities she would stay at home, and pass her time by playing with her sister and reading the two or three books she has. Among the subjects she learns at Mobile Crèches, she likes Hindi the most, and hopes to be an “officer” or a “manager” when she grows up.
Mobile Crèches (MC) was founded in 1969 in Delhi (National Capital Region) to provide childcare services to migrant children on construction sites, based on the premise that the foundations for cognitive, social, emotional, physical and language development of a child are laid during the first six formative years. Mobile Crèches developed a comprehensive day-care programme in consultation with experts from various fields to respond to children’s needs in a holistic fashion.

MC runs an eight-hour programme six days a week, providing an integrated package of health, nutritional and educational services to respond to the different needs of children from birth to 12 years. An MC centre has three distinct sections: (i) the crèche for children below three years old; (ii) the Balwadi (pre-school) for children between the ages of three and six; (iii) the non-formal education for older children. To date, the programme has reached out to 750,000 children, trained 6,500 women as childcare workers, run 650 day-care centres and partnered with 200 builders.

Builders and contractors are increasingly accepting a greater responsibility in managing and financing the crèche. Additionally, the community of migrants has acknowledged its stake in the endeavour, and perceives itself more as a driver of change rather than a mere receiver. In the last couple of years Mobile Crèches has also increased its engagement with the government, in particular through the State Boards and welfare funds set up under the Building and Other Construction Workers Act of 1996.

Source: Mobile Crèches (www.mobilecreches.org)
9. Public Health Inclusion

The health of migrants is affected by a host of factors, such as the health environment in the place of origin, transit and destination, the conditions of the journey, access to drinking water and basic amenities, and food and nutritional intake. At the destination, migrants are exposed to health risks including communicable diseases like malaria and tuberculosis, and occupational health hazards such as respiratory problems, lung diseases, allergies, kidney and bladder infections, back problems and malnutrition. Migrants often suffer injuries and accidents at worksites, yet do not enjoy any medical care or compensation (Borhade, 2012).

Women and adolescent girls are doubly disadvantaged in this regard. In India, though the sex ratio (females per 1000 males) has increased from 933 in Census 2001 to 940 in Census 2011, a disturbing trend has been revealed in child sex ratio (0-6 years), which has decreased from 927 to 914 for the same period. India has the worst gender differential in child mortality of any country in the world, with girls’ survival disadvantage being particularly acute in the one to four age group (UNDESA, 2011). Further, under-five mortality rate for girls in India is high, at 64 per thousand live births, as compared to 55 per thousand live births for boys (Planning Commission, 2012).

Among women and children migrants, maternal and child health indicators remain poor due to early marriages (13-18 years), early pregnancies (15-17 years), giving birth in the absence of a trained birth attendant, frequent childbirth, poor health after successive childbirths with little spacing, no exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months, and no complementary feeding thereafter. Despite the existence in India of the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006), early marriages12 continue, and mark the beginning of a vicious circle, often leading to poor health, malnutrition and stunting, and to the exclusion of young girls from education.

Healthcare utilisation rates among migrants remain poor due to a number of factors: expensive private health facilities, conflicting timing of work and availability of medical practitioners, cost of missing hours or days of work, long distances to access services and associated problems of transportation, perceived alienation from government health systems at the destination and language13 difficulties. Many urban migrant women also prefer having home childbirths (Borhade, 2012).

Internal migrants suffer from a high HIV burden (3.6 per cent), which is ten times the HIV prevalence among the general population (NACO, 2010). Their vulnerability has been attributed to personal isolation, enhanced loneliness and sexual risk taking, lack of HIV awareness and of social support networks at both source and destination (Borhade, 2012). In addition to the exclusion they face from the local community at destinations due to their ethnicity, linguistic differences, religious beliefs and socio-economic conditions, migrants living with HIV and AIDS face double discrimination and stigmatisation. Migrant women living with HIV suffer the most from multiple and intersectional vulnerabilities (IOM, 2009).

Migrants arriving at high prevalence HIV destinations remain at high risk of acquiring HIV, and bringing it back to their home villages and towns. A recent study has examined linkages...

12 The legal age for marriage in India for males is 21 years and for females is 18 years.
13 The Constitution of India recognizes 22 languages.
between male out-migration and HIV transmission to married women in districts with high out-migration (UNDP, 2011). This remains an important phenomenon for further research, in particular since data shows that the percentage of women who reported HIV in India increased from 25 per cent in 2001 to 39 per cent in 2009. Moreover, it has been observed that only 10 per cent of women living with HIV in 2009 were female sex workers, whereas 90 per cent acquired HIV infection from their husbands or intimate sexual partners (UNDP, 2011).

POLICY

It is necessary to avoid the stigmatisation 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.
Evidence gathered from assessment studies clearly indicate that migrants are among the high risk HIV/AIDS groups, inducing NACO to devise a dedicated document “Policy, Strategy and Operational Plan - HIV Intervention for Migrants”. As per the Targeted Interventions under National Aids Control Programme (NACP III) Operational Guidelines document, migrants and truckers are addressed as ‘bridge populations’, forming a link between core transmitter groups and the general population (NACO, 2007). NACP III in particular strategically focuses on short stay migrants who represent approximately 9 million (UNGASS, 2010). Data from the national HIV Sentinel Surveillance (HSS) in 2008-09 and the Behavioural Surveillance Survey (BSS) in 2009 indicates that single male migrants form a significant clientele of sex workers.

As a priority, NACO has scaled up migrant interventions, targeting migrants at destination as well as at origin and transit locations. These interventions provide information about risks, and counselling and treatment for sexually transmitted infections, including information on HIV testing and Antiretroviral treatment (ARV). The interventions at the origin target potential migrants, returnees and the spouses of migrants through services including communication campaigns and the provision of treatment for Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and linkage with Antiretroviral Therapy (ART). Transit interventions at important railway and bus stations focus on awareness generation activities for out-migrants. Destination interventions include: outreach practices involving recruitment of peer leaders from source states; use of Information, Education and Communication material (IEC) in the local language of the migrants and creation of safe spaces (Drop In Centres) accessible to the community. Over time, on realizing that interventions reaching migrant populations at their place of origin and destination had low impact, the programme has shifted focus to behavioural change, communication and education in sex work hot spots, besides increasing supply of condoms in districts that have HIV prevalence. The coverage of migrants under NACP III however remains low at 34 per cent (UNGASS, 2010).

Apart from targeted interventions led by NACO and State AIDS Control Societies (SACS), there exist other non-targeted migrant HIV programmes implemented by NGOs, such as: Avert Society in Maharashtra; REVAMP: Reducing Vulnerability of AIDS in Migrant Populations, a CARE India initiative, in Uttar Pradesh and Delhi; and HAMARA HIV/AIDS initiative in Rajasthan, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

Source: NACO (http://www.naco.gov.in/NACO); UNGASS (2010)
NACO, in collaboration with the national NGO, Rajiv Gandhi Foundation, Ministry of Railways, Ministry of Youth Affairs and UNICEF has pioneered the Red Ribbon Express (RRE), a specially designed exhibition train identified as the world’s largest mass mobilisation drive on HIV. It disseminates information, primarily to young people and women in semi-urban and rural areas, regarding prevention services on HIV/AIDS. The train consists of: exhibition coaches showcasing educational material on HIV/AIDS care, support and treatment services, and displaying information on general health, hygiene and communicable diseases; a training coach for orientation and sensitisation of groups such as women, self-help groups, members of Panchayati Raj Institutions, teachers, government officials, police personnel, NGOs and youth leaders; a service coach providing counselling-cum-medical services, including provision for counselling, HIV testing, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI) treatment and general health check-ups.

In its first phase in 2007, 180 train stations were covered across 24 states, 6.2 million people were provided with information on HIV/AIDS, and over 68,000 grassroots-level functionaries were trained in the districts through which the train passed. In the second phase in 2009, the RRE-II travelled 2,700 km across 22 states, stopping at 152 stations, reaching out to over eight million people with information on HIV prevention, treatment, care and support, training 80,741 grassroots functionaries and testing 35,553 people for HIV.

The government launched the third phase of the Red Ribbon Express in 2012. In this phase, NACO identified 108 main railway stations, at both the source and destination of migrant workers, to provide HIV testing, carry out counselling and disseminate information about HIV/AIDS.

BOX 32: SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH FOR MIGRANTS

Disha Foundation piloted a project designed to improve the sexual and reproductive health (SRH) of migrants in Nashik, Maharashtra. The project covered about 15,000 migrants in Nashik, of which approximately 40-45 per cent were women in the age group of 12 - 55 years. The project adopted a participatory approach for improving the quality of life of migrants. Migrant workers were directly involved in articulating their needs and identifying approaches for getting access to public services. The project also initiated needs-based advocacy with authorities to address the SRH needs of migrants.

Disha Foundation introduced a formal referral process for migrants to government health services, to provide better access to health care in Nashik. A triplicate referral form was developed for migrants, health providers and Disha Foundation itself. Disha Foundation refers migrants to health services through its trained community leaders from various migrant halt points and labour markets. The form is helpful for migrants in getting direct treatment from doctors without much delay and discussion. The medical history and related details of migrants are provided in the form, while the reverse side of the form provides contact information of all available government health services in Nashik.

Source: Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)

BOX 33: TRAINING NGOS ON MIGRATION AND HIV/AIDS: IOM

International organisations such as the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) have been undertaking important capacity building activities such as developing facilitators’ guides for training NGOs in migration, mobility and HIV/AIDS (see IOM and UNDP, 2009a and 2009b; IOM 2009). These guides and handbooks provide a range of interactive group exercises for trainers to engage with communities, to explain in detail the relationship between migration and HIV/AIDS; factors for migration; reasons for high risk behaviour among migrants and linkages between gender, migration and HIV. The training material provides basic facts on HIV and AIDS, addressing values and attitudes about people at higher risk and highlighting problems for effective implementation of HIV and AIDS prevention, treatment and support programmes.

To stop the spread of HIV among migrants, source-transit-destination continuum interventions are suggested, with emphasis on language appropriate sensitisation and training, suited to migrant’s cultural contexts. They also address the stigma and discrimination faced by HIV infected migrants, and emphasize that migration in itself is not a vulnerability factor for HIV, but that unsafe migration creates conditions of vulnerability.

Source: IOM (www.iom.int)
BOX 34: YUVA, LARSEN & TOUBRO AND D.Y. PATIL HOSPITAL

The Migration Resource Centre of YUVA (Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action) organised a health camp in collaboration with Larsen & Toubro Constructions and D.Y Patil Hospital, at migrant sites of Kharghar, Navi Mumbai in June 2012. The main groups targeted were migrant labourers working on construction sites. The health check-ups took place in response to the needs of workers, who were found to be reporting various occupation-related illnesses and often did not get enough time to consult a doctor. The aim of the health camp was to make health services available to migrants at their doorstep. YUVA also registered the workers coming for health check-ups, and provided them with a health card complete with their medical history.

Source: YUVA Migrant Resource Centre (www.yuvaurbanindia.org)

10. Financial Inclusion

Most migrants are unable to access banking facilities since they do not have the necessary documentation to fulfil 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 rely on informal networks (e.g. friends and relatives visiting home, hawala14, 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).

Relying on informal transfer systems increases the costs of remitting money for migrants. The Centre of Micro Finance (CMF) of the Institute for Financial Management and Research (IFMR), Chennai, conducted a survey to estimate the costs internal migrants incur in transferring money back home along four migrant corridors: Bihar to Hoskote, Karnataka; semi-urban Tamil Nadu to Mumbai; Rural Odisha to Surat; semi-urban West Bengal to New Delhi. The respondents of the study were 274 migrants at their work towns and cities and 219 households at the migrants’ villages and towns of origin (see CMF, 2011).

The study revealed that 57 percent of respondents used an informal mechanism to transfer money, mostly hawala couriers, and only 30 percent of sample respondents used banks to transfer money, owing to difficulties in providing the documentation necessary for opening an account, and losing work time and days to travel to bank branches. The study findings revealed that transferring an amount of ₹ 2,000 (USD 36) through a bank account was in fact cheaper (on average 3 per cent of the transfer amount), than if money was transferred through informal couriers (4.6 per cent) or India Post (6 per cent). This clearly indicates that migrants stand to benefit from inclusion in the formal bank system.

According to Tumbe (2011), estimates of the domestic remittance market were roughly USD 10 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).

14 Hawala refers to an alternative remittance system that exists or operates outside of, or parallel to traditional banking or financial channels.
POLICY

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 correspondents\textsuperscript{15} while incorporating flexibility in bank procedures, such as relaxing KYC norms, operating no-frills\textsuperscript{16} accounts and having extended banking hours. In case 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).

\textsuperscript{15} Business Correspondents are retail agents engaged by banks to provide banking services at locations other than a bank branch/ATM. They enable a bank to expand its outreach and offer a limited range of banking services at low cost, since setting up a physical bank branch may not be viable in all cases.

\textsuperscript{16} No-frills accounts operate at zero minimum balance and are aimed to suit the requirements of the unbanked or under-served low-income groups.
A handful of new experiments in low-cost remittance services have been launched by providers outside the banking sector such as the FINO Paytech Money Transfer system\(^\text{17}\) 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.

Many migrant workers are illiterate and face difficulties in undertaking financial transactions involving writing and filling in forms. FINO Paytech Money Transfer issues smart cards to migrants containing their personal details, including fingerprints and a photograph. The smart card has a 16 digit URL to which all financial transactions are mapped, thereby enabling the card to act like a mini ATM. This smart card enables migrants to access a no-frills savings account authenticated by biometric fingerprints. Migrant workers can remit money at FINO Paytech’s transaction points at any time convenient for them throughout the day. A complete record of the transactions for every customer is maintained in a secure electronic form.

Initially the programme focused on migrants, largely from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, who lived in the slums of Mumbai (Dharavi, Ghatkopar, and Shivajinagar). Since then FINO Paytech has expanded in terms of both outreach and scale to about 15 key remitter locations, with over 750 merchant points spread over six states, namely Maharashtra, Gujarat, Punjab, Delhi, Haryana and West Bengal. FINO Paytech Money Transfer enables remitters to send money to any part of the country through its large network (31,000 transaction points, 26 States, 424 districts, 50,000 rural and urban areas), which saves time, effort and cost for both the remitter and the beneficiary.

Source: FINO Paytech (www.finopaytech.com)

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\(^{17}\) Previously known as FINO Paytech Tatkal.
Case study: From Delhi to Bihar with FINO Paytech

Ajay Kumar, a 20 year old migrant from Jamui, Bihar, has been in Delhi for the past six months. We meet him at FINO Paytech’s merchant outlet in the bustling Samman Bazar in Bhogal. Having moved to Delhi on the advice of his maama (maternal uncle), he has been working as a mason, though work has been irregular and hard to come by. Depending on his financial situation, he sends approximately ₹2,000 (USD 36) per month to his parents back home using FINO Paytech’s money transfer services. Within a day, his money is deposited into his mother’s bank account, and she uses this for running daily household expenses. He said he finds this an extremely useful service, especially since he does not currently have a bank account in Delhi and knows of no other means by which to remit his earnings. Ajay intends to stay in Delhi for a while, searching for whatever work he can get, and sending a portion of his wages back to his family.

BOX 36: SENDING REMITTANCES THROUGH MOBILE PHONES

Eko India Financial Services Pvt. Ltd. started business correspondent operations with the State Bank of India in 2009, with ICICI Bank in 2010 and with Yes Bank in 2012. Under this initiative, migrants walk into Eko outlets (mostly neighborhood shops or retail stores), deposit cash and have the funds credited into a family member’s bank account within minutes. Eko’s agents assist migrants in remitting money by using low-cost phones. A double authentication process is used to complete the transaction, and only numeric literacy is required to perform a transaction. According to Eko, the service is highly popular since the banks and Eko co-branded outlets function outside of banking hours, which results in saving valuable workday time for migrants, many of whom are daily wage earners.

Eko has close to 1,800 counters in the states of Delhi, Bihar, Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh and remits roughly USD 600,000 a day. To date, Eko has served more than 1.3 million migrants who have remitted funds into family members’ bank accounts and, cumulatively, approximately USD 390 million has been remitted into 35 different recipient banks.

Source: Eko India Financial Services Pvt. Ltd (www.eko.co.in)
Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India
Advocacy Initiatives for Migrants
Advocacy Initiatives for Migrants

A number of non-governmental and other organisations and networks have been increasingly pushing for the need to acknowledge internal migration as an integral and necessary component of development. They have drawn attention to the rights of internal migrants to access basic entitlements and support services, and have made an important contribution towards strengthening the identity and visibility of especially migrant workers and their families.

BOX 37: NATIONAL COALITION OF ORGANISATIONS FOR THE SECURITY OF MIGRANT WORKERS

More than 30 NGOs working for migrant rights in different parts of the country have come together under the umbrella of the National Coalition of Organisations for the Security of Migrant Workers. Coalition members are located in the states of Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, and Gujarat, and include NGOs such as, among others, Aajeevika Bureau, BASIX, Disha Foundation, Grameen Development Services, Mumbai Mobile Creches, PEPUS, Pratikar, PRAYAS, Sahbhagi Siksha Kendra, Samarthan and YUVA. The Coalition seeks to collaborate and lobby for better services, protection and security for the millions of under-served migrant workers in India. The Coalition is currently engaging in a number of initiatives, such as drafting a national policy on migration, ensuring extension of social security for migrant workers, and increasing state and national level visibility and recognition of the migration issue. The Coalition was actively involved in providing recommendations for mainstreaming concerns of migrant workers in policy, in particular by drafting “Towards a better response to Seasonal Internal Migration in India: Key Policy Recommendations for the XIIth Plan”.

Source: Aajeevika Bureau (www.aajeevika.org); Disha Foundation (www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com)
BOX 38: TATA TRUST MIGRANT SUPPORT PROGRAMME FOR INTERNAL MIGRANTS

The Tata Trust Migrant Support Programme recognises that migration is an economic reality and seeks to facilitate the migration process, to ensure it becomes more humane and productive. Under the Urban Poverty and Livelihoods portfolio of the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and Allied Trusts, the Migrant Support Programme currently reaches over 100,000 migrants through 34 partners working in eight states, with a special focus on Rajasthan, Odisha and Uttar Pradesh.

Migration Resource Centres: The programme aims to contribute to the wellbeing and social security of migrant households by targeting three lakh migrants through 83 source and destination level Migration Resource Centres (MRCs). Migration Resource Centres at the source and destination provide migrants with information on registration, issuance of photo identity, legal aid and counselling, and facilitate access to social services, particularly at the destination. In partnership with Aajeevika Bureau, a Centre for Migration and Labour Solutions has been established to act as a technical support unit to its network of migration patterns.

SHRAM - Research Portal and Data Repository on Migration and Migrants: Strengthen and Harmonise Research and Action on Migration (SHRAM) is an innovative project, a first-of-its-kind interactive research and data portal on migration. It serves to act as a single location for migration information, housing a rich database of migration data and resources and linking the entire research and community of practice working on providing solutions and support to internal migrants. It contains a searchable repository of migration research, and aims to facilitate researcher interaction and policy and strategy formulations, and to conduct virtual training programmes.

Source: SHRAM (www.shram.org)
BOX 39: A UNESCO/UNICEF LEAD INITIATIVE: THE INTERNAL MIGRATION IN INDIA INITIATIVE

In 2011, as a result of a two-day workshop, *Internal Migration and Human Development in India* (6-7 December 2011), UNESCO and UNICEF launched the Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII), in order to better respond to the many challenges raised by the internal migration phenomenon in India. Through the IMII, UNESCO and UNICEF wish to support the social inclusion of migrants in the economic, social, political and cultural life of the country using a three-pronged approach, combining research, policy and advocacy.

The IMII is now an informal network of 200 researchers, NGOs, policy makers, UN agencies and key partners, such as UN Women, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), UN-HABITAT and Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, determined to raise the profile of internal migration in India and to propose policy changes and creative practices for a better inclusion of internal migrants in society.

**What are the objectives of the IMII?**

- Raise awareness on the need to prioritize internal migration in policy-making
- Advance knowledge on undocumented research areas on internal migration in India in order to support the design of better informed inclusive policies
- Support the development of a coherent legal and policy framework on internal migration
- Promote existing policies and creative practices that increase inclusion of all sections of the internal migrant population in society, particularly children and women
- Contribute to changing the negative perception of internal migrants in society

Source: UNESCO (www.unesco.org/newdelhi)

BOX 40: MIGRANTS: VOICES OF DELHI’S SILENT MAJORITY: UNESCO, UNICEF AND FIRST CITY MAGAZINE

For about 15 years, First City Magazine has been giving a voice to migrants through two features entitled “Minute-Old Migrant” and “Interview: An Insight into the Minds of Delhi’s Silent Majority”. UNESCO and UNICEF partnered with First City to release *Migrants: Voices of Delhi’s Silent Majority*, a short publication compiling 30 features from the magazine spanning the time period 2003-2011, as well as fundamental information about the extent and magnitude of the phenomenon of internal migration in India.

With approximately 180 interviews in its archive, First City Magazine has collected over the years a rich resource for assessing changes in migrants’ perceptions that if, studied and analysed, would certainly reveal a depth of experiences.

Source: UNESCO (www.unesco.org/newdelhi)
BOX 41: MOBILISATION FOR SOCIAL SECURITY

YUVA (Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action), Navi Mumbai has undertaken the mobilisation and organisation of various sectoral groups (street vendors, domestic workers and construction workers) to advocate for their right to work, social security and dignity, and is actively campaigning in Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, West Bengal and Bihar for the implementation and monitoring of the National Policy on Urban Street Vendors. YUVA has also been advocating for The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2012 and amendments to the Unorganised Workers’ Social Security Act, 2008.

Source: YUVA Migrant Resource Centre (www.yuvaurbanindia.org)

BOX 42: URBAN RIGHTS FORUM

As part of its activities in favour of the homeless populations, Indo-Global Social Service Society, Delhi (IGSSS) has been instrumental in the formation of the Shahri Adhikar Manch: Begharon Ke Saat (SAM-BKS) or ‘Urban Rights Forum: With the Homeless’ in 2009, comprising a coalition of over 30 voluntary organisations. SAM-BKS’s concern for homeless citizens in Delhi, and its drive against the demolition of shelters for the homeless in December 2009, formed the background of the Delhi High Court’s and the Supreme Court’s directives to the Delhi Government in January 2010 (and later to all States and Union Territories), to build at least one shelter per 100,000 inhabitants on a priority basis, and to make these 24-hour shelters, functional throughout the year.

Source: Indo-Global Social Service Society (IGSSS) (www.igsss.org)

BOX 43: STREET PLAY CAMPAIGN

YUVA (Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action) organised a street play campaign in alliance with Gaikwad Theatres in Navi Mumbai in July 2012, covering 12 areas of Navi Mumbai (Panvel, Mansarover, Kandeshwar, Kharghar, Kalamboli, Taloja, Belapur, Sea-woods, Nerul, Juinagar, Thurbe and Gansoli). Both migrant workers and the general public were target groups for the play, which reached out to more than 2,000 people. In the future, YUVA aims at organising monthly street plays to increase awareness among both migrant workers and the general public about the issues faced by migrants, and also to popularise its Migration Resource Centre and Helpline services. In the future, YUVA seeks to create awareness by screening films on health and security of migrants.

Source: YUVA Migrant Resource Centre (www.yuvaurbanindia.org)
Since 2011, UNESCO conducts regular lectures on building inclusive cities, at the School of Planning and Architecture, New Delhi. Both Bachelor and Master degree students in urban planning, coming from a wide range of academic backgrounds, have the opportunity to discuss challenges, priorities, and success factors for developing a rights-based approach to urbanisation in India including, in particular, the inclusion of migrants in urban planning.

The lectures highlight that the right to the city - which encompasses rights and access to food, housing, education, health, work, and local democracy - should also apply to internal migrants, and that the inclusion of internal migrants in cities is a necessary step for building a sustainable urban development, based on cultural diversity, social cohesion and human rights. Such lectures are informed by several publications such as: UNESCO/UN-HABITAT Toolkit on Historic Districts for All – India: a Social and Human Approach for Sustainable Revitalisation (2010), UNESCO/Centre des Sciences Humaines - Urban Policies and the Right to the City in India: Rights, Responsibilities and Citizenship (2011) and UNESCO/UNICEF Policy Briefs: For a Better Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India (2012).

Source: UNESCO (www.unesco.org/newdelhi)
BOX 45: GYM: GENDER, YOUTH AND MIGRATION

UNESCO is supporting the establishment of a knowledge management tool on Gender, Youth and Migration (GYM), as a sub-community of practice of the Gender Community of UN Solution Exchange, already supported by UNICEF and UN Women. Solution Exchange is a United Nations common initiative that leverages the power and potential of managed Communities of Practice (CoPs) to effectively address development priorities and the MDGs, tapping into the knowledge, experience and energies of members for collective problem-solving.

GYM will be a dedicated ‘resource hub’ that will bring together experts, researchers, NGOs and officials who share a common concern on the topic of gender, migration and youth, allowing them to deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area. The GYM sub-community shall enable accumulation and sharing of knowledge on experiences and lessons learnt and should serve as a base for informing socially inclusive and sustainable policies. The webpage of the sub-community is expected to be online by October 2013 at http://www.solutionexchange-un.net.in/communities/gender_gym after which online queries and discussions would be initiated on under-researched themes of gender, youth and migration.

Source: UNESCO (www.unesco.org/newdelhi)
4

Ten key principles for better inclusion of internal migrants
Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India
Ten Key Principles for Better Inclusion of Internal Migrants

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
10. Ensure democratic participation of internal migrants in society

Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India
Key Stakeholders
Key Stakeholders

Governmental Authorities

- Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India
- Ministry of Culture; Ministry of Finance; Ministry of Health and Family Welfare; Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation; Ministry of Human Resource Development; Ministry of Labour and Employment; Ministry of Minority Affairs; Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs; Ministry of Panchayati Raj; Ministry of Rural Development; Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment; Ministry of Tribal Affairs; Ministry of Urban Development; Ministry of Women and Child Development; Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports
- Planning Commission, Government of India; National Advisory Council
- State Departments
- Municipal corporations or municipal councils and *gram panchayats*;
- Development authorities
- Parastatal bodies (dealing with water supply, sewerage, solid waste management, roads, transport, slums)
Non-Governmental Organisations

- Development organisations and research institutes
- Poverty and human rights groups
- Social activists
- Trade unions

Professionals

- Planners
- Development practitioners
- Researchers
- Educational and training institutes
- Housing corporations
- Media
Need Help?
International Conventions and Declarations

- UN Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948)
- UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1966)\textsuperscript{19}
- UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966)\textsuperscript{20}
- UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)\textsuperscript{21}
- UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (2003)\textsuperscript{22}
- UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979)\textsuperscript{23}
- UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989)\textsuperscript{24}
- UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity (2001)

\textsuperscript{19} India ratified the Convention in 1968.
\textsuperscript{20} India ratified the Covenant in 1979.
\textsuperscript{21} India ratified the Covenant in 1979.
\textsuperscript{22} India has not signed the Convention.
\textsuperscript{23} India ratified the Convention in 1993.
\textsuperscript{24} India ratified the Convention in 1992.
UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003)\textsuperscript{25}

UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005)\textsuperscript{26}


ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) (1949) (No. 97)\textsuperscript{28}

ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (1952) (No. 102)\textsuperscript{29}

ILO Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention (1962) (No. 118)\textsuperscript{30}

ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention (1975) (No. 143)\textsuperscript{31}

ILO Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention (No. 157) (1982)\textsuperscript{32}

ILO Domestic Workers Convention (2011) (No. 189)\textsuperscript{33}

ILO Migration for Employment (Revised) Recommendation (1949) (No. 86)

ILO Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation (1955) (No. 100)

ILO Migrant Workers Recommendation (1975) (No. 151)

ILO Domestic Workers Recommendation (2011) (No. 201)

SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution (2002)\textsuperscript{34}

\textsuperscript{25} India ratified the Convention in 2005.
\textsuperscript{26} India ratified the Convention in 2006.
\textsuperscript{27} India has signed the Convention in 2002 but has yet to ratify it.
\textsuperscript{28} India has not ratified the Convention.
\textsuperscript{29} India has not ratified the Convention.
\textsuperscript{30} India ratified the Convention in 1964.
\textsuperscript{31} India has not ratified the Convention.
\textsuperscript{32} India has not ratified the Convention.
\textsuperscript{33} India has not ratified the Convention.
\textsuperscript{34} India ratified the Convention in 2002.
Indian Legislation

- 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

Research Institutes, NGOs and Trusts

Aajeevika Bureau
www.aajeevika.org

Agrasar
www.agrasar.org

Aide et Action, South Asia
www.aea-southasia.org

American India Foundation (AIF)
www.aif.org

Bodhicrew Services Pvt Ltd
www.bodhicrew.com
Institute of Economic Growth
www.iegindia.org

Institute for Human Development
www.ihdindia.org

International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai (IIPS)
www.iipsindia.org

Jawaharlal Nehru University
www.jnu.ac.in

LabourNet
www.labournet.in

Lokadrusti
www.lokadrusti.org

Mahanirban Calcutta Research Group
www.mcrg.ac.in

Migrantscape
www.migrantscape.wordpress.com

Mobile Crèches
www.mobilecreches.org

National Aids Control Organisation (NACO)
http://www.naco.gov.in/NACO

National Association of Street Vendors of India (NASVI)
www.nasvinet.org

National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA)
www.niua.org

Nirmana
www.nirmana.org

Paryavaran Evam Prodyogiki Utthan Samiti (PEPUS)
www.pepus.org

Rajiv Gandhi National Institute of Youth Development
www.rgniyd.gov.in

Samarthan – Centre for Development Support
www.samarthan.org

Sanlaap
www.sanlaapindia.org
SETU
www.setuahmedabad.blogspot.in/2011/08/setu-centre-for-social-knowledge-and.html

Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and Allied Trusts
www.dorabjitatrust.org

V.V. Giri National Labour Institute
www.vvgnli.org

Youth for Unity & Voluntary Action (YUVA)
www.yuvaurbanindia.org

Yugantar
www.yugantar.org.in

International Organisations

International Council on Social Welfare
www.icsw.org

International Labour Organisation (ILO)

International Organisation for Migration (IOM)

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)
www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/india

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
www.unhcr.org/pages/49e4876d6.html

The World Bank

UNAIDS
www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/india

United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)
www.unicef.org/india

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
www.in.undp.org/india/en/home.html

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)
www.unesco.org; www.unesco.org/newdelhi
Migration Networks

**National**

Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII)
www.unesco.org/newdelhi

National Coalition of Organisations for the Security of Migrant Workers (NCOSMW)

Gender Youth Migration (GYM), Gender Community of Practice, UN Solution Exchange
http://www.solutionexchange-un.net.in/communities/gender_gym

Strengthen and Harmonize Research and Action on Migration (SHRAM)
Forthcoming: www.shram.org

**International**

Asia Pacific Migration Resource Network
www.apmrn.usp.ac.fj/index.php?id=10

Cities of Migration, Canada
www.citiesofmigration.ca

Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty, University of Sussex
www.migrationdrc.org

European Migration Network

European Network Against Racism (ENAR)
www.enar-eu.org

Global Development Network
http://www.gdnet.org/cms.php?id=migration_theme
Global Forum on Migration and Development
www.gfmd.org/en

Global Migration Group
www.globalmigrationgroup.org

Human Rights, Children and Migration
www.hrcam.org

Inter Press Service News Agency – Migration and Refugees
www.ipnews.net/news/human-rights/migration-refugees

Migrating out of Poverty Research Programme Consortium
www.migratingoutofpoverty.dfid.gov.uk/

Migrants Rights International
www.migrantwatch.org

Migration Policy Institute
www.migrationpolicy.org

Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Unit (RMMRU), University of Dhaka
www.rmmru.org

The Hague Process on Refugees and Migration
www.thehagueprocess.org

United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)
www.unitar.org

UNESCO Chairs and Coalitions

International Coalition of Cities against Racism

UNESCO Chair in International Education and Integration of Foreign Migrants’ Children in School, Moscow Institute of Open Education, Russian Federation

UNESCO Chair on Social and Spatial Inclusion of International Migrants – Urban Policies and Practices (SSIIM), University IUAV of Venice, Italy
http://www.unescochair-iuav.it/?lang=en

UNESCO-ENTPE Chair in Urban Policies and Citizenship, École Nationale des Travaux Publics de l’État (ENTPE), Lyon, France
http://www.chaire-unesco-lyon.entpe.fr/en

UNESCO Chair on Growing up in Cities, Cornell University, New York, United States of America
http://aap.cornell.edu/crp/outreach/growingupincities.cfm

UNESCO-UNU Chair on Regional Integration, Migration and Free Movement of People, Brugge, Belgium
http://www.ucrm.org/

UNESCO and UNICEF Publications on Migration


Migrants: Voices of Delhi’s Silent Majority, New Delhi, UNESCO/UNICEF/First City Magazine, 2011.


Who is a Migrant?
A person undergoing a (semi-) permanent change of residence that involves a change of his/her social, economic and/or cultural environment.

What is Migration?
A process of moving, either across an international border or within a state, which results in a temporary or (semi-) permanent change of residence.

Who is an Internal Migrant?
An internal migrant is someone who moves to a different administrative territory to reside but stays within national boundaries. Typically this is a change in residence that crosses provincial or urban boundaries. In the developing world today one of the most common internal migration flows is from rural areas to cities.

What is Temporary Migration?
Non-permanent migration implying return or onward movement.

What is Circular Migration?
Circular migration has recently emerged as a popular term in policy debate and is at the cutting edge of the debate on migration and development. The process of “circular migration” implies circularity, that is, a relatively open form of (cross-border) mobility. Such migration might involve seasonal stays or temporary work patterns. It refers to both internal and international migration.

What is Labour Migration?
Migration for the main purpose of employment or work.

Who is an Emigrant?
A migrant from the perspective of the country of origin (or departure).

Who is an Immigrant?
A migrant from the perspective of the country of destination (or settlement).

What are Domestic Remittances?
Domestic remittances refer to money that a migrant earns at a destination and sends or brings home to a source location within the country.

What are Social Remittances?
Social remittances refer to the ideas, practices, identities and social capital sent from the destination to the source by individual migrants or migrant communities, which contribute to social transformations.

What is Feminisation of Migration?
A phenomenon of general increase in the relative share, implication and active role of women in migration.

What is Forced Migration?
Migration in which an element of coercion predominates.

What is Governance of Migration?
A system of institutions, legal frameworks, mechanisms and practices aimed at regulating migration and protecting migrants.

Who is an Internally Displaced Person?
Person(s) or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Who is a Return Migrant?
A person who has returned to the place of origin after migration.

Who is an Environmental Migrant?
Environmental migrants are persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their habitual homes, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad (IOM).
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NABARD and GTZ. 2009. Remittance Needs in India, NABARD–GTZ Technical Study, Rural Financial Institutions Programme India, Mumbai/New Delhi, NABARD/GTZ.


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What is the Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII)?

The Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII) was jointly launched by UNESCO and UNICEF in 2011, as a result of a two-day workshop on *Internal Migration and Human Development in India* (New Delhi, 6-7 December 2011), and in order to better respond to the many challenges raised by the internal migration phenomenon in India. Through the IMII, UNESCO and UNICEF wish to support the social inclusion of migrants in the economic, social, political and cultural life of the country, using a three-legged approach combining research, policy and advocacy.

The Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII) is now an informal network of 200 researchers, NGOs, policy makers, UN agencies and key partners, such as UN Women, UN-HABITAT, International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, determined to raise the profile of internal migration in India and to propose policy changes and creative practices.

What are the objectives of the IMII?

- Raise awareness on the need to prioritize internal migration in policy-making
- Advance knowledge on undocumented research areas on internal migration in India in order to support the design of better informed inclusive policies
- Support the development of a coherent legal and policy framework on internal migration
- Promote existing policies and creative practices that increase inclusion of all sections of the internal migrant population in society, particularly children and women
- Contribute to changing the negative perception of internal migrants in society