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Children of Migrant Poor in Kolkata

A Study on Human Development Perspectives

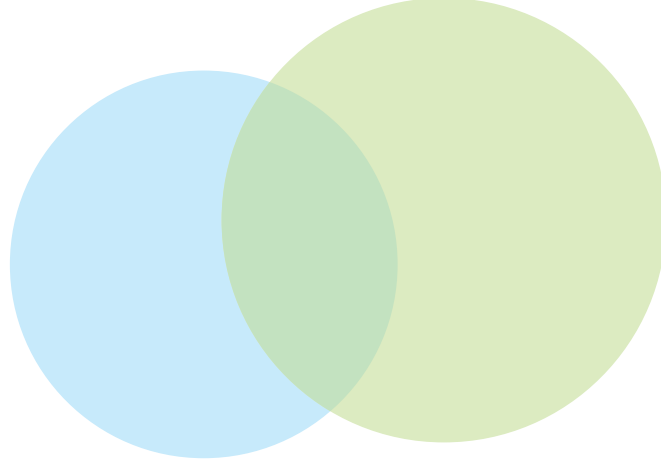


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Children of Migrant Poor in Kolkata

A Study on Human Development Perspectives
(2014)



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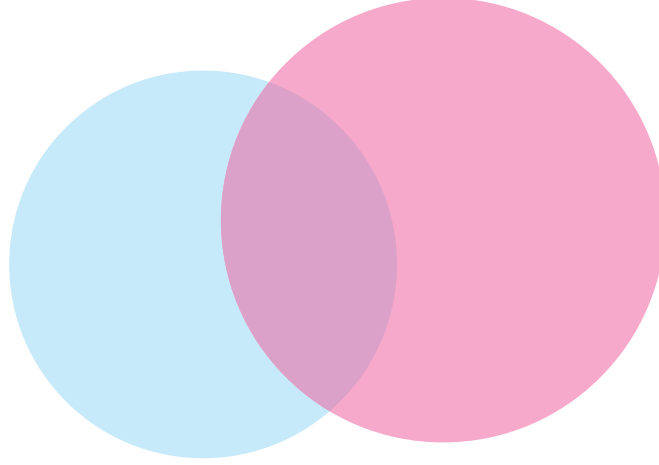
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CINI ASHA

Don Bosco Ashalayam

ERMS Planning Services

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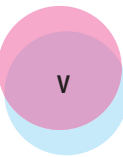
List of Abbreviations

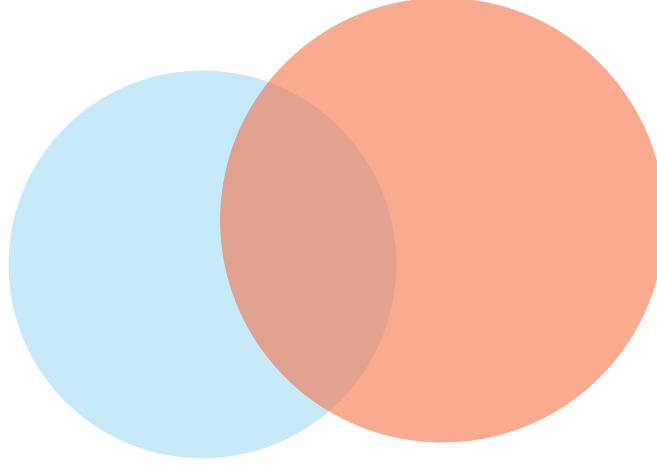
AIE	Alternative Innovative Education
APL	Above Poverty Line
AWC	Anganwadi Centre
AWW	Anganwadi Worker
BPL	Below Poverty Line
BSY	Balika Samriddhi Yojana
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CESC	Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation
CHV	Child Health Volunteers
CINI	Child in Need Institute
CLPOA	City Level Programme of Action
CNMCH	Calcutta National Medical College and Hospital
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CWC	Child Welfare Committee
DBA	Don Bosco Ashalayam
DIC	Drop in Centre
DPEP	District Primary Education Programme
DRC	Development Research Centre
DRM	Divisional Railway Manager
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
Gol	Government of India



GoWB	Government of West Bengal
GRP	Government Railway Police
GRSD	Garden Reach Slum Development
HH	Household
HIV-AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus-Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HRD	Human Resource Development
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Services
IEC	Information, Education and Communication
IIHS	Indian Institute of Human Settlements
INC	Indian National Congress
INTUC	Indian National Trade Union Congress
ISS	Institute of Social Sciences
J&K	Jammu and Kashmir
JJ	Juvenile Justice
JNNURM	Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission
JSY	Janani Suraksha Yojana
KEIP	Kolkata Environment Improvement Programme
KMC	Kolkata Municipal Corporation
KMDA	Kolkata Metropolitan Development Authority
KSY	Kishori Shakti Yojana
KUA	Kolkata Urban Agglomerations
LIC	Life Insurance Corporation
MoHUPA	Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation
NCLP	National Child Labour Project
NCPCR	National Commission for the Protection of Child Rights
NCRB	National Crime Record Bureau
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NHRC	National Human Rights Commission
NSS	National Sample Survey
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
OPM	Oxford Policy Management

PMU	Project Management Unit
POB	Place Of Birth
PSE	Pre-School Education
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
RAY	Rajiv Awas Yojana
RC	Railway Children
RCI	Railway Children in India
RPF	Railway Protection Force
RTE	Right to Education
RTI	Right to Information
SC	Scheduled Caste
SCRIP	Street Children Rehabilitation Project
SHG	Self Help Group
SNP	Supplementary Nutrition Programme
SRS	Sample Registration System
SSA	Sarva Sikhshya Abhiyan
UA	Urban Agglomeration
UEE	Universal Elementary Education
UN	United Nations
UNCRC	United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UP	Uttar Pradesh
UPR	Usual Place of Residence
UT	Union Territories
WPR (1)	Worker Population Ratio
WPR (2)	Workforce Participation Rate

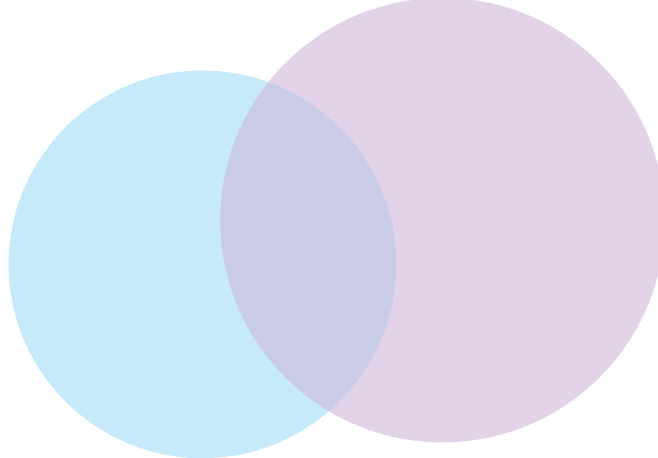




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Chapter 1

Introduction

1. Background

i. Internal Migration : A Growing Policy Concern in India

The Census of 2001 estimated that there were 309 million migrant people in India or almost one-third of India's 1028 million people were migrants in 2001 (Gol: 2001). The figure indicates an increase of around 37 per cent from the 1991 Census which recorded 226 million people as "migrants" in the country. There is today a growing realisation that internal migration is a major development issue in India which the policy makers at the national and state levels have so far not adequately addressed.

Institute of Social Sciences published a pioneering study on human trafficking issues in 2005 which included an analysis of migration (ISS: 2005). ISS again took up the issue of inter-state migration from 2009-10 onwards as part of a larger project in collaboration with the EU which highlighted violation of

the rights of the workers in the informal sector. As part of this project in 2010-11 ISS did a study of the problems in rural Bihar which is forcing many to leave for different parts of the country including Kolkata (ISS: 2012). At the same time United Nations also began to show concern regarding the issue. UNICEF and UNESCO jointly organised a national workshop in New Delhi in December 2011 which highlighted the problems of the internal migrants in the country (UNICEF & UNESCO: 2012). UNICEF India Representative Mr. Louis-Georges Arsenault said in the workshop that “Internal migration is an integral part of development and should be recognized as such. Since internal migration has cross-cutting sectoral impact, multiple interventions are needed by Ministries, departments, key destination states and lead source states for peaceful integration of migrants in society” (UNICEF: 2012). The present study is a continuation of such earlier efforts.

ii. Migration and Urbanisation

Migration plays an important role in India’s urban growth. Rural to urban migration was 47 per cent among the male inter-state migrants in 2001. In 2001, the net addition to urban population on account of migration was 14.3 million or 6.6 per cent of the total urban population in 1991. In other words in the total urban growth of 30.3 per cent in 2001 Census, migration contributes 6.6 per cent.

iii. Migration and Children

According to United Nation’s Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), a child is defined as “a human being below the age of 18 years unless, under the law applicable to child majority is attained earlier.” In India also, a child attains majority at the age of 18 years. However, the definition varies in the address of various legal provisions. The working age group of 15 to 59 years as defined by the Census of India is the most commonly accepted and it clearly indicates that population below 15 years (0-14 years) is treated as “child”. Different Acts under labour laws declare different age criteria but the Factories Act 1948, the Apprentices Act 1961 and the Child Labour Prohibition and Regulation Act 1986 declare 14 years as the upper age limit of a child. The present study also follows the same age criterion, i.e. 0-14 years.

The impact of migration on children of migrated families is a serious policy concern for the authorities involved in child welfare and development. Migrant children are affected by poverty, poor living conditions, isolation from mainstream society, break in continuity of education and low self-esteem related to trauma of moving from a known environment to an unknown one.

Children constitute a significant percentage of total migration as the Table 1.1 shows.

Table 1.1 : Migration by Place of Birth and Age in 2001

Age Group	Within the State	Outside the State
0-4 years	9060658 (3.8 %)	1343976 (3.2%)
5-9 years	11013578 (4.3%)	1783998 (4.2%)
10-14 years	12924036 (5.0%)	2029960 (4.8%)
Total up to 14 years	32998272 (12.8%)	5157934 (12.2%)

Source : Table D-1 Appendix. Census of India, 2001

2. The Present Study

Recognizing the need for further research within the broader domain of internal migration in India and especially on the condition of migrant children in Kolkata, in 2013, the Institute of Social Sciences, Kolkata collaborated with the UNICEF Office for West Bengal to jointly complete the proposed project called “Children of Migrant Poor in Kolkata: A Study on Human Development Perspectives.” Apart from generating knowledge, this study has been completed with the aim of initiating a policy dialogue within the Government of West Bengal and amongst civil society regarding the concerns of urban migrant children in Kolkata and their access to basic health, education and protection related services. The findings and recommendations of this study will be shared with the Government and civil society members to facilitate further dialogue, research and relevant action.

i. Kolkata and Migration Research Gaps

Historically, the city of Kolkata (earlier Calcutta) has been an important destination point for rural to urban migration in eastern India. Such migration has taken place both from other states of India as well as from various districts of West Bengal. A small percentage of migrants have also come from other countries such as Bangladesh and Nepal. As per latest Census data on migration available (2001) the number of in-migrants to the city was 822,389. The different categories of in-migrants have been presented below.

Table 1.2 : Number of In-migrants by Last Residence (duration 0-9 years) into Kolkata : 2001

Name of the UA	2001 population	In-migrants			Total In-migrants
		From within the State	From other States	From other Countries	
Kolkata UA	13,205,697	470,601	297,279	54,509	822,389 (6.6% of total population)

Source : Table D-3 UA/City, Statement 11, Census of 2001.

While there are many studies (e.g. Basu: 2004; Ghosh: 2000; Sen: 1999; Haan:1994; Dasgupta 1988) of the migrant population during colonial period especially in the context of labour history, there is no systematic study of the present condition of the migrant poor in Kolkata, especially focusing on the impact of migration on migrant children. It is known that migrants do come to the city from different parts of India, especially from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Jharkhand and also from different districts of West Bengal, but precise data is not available on them. It is also not clear as to what percentage of the migrants are single-male migrants and what percentage are migrant families. It is also difficult to distinguish between those who are coming to the city as labouring poor and what percentage are coming for middle-class jobs.

Another unexplored area is the condition of the children who have either migrated on their own or have come along with their parents or have been born in the city to parents who are migrants. It is believed that a section of these children end up in streets and railway platforms, as child labourers and sometimes are trafficked. It is also not clear as to what the present state policy is regarding such migrant population and how far they face problems related to access to welfare.

The number of child workers in West Bengal has declined over the years. As per the Census of India in 2001, nearly 8.57 lakh children in West Bengal in the age group of 5-14 years were working as child labour. However, as per the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) 66th Round, 2009-10 estimates, the figures have come down to 5.5 lakh children. But still, West Bengal accounts for 11.07 per cent of

child labour in the entire country, which is the second highest, only after Uttar Pradesh. The percentage of child labour is more in the rural areas than urban areas, and more boys than girls are employed as child labour, irrespective of whether they belong to rural or urban areas. This corroborates the fact that elementary school dropout rates are more among boys than girls. However, the involvement of girls in household activities cannot be undermined, and falls under the realm of unpaid work. According to NFHS-3, while nearly 3 per cent children are involved in paid work and 1 per cent in unpaid work, around 6 per cent are involved in household work activities.

Poverty is one of the leading factors contributing to child labour. According to NFHS-3, among child labour in the age group 5-14 years, nearly 11.5 per cent belong to the lowest wealth quintile, and 12.5 per cent are from the second lowest wealth quintile.

Though a sizeable number of cases of trafficking remain unregistered in West Bengal, The NCRB 2012, the latest data made available by National Crime Record Bureau, reports a total of 113 cases of “selling of girls for prostitution”, of which 87 cases (77 per cent) are from West Bengal (NCRB: 2012). According to a study conducted by International Development Law Organization, two-thirds of all children trafficked in West Bengal are girls, of which nearly 90 per cent have either dropped out of primary school or have never attended school, displaying a direct correlation between child trafficking and access to education.

One reason for the high trafficking rates is because West Bengal holds a strategic position in terms of its geographical location as it shares international boundaries with Bangladesh and Nepal, and state boundaries with Jharkhand, Bihar, Odisha, Sikkim, and Assam, making it more vulnerable to cross-border, interstate, and intrastate trafficking.



ii. Scope of the study

4

The present study focuses on the poor families the city of Kolkata who have migrated to the Kolkata urban municipal area in the last ten years. A special emphasis is given to the condition of the children within the population. The study uses ‘poor’ a descriptive category and not in terms of a population living below the poverty line as defined by the Planning Commission. As is well known, there are controversies related to the precise definition of the poverty line and for the purpose of this study it was felt unnecessary to look at only those who have been categorised as BPL. Also, Kolkata Municipal Corporation does not have an updated BPL list either. Therefore, to focus exclusively on those who are categorised as BPL would have excluded a large number of people who are poor but not necessarily in the official list. It is therefore used in the sense of “labouring poor” of the city who cannot afford to stay anywhere except in slums and squatters. Our surveys, FGDs and area studies are thus concentrated in slums only. They are “poor” relative to other urban classes, but as the study will show, there are layers of differences in entitlements between them also. Thus, “poor” is not a homogenous category either. Details of income and expenditure patterns of the surveyed households have been provided in course of the report.

While the focus of the study is on the poor people who have come to Kolkata in the last ten years, the study has also looked at a control group of poor households who have come to Kolkata earlier or have been living in the city for a long time who have been categorized in the study as non-migrants. Thus the household survey was conducted in 500 migrant households and 500 non-migrant households with children.

iii. Objectives

1. To assess the present status of official data on migrant poor to Kolkata city: to ascertain whether the state Government and/or the Kolkata Municipal Corporation or any other source maintain any regular data-base on the migrant population and if yes then what is the nature of the data available.

2. To assess the demographic composition of the migrants including demographic profile of the children.
3. To understand the various sources of livelihood of the migrant population.
4. To assess how far the migrant population has access to various services – shelter, ration card, education, health, welfare, etc.
5. To assess the prevalence of child labour among the migrant population.
6. To assess the health, education, and other facilities accessible to the migrant children.
7. To understand how far the migrant children are vulnerable to criminal activities both as victims of crime and potential recruits to criminal gangs.
8. To examine the state policy regarding the migrant children of the city. This covers both official policy as well as implementation of the policy at the ground level.
9. To suggest possible policy initiatives that Government of West Bengal/Kolkata Municipal Corporation can take regarding better inclusion of migrant population in the city, especially the children within the population.

iv. Methodology

The study was carried out in several stages and is based on both secondary sources and primary survey. A multi-pronged methodology has been adopted. At first the study team reviewed the knowledge available at the official level, mainly Census and NSSO data. The study team also reviewed existing published research on migration in India.

At the second stage extensive primary data was collected through different methods. First, a primary survey with structured schedules was conducted among 1000 poor households in the selected authorised and unauthorised slums in Kolkata city. For comparative assessment of the situations of migrant and non-migrant households we selected 500 households who are relatively new migrants and have come to the city in the last 10 years. In the absence of any database on migrant population the sampling method had to be purposive. ICDS workers were consulted to locate the target population in the absence of any official data. Care was taken to include different parts of the city to ensure that the sample was as representative as possible. Detailed list of surveyed areas has been provided in the Appendix 6.1 at the end of Chapter 6. Primarily the sample for migrant population (500 households) was selected from the poor households in unauthorised slums and those living on encroached land in the peripheries of the city. KMC does not provide basic amenities like water, sanitation, health services etc in these unauthorised slums.

A second group of 500 households were selected from KMC registered slums where people have been living for a long time who are either local people or have come to the city long back. The registered or authorised slums have all the facilities provided by the KMC. This group served as a control group for the study.

Thirdly, in order to supplement the quantitative data with qualitative information we conducted 10 Focus Group Discussions and several semi-structured interviews with migrant population and non-migrant population in unauthorised and authorised slums in different parts of the city. In each FGD 10 to 20 persons were present.

Fourthly, we interviewed a few NGOs which are doing social work with the poor migrant children in different locations in the city and visited their project areas and interacted with the children directly. Two such projects run by CINI ASHA with children in Sealdah railway station and by Don Bosco Ashalayam

in Haora railway station were visited by the research team. In addition to having a lively conversation with the children about their background, day-to-day life and predicament, twenty five migrant children in each project area (Haora and Sealdah) were interviewed with a small questionnaire.

v. Design of the Report

The report is presented in nine chapters. The present introductory chapter (Chapter 1) is followed by Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 which in detail explain the migration scenario and related issues in India, in West Bengal and Kolkata based on secondary sources. Chapter 4 discusses the role of NGOs, their programmes and policies for reaching the migrant poor children in Kolkata. Chapter 5 analyses to what extent the government programmes for the children are reaching the poor migrant children in Kolkata. Chapter 6 presents a comparative analysis of the primary survey data on poor migrant and non-migrant households regarding various aspects of their background and quality of life. Chapter 7 discusses the issues related to children of these migrant and non-migrant families and their human development situation including vulnerability and predicament in the city. In Chapter 8 we present two case studies on migrant children on the railway platforms of Sealdah and Haora. The final chapter, i.e. Chapter 9, gives a summary of the report, discusses policy implications and provides recommendations on concerns discussed in the report.

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Chapter 2

Migration and Children in India - An Analysis of Select Secondary Sources

This chapter aims to discuss the official estimates of migration in India and reviews some important recent studies/reports on migration and related issues like migration and children, gender and migration and other social implications of migration. The literature available on migration in India is quite substantial and a thematic review has been pursued rather than trying to do cover each and every study. The first section analyses the data available from Census of India and National Sample Survey Organisation reports; the second section thematically analyses some of the trends in migration as has been discussed in recent studies and the third section reviews the debate on migration and children.

Section 1

Migration in India : The Process and Extent

The two most important sources that are available on migration in the country on the estimates and process of migration are the Census of India and employment-unemployment surveys of the NSSO. For our analysis we consider the latest available migration data from Census 2001 and 64th round survey of 2007-08 by the NSSO. It may be noted here that Census 2011 migration tables were not available in the public domain during this study.

1.1 Migrant population by place of birth and last residence

In India, out of 1028.6 million people, 307.1 million were reported as migrants¹ by their place of birth² by the Census of India (2001). The data from the place of last residence³ also show a similar figure of 314.5 million migrants. The percentage of lifetime migrants by their place of birth (POB) is nearly 30% of the Indian population. According to the NSSO report of 2007-2008 the migrant population constituted nearly 29% of the total population. Therefore the two main secondary data sources show similar proportion of migrant population in the country.

The proportion of female migrants in the total migrant population is larger than the male migrants especially in the short distance migrations such as within the district migration and between the districts. This trend is found in all the reports available in India on migration. In the migration by POB data in Census 2001, female migrants were 216.7 million while men were 90.4 million out of 307 million migrant population. In NSSO report (2007-2008) the magnitude of the male migration rate was far lower than the female migration rate in both rural and urban areas. In rural areas about 48% of the females were migrants while the male migration rate was only 5%, and in the urban areas the male migration rate was nearly 26% compared to the female migration rate of 46%. The reason behind the higher proportion of females in the migrant population is mostly due to change of residence because of marriage.

From both the sources of information about the migration trend in India, it is clear that the proportion of migrants found in urban areas is higher than in rural areas. The NSSO report of 2007-2008 showed that the migration rate in the urban areas (35%) was higher than the migration rate in the rural areas (26%). The Census of India data also shows a similar trend of migration in India, with 27.58% in rural areas and 35.76 in the urban areas by their place of birth.

1.2 Migration streams

The Census and NSSO collected data to provide information about the internal migration trend in India. It may be noted that migrants in any area may be from within the states, from other states or from other countries. The total migrants considering the migration stream from within the states and from other states constitute the proportion of internal migrants of the country. It has been seen that the internal migrants constitute the 99% of the migrant population according to the NSSO report.

¹ **Migrants** : A household member whose last usual place of residence (UPR), anytime in the past, was different from the present place of enumeration was considered as a migrant member in a household (NSSO).

² **Migrants by Place of Birth** : According to the Census of India, Migrants by place of birth are those who are enumerated at a village/town at the time of census other than their place of birth.

³ **Migrants by Place of last residence** : A person is considered as migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census is other than his place of immediate last residence.

Table 2.1 provides information about the proportion of migrant by location of last usual place of residence during 2007-2008. It can be seen from the table that the inter-district and inter-state migration was relatively less frequent than the intra-district migration except among male migrants in urban areas for whom inter-district migration was most frequent. Intra-state and also the intra-district migration was more prominent among the migrants in rural areas than among migrants in urban areas. It can be seen among the rural migrants nearly 94% had migrated from within the state and nearly 5% had moved from other states of India; and for the urban migrants nearly 75% had migrated from within the state and nearly 24% had migrated from other states.

Table 2.1: Percentage of Migrants by Location of Last Usual Place of Residence for Each Category of Persons during 2007-2008 from NSSO Report (2007-2008)

Category of Migrants	Last Usual Place of Residence in						
	Rural Areas of			Urban Areas of			Other Countries
	Same State			Same State			
	Same District	Other District	Other States	Same District	Other District	Other States	
Rural Male	46.2	18.0	8.6	7.7	9.1	7.2	3.2
Rural Female	68.3	21.4	3.5	3.6	2.1	8.8	0.2
Rural Person	65.9	21.1	4.0	4.1	2.8	1.5	0.6
Urban Male	19.7	18.8	21.8	7.9	19.7	10.9	1.2
Urban Female	27.2	20.6	10.7	13.2	19.6	8.1	0.5
Urban Person	24.4	19.9	14.9	11.2	19.6	9.1	0.8

Source : NSSO 64th round (2007-2008) report on migration.

The Census of India data reported that during 1991-2001 the proportion of migrant within the state of enumeration i.e. migrants within the district and from other districts of the state (266 million out of 312 million migrants) was higher than the migrants from other states (about 41 million out of the total migrant population excluding J&K).

Table 2.2 : Migrants by Last Residence in India (excluding J&K) in 2001 Census

Place of Last Residence	Persons
Total migrants	312,735,593
Migrants within the state of enumeration	266,594,252
Migrants from within the district	192,265,527
Migrants from other districts of the state	74,328,725
Migrants from other states in India	41,008,262
Migrants from other countries	5,132,679

Source : Table D-2, Census of India 2001

From both the data it is clear that intra-state migration and also intra-district migration is more frequent than the inter-state migration and inter-district migration. However, the male migrants show a higher propensity to migrate large distance.

1.3 Rural-Urban Migration Stream

In the NSSO report of 64th round during 2007-08, rural-to-rural migration was the most dominant migration stream, accounting for nearly 62 per cent of the total internal migrants, followed by rural-to urban migration stream, which shared nearly 20 per cent of the total internal migrants. The share of urban-to-urban migration stream stood at 13 per cent, while urban-to-rural migration stream constituted 6 per cent of total internal migrants. However, the patterns displayed by male migrants are distinct from that of female migrants. For male migrants, rural- to-urban migration stream was the most dominant one which shared nearly 39 per cent of total male internal migrants, while for female rural-to-rural migration stream shared nearly 70 per cent of the total internal female migrants. For males, the urban-to-urban migration stream shared nearly one-fourth of the total internal male migrants, while for female it was nearly one-tenth (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 : Percentage of Internal Migrants over the Four Types of Rural-urban Migration Streams as per NSS 64th Round

Type	Rural to Rural	Urban to Rural	Rural to Urban	Urban to Urban
Male	27.2	8.9	39.0	24.8
Female	70	4.9	14.8	10.3
Persons	61.7	5.7	19.5	13.1

Source : NSSO 64th round data on migration (2007-2008)

The Census (2001) data provides information on the same during the last decade based on migrants with duration of residence of 0-9 years at the place of enumeration by various migration streams. The data is presented in a summarized form in Table 2.4. Out of 97.5 million internal migrants in the country, 53.3 million (54.7 %) moved within rural areas (rural-rural migration stream). About 20.6 million persons (21.1% of the total migrants) moved from rural areas to urban areas during 1991-2001. On the other hand, 6.2 million persons (6.4%) moved from urban areas to rural areas. The number of migrants who moved from one town to another during the last decade is 14.4 million, i.e., about 14.7 per cent of the total migrants. In case of about 3% migrants the rural-urban status of the place from which they moved could not be determined.

Table 2.4 : Number of Internal Migrants in the Country with duration of Residence 0-9 years by Rural Urban Status of Place of Last Residence and Place of Enumeration-India 2001 Census

Rural Urban Status of Place of Last Residence	Rural Urban Status of Place of Enumeration		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Total	97,560,320	61,428,374	36,131,946
Rural	73,949,607	53,354,376	20,595,231
Urban	20,655,277	6,266,503	14,388,774
Unclassified	2,955,436	1,807,495	1,147,941

Source : Table D-2, Census of India 2001

So from both the data sources it is clear that rural to rural migration stream was more dominant than the other streams during the period of 2001 to 2008 followed by the rural to urban migration.

However it should be noticed that the rural to rural migration stream for female was seen substantially high due to marriage related migration which may be the cause for the high rate of rural to rural migration stream. The migration stream from rural areas to urban areas is second most dominated migration stream among the four streams. The 64th NSSO report shows that nearly 60% of urban male migrants and 50% of urban female migrants had migrated from rural areas.

To have a better understanding of the migration stream the NSSO and Census have studied various components of migration streams by intra district, inter-district and inter-state migration. The data from both the sources are presented in tabular form. Survey results of NSS 64th round (Table 2.5) show that at the all-India level, the rural to-rural migration stream was dominated by intra-district migration (72 %) and nearly 96% in the rural-to-rural migration was through intra- state migration. For other categories of migration streams too, the share of intra-state migrants was dominant though lower compared to rural-to-rural migration stream: 75 % for rural-to- urban, 83 % for urban-to-rural and 77 % for urban-to-urban migration streams. While in the inter-state migration, the share of rural to urban migration (25.2%) was dominant followed by urban to urban migration stream (22.9%), urban to rural (17.5%) and rural to rural (4.4%) respectively.

Table 2.5 : Percentage of Internal Migrants by Last Usual Place of Residence for Each Component of Rural-Urban Migration Stream during 2007-2008.

Migration Stream	Last Usual Place of Residence		
	Within State		Between States
	Same District	Different District	
Rural to Rural	72.4	23.2	4.4
Rural to urban	41.2	33.6	25.2
Urban to Rural	48.8	33.8	17.5
Urban to Urban	27.9	49.2	22.9

Source : 64th NSSO report (2007-2008)

Table 2.6 : Percentage of Migrants by Place of Last Residence Indicating Migration Streams (duration 0-9 years) by Census 2001 (excluding international migrants)

Migration Stream	Last Place of Residence (duration 0-9 years)				
	In millions			Percentage	
	Total	Intra-state	Inter-state	Intra-state	Inter-state
Rural to Rural				60.5	26.6
Rural to urban				17.6	37.9
Urban to Rural	98,301,342	80,733,441	16,826,879	6.5	6.3
Urban to Urban				12.3	26.7
Unclassified				3.1	2.6

Source : Table D-2, Census of India 2001

As observed from Table 2.6, the Census data of 2001 on migration (duration 0-9 years) by the last place of residence show a similar trend as the 64th NSSO data during 2007-2008. The share of intra-state migrants is far higher than the inter-state migrants mainly due to small number of women migrating due to marriage outside the state. Out of 98 million internal migrants by the place of last

residence (duration 0-9 years), almost 81 million constituted the intra-state migrants and 16 million as inter-state migrants. Out of these intra-state migrants, 48.8 million (60.5%) migrants moved from rural to rural area, the majority of them being females who usually move out from their natal residence after marriage. The rural to urban stream constituted 17.6% and those moving from urban to rural areas only 6.5%. For those who were residing in urban areas there are likelihood that they move to another urban area and such urban to urban stream comprised 12.3% of intra-state migrants. Only 4.4 million out of 16.8 million migrants coming from outside the state belong to this stream of rural to rural migration. The rural to urban migration was higher (37.9%) indicating that the choice of town is not limited to those within the state while migrating. Urban to urban migration among inter-state migrants was also quite high (26.7%) and evenly distributed among both males and females.

1.4 Reasons for Migration

Both NSSO and Census have collected data on reasons of migration by categorizing it into many components. The Census of India has noted the reasons into seven categories which are presented in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 : Reasons for Migration of Migrants by Last Residence with Duration (0-9 years)

Reason for Migration	Number of Migrants			Percentage to Total Migrants		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Total migrants	98,301,342	32,896,986	65,404,356			
Reasons for migration :						
Work/employment	14,446,224	12,373,333	2,072,891	14.7	37.6	3.2
Business	1,136,372	950,245	186,127	1.2	2.9	0.3
Education	2,915,189	2,038,675	876,514	3.0	6.2	1.3
Marriage	43,100,911	679,852	42,421,059	43.8	2.1	64.9
Moved after birth	6,577,380	3,428,673	3,148,707	6.7	10.4	4.8
Moved with households	20,608,105	8,262,143	12,345,962	21.0	25.1	18.9
Others	9,517,161	5,164,065	4,353,096	9.7	15.7	6.7

Source : Census of India (2001)

As Table 2.7 shows the reasons for migration for males and females vary significantly. The most common reason for migration for males was work/employment (about 37.6%) while for females it was marriage (about 65%). The second most reason for migration after 'marriage' was 'moved with households' which show a higher percentage (about 25%) for males than the females (19%).

In the 64th NSSO data, the reasons for migration was categorized into work/employment, forced migration, studies and marriage and further subdivided into other varying reasons. The data of NSSO 64th round during 2007-2008 has been presented in Table 2.8. Like the Census 2001 data, marriage was cited as the major reason mostly due to bulk of females cited it as the reason.

For females in both rural and urban areas, the reason for the bulk of the migrants was marriage: for 91 % of rural female migrants and 61 per cent of the urban female migrants the reason was "marriage". For urban females, "migration of parent/earning member of the family", was the next major reason for migration after marriage, accounting for nearly 29% of total urban female migrants. The reason

for migration for the male migrant, on the other hand, was dominated by “employment related reason”, in both the rural and urban areas. Nearly 29% of rural male migrants and 56% of urban male migrants had migrated due to “employment related” reasons.

The “migration of parent/earning member of the family” also significantly induced male migration in both the rural and urban areas: for, nearly 22 % of rural male migrants and 25 per cent of urban male migrants, “migration of parent/earning member of the family” was the reason for migration. “Study” as a reason for migration also accounted for nearly 11 per cent of rural male migrants and 7 per cent of urban male migrants.

Table 2.8 : Percentage of Migrants with Reason for Migration during 2007-2008 by 64th Round of NSSO Report

Reason for Migration	Rural			Urban			Rural + Urban		
	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P
Employment related reasons	28.6	0.7	3.6	55.7	2.7	22.8	45.6	1.1	9.9
Studies	10.7	0.5	1.6	6.8	2.2	4.0	8.2	1.0	2.4
Forced migration	4.2	0.3	0.8	1.3	0.5	0.7	2.4	0.4	0.8
Marriage	9.4	91.2	82.5	1.4	60.8	38.3	4.4	83.6	68.1
Movement of parent/ Earning member	22.1	4.4	6.3	25.2	29.4	27.8	24.1	10.7	13.4
Others*	24.0	2.4	4.7	9.5	3.9	5.9	14.8	2.7	5.1

Source: NSSO report (64th round) on migration.

*others include housing problem, post retirement, health care, acquisition of own flat/house etc. M =Male; F = Female; P = Persons

Section 2

Issues in Migration : Review of Recent Studies on Migration

2.1 Migration Estimates

Migration in India, as has been noted earlier, has seen an increase during 1991-2001 period after consistent decline from 1951 to 1991. This is also corroborated by the Urban Poverty Report of Ministry of Housing Urban Poverty Alleviation and UNDP (MoHUPA & UNDP: 2009). The report has shown that the economically backward states keep losing people to developed states. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan, Uttarakhand and Andhra Pradesh recorded net loss population of the state as out-migrating states while Maharashtra, Gujarat, West Bengal, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Delhi, Haryana and Punjab are gaining the population as in-migrating states. The urban areas of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and West Bengal show net in-migration while rural parts of these states show net out-migration. The migration towards the urban areas has increased substantially among inter-state migrants and rural-urban migration also shows sizeable increase among male and female migrants while urban-urban shows a declining trend, the report notes.

The increase in migration since 1991 has been attributed by the Urban Poverty Report to the addition of new administrative boundaries (states and district) in the last decade. Another reason for this

increase can also be attributed to the increase in mobility of women along with increased rural-urban migration particularly in the inter-state category as stated in the UNESCO/UNICEF report on National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development that was held in December 2011 (UNESCO & UNICEF:2011). The shares of women and children in all these streams have gone up. This trend can be attributed to earlier migrants now being able to bring in their family members or new migrants moving with their families as they belong to a higher economic category (Kundu: 2012). Another trend is showing an increase in the rural-urban and inter-state migration which again can be said that the incidence of increasing inter-state migrants can be implied to increased opportunities for relatively skilled labours and better off migrants (Kundu: 2012). Thus according to Kundu, poverty induced migration has become less important. Also the middle and higher income groups show higher propensity to move which further confirms the proposition.

Kundu (2012) in his paper Migration and Exclusionary Urbanisation in India, said that “migration process has an in-built screening system which is picking up people from relatively higher economic and social strata”. He also argued that decline in the share of migrants moving in search of employment and an increase in the business and study-related mobility over the decades further confirms this proposition. This has created a rural-urban economic inequality. Therefore, according to him, the role of migration in sharing the benefits of uneven growth across states and districts and between rural and urban is doubtful.

The million plus cities of India (43% of the urban population lives in 53 cities that have million plus population out of 7935 towns and cities in India in 2001) are centres of wealth and economic growth but it should be noted that the cities with larger share of migrant population “have been thriving” than the cities with less migrant population (UNESCO & UNICEF: 2011).

The migration data of Census 2011 is still not available. But some estimates are available based on independent research. Recently the Indian Institute of Human Settlements (IIHS) has presented an estimate based on data from multiple sources like Census 2011, SRS 2011 and NSS 64th round data in the form of a brief e-publication in their website (IIHS: 2013). According to their estimates:

- Uttar Pradesh leads the country as an inter-state migration destination followed by Delhi, West Bengal, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan. Delhi leads as a destination of rural to urban migration followed by Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana and Andhra Pradesh. In urban to urban migration Delhi again leads other states as a destination point.
- The major component of urban population growth is still natural growth but migration is also significant. While approximately 40 million of the 2001-2011 increase is due to natural growth, about 22 million is due to net rural to urban migration.
- Estimated rate of net rural to urban migration has increased from 21 per cent in 1991-01 to 24 per cent in 2001-11.
- The top 10 movement streams are as follows: (i) UP to Delhi; (ii) Bihar to Delhi; (iii) UP to Maharashtra (iv) Bihar to West Bengal, (v) Tamil Nadu to Kerala (vi) Bihar to UP, (vii) Haryana to Delhi (viii) UP to Gujarat, (ix) Kerala to Tamil Nadu (x) Andhra Pradesh to Karnataka.

2.2 Gender and Migration in India

Indrani Mazumdar, N. Neetha and Indu Agnihotri (Mazumdar et al: 2013) have recently studied a set of primary level data generated by a series of micro surveys conducted between 2009 and 2011 in 20 states to give a meso-level view as well as the macro level data by NSS in 2007-2008 to bring about the neglected dimensions of gender into the debates on migration in India. They have argued that the combination of “gender insensitive methodological assumptions” in the official macro data on employment and migration and similar ‘blind spots’ in development discourses has resulted in the inability to develop a macro view of the patterns of women’s employment and work based migration in India. The outcome is that the male migration is considered as the sole indicator in development oriented analysis of migration and since the Census and NSS data that are based on population movement have always been female insensitive.

The authors have identified the labour migrants from the usual place of resident data from NSS (2007-2008) and conclude:

The estimated total number of labour migrants so identified, were 66 million in 2007-2008, of which 15% (9.6 million) were females, although we would reiterate the figure for women still remains an underestimate.

The authors also put across the point that a significant presence of autonomous migration by women, not all of which is contract driven, indicate the making of a wave of ‘social assertion and aspirational motivation.’. The findings show that the constraints shaped by the ‘neo-liberal’ economic growth have narrowed down the opportunities for women’s work based migration, sometimes reinforced entrenched patriarchies and inequalities.

2.3 Social Dimensions of Migration

Ben Rogaly has analysed the social dimensions of seasonal migration in various regions of India and argues that there is a need for a better understanding of social and economic relations and circumstances under which migration could affect to the benefit of poor migrant worker (Rogaly:1998). The author pointed out in the paper that seasonal migration is a common source of livelihood in many rural areas of India and this pose a major challenge for the development policy makers. This is because seasonal migrants are among the poorest people and they and their children are often excluded from geographically based interventions because of their absence.

Rogaly cited lack of official estimation on the extent of seasonal out migration in India as the reason for making planning and development policy interventions difficult. For instance, the appropriate timing for rural employment programme or the workable repayment schedules for micro-enterprise loans is not possible to determine in these areas. However many studies in India have said that seasonal out migration have increased in the past decades. He says:

The number of temporary migrants has increased during the 1980s and 1990s in western India (Bremar, 1996) and in eastern India (Ghosh and Sharma, 1995, p120). Meanwhile, numbers of temporary migrants have ‘not ebbed’ in northern India (Srivastava, 1997, p23). National level estimates indicate that rural employment outmigration has ‘probably’ increased for India as a whole (Sen, 1997, p.13). (p. 21)

Rogaly argues that effective policy and practices needs better understanding of the “trends, causes, extent and consequences of seasonal migration”. He also pointed out that seasonal migration is a part and outcome of the structures of social and economic relations in the countryside and opined that through the actions of migrants and their employer, such migration can in some circumstances change those social structures. He presents the experiences of seasonal migration in different regions of India.

The paper contrasted two regions of India experiencing seasonal out migration to understand whether they migrate out of compulsion or by individual choice. It shows how the economic factor determine the reason for migration and how it varies according to the ways in which agricultural producer-capitalist organize themselves and labour forces.

Manual workers in rural India are informally contracted, sometimes through intermediaries, and, like most rural workers worldwide, do not have effective collective bargaining mechanisms or legal protection from harsh employment practices (ILO,1996). (p:22)

A study on khandeshi migrants of Maharashtra who migrate to work in the sugar cooperatives are effectively compelled to do so. The study by Teerink (1995) gives details of the experiences of those migrants who were deliberately excluded from local employment to work in the Gujarat sugar mills at cheaper rates. Another study shows that the migrants from the border regions of Bihar and West Bengal and from elsewhere in West Bengal migrate towards the southern central part of the state for seasonal agricultural works. He pointed out that the migrants have become aware that there is a continuity of employment (i.e. a month to six weeks for the same employer) rather than sporadic since the increase in the rice production in 1980s and early 1990s and also better paid than the employers in their home states. These migrants are paid lump sum money at the end of season and given accommodation and fuel with daily allowance of rice.

The paper also puts emphasis on the effects of migration on children and family disruption. It says that children when they travel with their seasonal migrant parents, their access to primary education get diminished.

Rogaly pointed out that in West Bengal mainly the young girl child are mostly chosen to accompany their migrant parents or migrant groups as they can take care of infants and household and are less likely to receive formal education as in the case of boys.

2.4 Lack of policy on Migration in India

The issues of migration and protection of the rights of the migrants are yet to be addressed by the government policies and programmes. This has been noted by both the Urban Poverty Report and the report by UNESCO & UNICEF. The Urban Poverty Report has observed:

Migration, which affects both the area of origin (out-migration) and the place of destination (in-migration), has been given little importance in framing any national policy. In India there is no migration policy, except that people have a constitutional right to move, leave, and work for their livelihood, in any part of the country. (pp.50 -51)

The UNESCO & UNICEF Report has observed that there were no mention of migrants and their issues in the 11th and 12th Five Year Plan. The policies that address the issues of urban poor and slum

dwellers, such as Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) and Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY) do not specifically consider the conditions of migrants in the city perhaps under the assumption that migrants and poor are synonymous category. The international workshop on internal migrants and human development by UNICEF/UNESCO also addressed this as an important issue as this has obstructed the mainstreaming of migration into the development strategies of the country. The report says:

...This assumption has obstructed the mainstreaming of migration into the development strategies of the country. Issues such as denial of economic, political, social and cultural rights of migrants do not figure in our policy and programme documents. (Vol. 1, p.8)

The report emphasized that migrants' inclusion in the city assumes significance in order to build inclusive, liveable and sustainable cities.

Section 3

Migration and Children in India

3.1 Estimates of Child Migrants and Child Labour

Ravi Srivastava has argued in an essay that the figures estimated by the NSS 2007-2008 about migrating children and working children are probably lower than the actual figure (Srivatsava:2012). The NSS reported that only 0.4 % of the migrating children below the age of 15 cited work as the reason and 70% of them reported the reason as accompanying parents or earning members. He says:

As per the NSS estimates, only 82,370 children below the age of 15 or 0.4 % of the migrating children in 2007–2008 were reported as migrating for work, while 70% were reported as accompanying their parents or earning members. At the destinations, 298,747 children were reported as workers, with male children being represented in almost the same proportion as female children. 46% of children worked in self-employed enterprises, 38.8% as casual workers and 15.2 % as regular workers. (p. 22)

There are varying estimates of working children magnitude in India due to differing concepts and methods of estimation. The Census of India-1991 recorded 11.20 million working children, while the Census-2001 has recorded 12.66 million working children in the ages of 5-14 years. Ninety percent of the children workers were from rural areas. The proportion of working children to the child population aged 5-14 years, registered a marginal decline from 5.4 percent to 5 per cent during 1991-2001.

According to the NSS 2007-08 survey as well, the worker-population ratio (WPR) for children in the age group of 5-14 years has shown a declining trend during the period from 1993-94 and 2007-08. The reduction in WPR for both male and female children in rural areas was from 6% in 1993-94 to 2% in 2007-08. In the urban areas the reduction in WPR in male children was from 4% to 2% during this time gap. For the female children this reduction was from 3% to 1% (NSS Report 2007-08 p 531). Srivastava points out that children also migrate alone and in most of the cases ended up living on the streets. A report by the street children consortium estimated that nearly 44.5 % of the estimated 1.1 to 1.8 million street children in India live alone. Many children also migrate alone for work and are usually pledged against loan taken by their parents and are under neo-bondage. Many studies have

identified the incidence of bonded labour in India in a number of occupations. The industries that have bonded labours identified by different studies are mainly brick kiln, stone quarries, carpet-weaving, beedi-rolling, rearing of silk cocoon, production of silk Sarees, silver ornaments, cutting of gem stone, cotton industry etc. Srivatsava says:

Several hundred thousand tribal children and young adolescents are estimated to migrate from southern Rajasthan to cotton hybrid seed farms in neighbouring Gujarat, against advances taken by their parents. A similar practice had also been prevalent in the cotton seed farms in Andhra Pradesh.

Srivatsava points out that the children accompanied by their seasonal migrant parents are extremely vulnerable in many respects. When the children migrate as a family unit they also contribute to the family subsistence with other member of the family unit excluding the infants by helping in work or as part of household 'care economy'. The children who work mostly have to face "harshness and deprivations" in the work environment. Another important fact is that migration hampers or it can be said prevents education for the migrant children. The migrant parents come from very poor and economically deprived vulnerable section of the working population and their own education attainment is negligible. The paper pointed out that the migration of either of the parents has the potential to reduce the child's probability of being educated.

The essay focuses on the diversity of migration as the impact on children depends upon the nature of migration. The different migration types both in origin areas and destination areas needs to be studied to understand the extent to which the children are part of labour force and the degree of isolation, fragmentation and segmentation that the migrant labours are forcefully subjected to. These children in general live in unhealthy condition, miss going to school, and are involved in work with their parents or in household care economy. A few studies are there which addresses this issue and identified the industries those recruit child workers and has job specified for children. This paper has accounted some of the settings to understand the impact of migration on children. From all the studies on this issue it is clear that a large percentage of these children continued to be nominally enrolled in schools, but actually got dropped out of schooling.

3.2 Migrant Children and Education

Another study by Mazumdar et al has noted that the children of seasonal, circular and temporary migrants face difficulties in continuing their studies because of irregularity in school. They are forced to discontinue school education and eventually suffer learning deficits. About one third of the children of migrant workers are unable to attend school (Mazumdar, Neetha, Agnihotri:2011).

Diane Coffey has recently done a quantitative analysis on the children of migrants and their experiences in a population of short term migrants (Coffey: forthcoming). A data set of 70 villages in rural northwestern India has been used in this paper to explore the children's lives in a migrant family and as a migrant. The data were collected from 'a very poor', tribal regions which has high rates of short term migration along the borders of the state of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat. This survey covered 5 districts in 70 villages - Banswara and Dungarpur in Rajasthan, Jhabua and Ratlam in Madhya Pradesh, and Dahod in Gujarat. It consisted of a data set of 1980 children of age 0 to 13. The areas for the survey have been reported by the previous researches as a region of high levels of deprivation and seasonal migration'. Migration is an important livelihood strategy and mainly takes place in the

summer time when agriculture is unproductive. The report says that about 80% of the households sent a migrant in the past year. The report also says:

There is a strong age and sex pattern to migration; adult males are more likely to migrate than adult females, and migration is most common among adults between the ages of 18 and 35 and infants. (p. 8)

According to the findings of the survey 80% of the migration trips were to urban destinations.

The study presents a statistical description about the children's health and education and quantifies their experiences as migrant themselves and as children left behind. According to the study the education attainment of the children of the study villages are quite low and children's health is poor. Out of 1980 children surveyed, 29.6 % of them migrated with one or more adult family members. The author pointed out that child migration is not common as adult migration but quantitatively an important phenomenon in this population. According to the study:

Migration is most common for young children, with almost half of zero to two year old children migrating in the year before the survey. About 30 % of five year old children migrated, and just under 20 % of 10 year old children migrated (p. 11).

Child labour was found to be very uncommon unlike the other earlier reviews that suggest that child labour goes hand in hand with migration. It is only performed by the children over the age of 10. The report says:

Data were also collected from about 513 child migrants from adults who were in the village at the time of the survey. Adults who had migrated with children were asked: "On the most recent trip that this child came with you, what did he/she do?" Multiple responses were allowed for this question... 20.5 per cent of children did domestic work (for their own households) on their last trip; 5.7 per cent worked for pay; 3.3 per cent helped adults work, but were unpaid; 2.1 per cent went to school; and 79.5 per cent did nothing. (p.13)

As the period of stay as short term migrant is on an average 30 days in this sample, it is unlikely that the children were doing long term work such as domestic help in other households or in some restaurants or tea vendors. The author claimed that they instead work alongside their parents in construction or agriculture.

The study reported that the children who migrate get less education for each year of age than the group that does not migrate and thus there is a clear divergence in the educational trends of migrating and non-migrating children. The statistical findings of the study reveal that the children who migrate are disadvantaged in these educational outcomes.

The study also reveals that the deficit is greater for the older children who migrate than the younger ones. The author pointed out that due to migration children forget what they have learnt in school, and it doesn't allow them a chance to develop a relationship with classmates and teachers which will help them to progress through school and eventually it may break the habit of going to school.

3.3 Distress Seasonal Migration and its Impact on Migrant Children

Smita addresses the issues of distress seasonal migration and its impact on the migrant children, and

the various interventions by NGOs in different parts of India for their inclusion in the mainstream society (Smita:2007). The rising trend of distress seasonal migration is one of the challenges faced by the marginalized rural population of India she points out. These migrant families also take their children along with them which further interrupt their schooling and also force them into labour market. It has been estimated that about 9 million children below 14 years of age are migrants in India. These migrants face a peculiar situation as they neither belong to their village nor their destination place. As a result they don't get the government welfare facilities in their villages and there are no such facilities for them in the migration sites as well.

Smita has also pointed out that there is also a gap in the systematic data available on the distress seasonal migrants and which leads to policy gaps. As there is no proper database on the extent and scale of distress seasonal migration, and its impact on families as well as communities, this issue has no place in policy discourse and in the planning framework. Smita says:

Seasonal migrants belong to the poorest sections of the population, and represent the major and growing phenomenon of labour mobility driven by a livelihood collapse in rural areas which the government needs to recognize as a looming challenge. Despite this, they are not reflected in the five year plans, nor are they the focus of any special schemes or sub-plans, thus remaining bereft of any vehicle for change. (p.20)

The children of these migrant families are forced into hard labour by the parents as well as the employers which is most probably due to the nature of the wage payment i.e. piece rate basis of payment instead of hours of work. As a result the children are often not acknowledged as child labour and the employers enjoy the benefit of free labour as it is seen as family labour. Most of the sectors have some job delineated for children only.

In the worksites children have minimal access to clean drinking water, nutrition, proper clothing or hygienic conditions and also face abuses from employers and even from exhausted parents. They are deprived of minimum care and proper treatment from illness which is very common given the unhygienic condition of their home and worksites. They are deprived of the elementary education and also suffer from insecurity and other health problems.

There are no or very poor schooling facilities for the migrant children causing drop outs or no education which eventually drive them to migration and child labour. Most of these children become full-fledged labourer by the age of 11 or 12 and face a lot of hardship and deprivation. The girl children suffer more than the boys as they face sexual abuse. These children are mostly viewed as "outsider" in the villages as they don't get acceptance in the schools or in the larger community. They are difficult to trace and therefore easily get left out by various government interventions. Rigorous persuasion and proper educational opportunities should be ensured for the betterment of their future. The state education ministry and Human Resource Development lack proper data and awareness regarding this particular category of children or any strategic plan for them.

There are some states like Andhra Pradesh, Orissa Maharashtra and Gujarat which have taken effort to address the issues of education for the migrant children while Madhya Pradesh started seasonal hostels in 700 villages in 40 districts in 2005.

Some small step has been taken to improve the conditions of migrant families such as SSA (Sarva Sikhshya Abhiyan) which has started the process of introducing this category in their frame work.

3.4 Internal Migration and Impact on Children

Another important contribution on migration and children is by Ann Whitehead who in an essay on migration and children has focused on children's welfare in relation to internal migration in India (Whitehead: 2012). She identified 4 different categories of children those affected by migration. Those categories are dependent child migrants, who migrate with family members, stayed-behind children, who are left behind when parent(s) migrate, independent child migrants who migrate without parents or guardians, and child in out-migration communities who live in the areas of high migration. The dependent children and the stayed-behind children numerically are the largest categories of children who get affected by internal migration. Another category that is identified by Rossi (2009) is children in high out-migration areas as she points out that they are affected indirectly by migration as the high rates of out migration affects the economic, social and political viability of the communities. Whitehead's paper is specifically concerned with the 'independent' child migrants category.

Whitehead pointed out that the 'independent child migrant' category is an "analytically unexpected" issue as the migration studies have an assumption that social and economic actors who move are adults and children's mobility is due to their parents' decision and they are dependent on them as unproductive member of the family unit. These studies have a common notion that the normal status of children are that of a "dependent' family member where the adults earn and protect them, so the concept of "independent child migrant" is less studied and a key cause for concern.

There are many researches that have pointed out that these notions about child migration ignores the reality in which children migrate alone and act as a social or economic actor in such movements and there are many different family forms and childhood experiences across the world. The author also suggested that these researches should be contrasted with the widespread assumption that children migration depend upon their parent's migration. She also focused on the fact that childhood should be conceptualized as a context-specific and highly differentiated experience in which children may be significant social workers in order to have a better insight into their life.

Whitehead pointed out that there is a very little research done on this issue worldwide and also in India because of the normative ideas about child migrants discussed above and also because of the fact that child migrants are either highly invisible or highly visible. The author further discussed that the highly visible child migrants are the children working and living on the streets. However not all street children are migrants, but the policy makers tend to highlight their presence and work on the streets rather than focusing on their migrant status as the key issue. The largely invisible child migrants are those who work as domestic workers, family labour living in rural households and who migrated as foster children.

Whitehead points out that the trafficked children are the most visible of all the child migrants despite the fact that they are very difficult to track or identify but they have a policy visibility that have support from international resources for their protection or rehabilitation. The child migrant often get wrongly identified as trafficked children and the different needs and circumstances of independent child migrants get no space in the policies for discussion. She also pointed out that the reason for very few researches on this issue is that it's very difficult and very costly to do.

Whitehead has discussed in a section in the paper about research on independent child migration carried out from 2005 to 2009 by a consortium of institutions forming the Migration Globalisation

and Poverty Development Research Centre (Migration DRC) with its base in the UK at the University of Sussex. In all there were seven projects undertaken in Bangladesh, India, Burkina Faso and Ghana. The research was focused on the life experiences of child migrants and their reason for migration, how they did it and their journey to their destination and about their experiences at the destination place. One of the main findings of the research was that the portrayal of independent child migrants was markedly different from the general view. The children's experiences ranged from very bad to very good. And the decision to migrate was mostly theirs or they at least had a say in it. While many children shared good experiences, many others reported to face difficulties and shared that they gave up their ambitions and leading a hard life. She says:

It is extremely important to think about their needs before they come to the attention of rescue agencies and especially to find out what makes independent child migrants vulnerable to the more negative experiences and how these can be prevented. (p.104)

There are very few studies on independent child migrant in India, although there have been a number of studies on child labour mainly about their work experiences where some of the child labour were migrant but not all. Whitehead pointed out that there is a very high demand for child labour in some rural areas and urban areas in India and the studies on employment sector that recruit adult migrant labour reported the presence of child labour.

The paper referred a study of Edmond and Salinger (2007) who estimated the number of independent child migrants for Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. By using the data from the 1997–1998 Uttar Pradesh and Bihar Survey of Living Conditions by the World Bank, they gave some hypotheses and economic motives of migrants under 15 years from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The findings are:

...one million children between 5 and 14 years are living permanently away from their mothers – this is up to 5 per cent of the total child population depending on the age band. Their data also show that the proportion of older children living away from mothers rises sharply after 15, with about 20 per cent of 17 year olds being away. (p. 107)

She points out that children make decision to migrate from their home with the aim of working. She says:

They are more or less positive about their experiences, which, to a greater or lesser degree, serve to meet the child's own objectives and strategies. Child migrants are thinkers and doers and strategists. (p. 118)

Whitehead also pointed out that the children who migrate do not view themselves as "victims" rather they view it as a significant opportunity to exercise their own life choices and to improve their opportunities by taking their own decision with or without adult involvement. There is no such longitudinal research which can tell if the strategies are successful in the long run. However, many adults do not view the children decision to migrate as "choices" at all and give stress to the harm that unaccompanied migration can bring. They also stress that children do not have enough knowledge to make independent decision. So here the sense of agency experienced by the children is seen by the outsiders as the child's having very few choices and options. Both the perspectives are correct as the children are taking the decision to migrate because of some adverse circumstances they face in their homes. These adverse circumstances reflect that there is a lack of opportunities in their home. She says:

When children migrate independently to work, it is a signal of the constraints they face in their home communities. (p. 120)

Whitehead pointed out that the key policy interventions for the child migrants are the ones made for the child labours. There is a very recent study by OPM for UNICEF on child labor in cotton growing and cottonseed producing industry in four states of India – Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu that has been discussed in this paper. This study covered many children who are living with their parents and working, some of them as migrants and some as independent child migrants. This study says that the parents play a greater role in the decisions made by their children which is not found significant in the independent child migrant studies.

The study identified many themes from the structural issues which can be of help in the policy advocacy for combating child labour. This study urges policy makers to give importance to the perceptions of the decision makers and make interventions that aim to affect those perceptions by broadening their information or changing their attitude towards information. The author recommends that in order to protect and support child migrants, the agency that children have made for themselves in difficult circumstances should not be undermined.

In the UNICEF/UNESCO workshop report it is also suggested that for addressing the issues of migrant children and their education tracking and mapping of migrants and their children active 'communication and cooperation' between the states is required. A few CSO initiatives regarding this have been taken on sugarcane workers' children run by Janarth, the Bhonga Shalas for brick-kiln workers' children run by Vidhayak Sansad and Action et Aide. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan initiatives in Orissa and Andhra Pradesh have also addressed the issue to some extent. These are however still small exceptional experiments and have not had any nationwide impact.

Another important issue that needs to be addressed, the UNESCO & UNICEF report points out, is the health of migrant children since they lack immunization as their parents "in perpetual, low- income, uncertain jobs that necessitate frequent shifts based on availability of work" and thus suffer from malnutrition and various diseases. One of the common diseases that are found among the migrant children is measles due to lack of immunization. Children of migrant workers have a six fold greater risk of mistreatment than children in the general population because of stress and tension in their families.

The UNICEF/UNESCO report highlighted that there is a serious data gap in respect to seasonal and temporary migration and even more in the child migration category. The gaps in available data eventually resulted in gaps in policy and programmes.

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Chapter 3

Migration Trends in West Bengal and Kolkata City

There is no independent recent study on different types of migration in West Bengal as a whole and Kolkata in particular. For an overall picture of the state and the city we are dependent on the Census and NSSO reports. Even for the Census reports the latest one available is that of 2001 as 2011 migration data has not been released. We may also note that ward level migration data is not available. Based on these two data sources and some independent studies this chapter presents the migration scenario in West Bengal and Kolkata.

The chapter is divided in two parts. The first part puts the data on migration in the state of West Bengal as a whole. In the second part the data on migration in Kolkata and issues related to migration and children in the city are discussed.

Section 1

Migration in West Bengal

1.1 Estimates by the Census of India 2001

i. Migration by Place of Birth (2001)

The total population of West Bengal according to the Census 2001 was 80,176,197. Total in-migrants (Inter-state & from abroad) by place of birth in West Bengal is 5,582,325 which is 7% of the total population of West Bengal and 11.5% share of the total migrants all over India.

Table 3.1 : First Three States with Highest Number of Migrants by Place of Birth

Rank	Name of the States	Migrants by place of birth (from other states and abroad)
1st	Maharashtra	7.9 million
2nd	Delhi	5.6 million
3rd	West Bengal	5.6 million

Source : Table D-1, Census of India 2001

As we can see from Table 3.1, West Bengal comes to the 3rd position with almost 5.6 millions of migrants. The migration by place of birth in West Bengal in 1991 census report was 5.1 million, indicating a rise in migration over the decade 1991-2001.

ii. Migration by Place of Last Residence

Table 3.2 : Migration by Place of Last Residence

In- migrants from other states	724,524
In-migrants from other countries	259,204
Out- migrants	730,226
Net in-migrants (+/-)	253,502

Source : Table D2, Census of India 2001

In case of migration by the place of last residence West Bengal is in the last position among the 35 states categorized by the census report. Data shows the total population of West Bengal in 1991 is 68,077,965. In- migrants from other states (2001) is 724,524. Out-migrants (2001) are 730,226. In-migrants from other countries (2001) are 259,204. Net in-migrants (2001) are 253,502. Migration Rate in 1991-2001 is 0.4%.

iii. Migration Streams

In case of the rural- rural migration West Bengal is in the 10th position among the 35 states with 10,769,514 intra-district rural to rural migrants. In all the categories mentioned above the number of female migrants is more than the number of the male migrants except inter-state rural to urban and urban to urban migration streams (Table 3.3). This is because most of the females have left their last residents due to marriage which makes the number of female migrants higher than the male migrants. On the other hand, migration to the towns of other states goes in favour of males mainly because of employment and education purposes.

Table 3.3 : Migration Stream

Sl. No.	Migrants	Last residence (TRU)	TRU	Persons	Males	Females
1	Intra-district migrants	Rural	Rural	10,769,514	1,218,674	9,550,840
2	Intra-district migrants	Urban	Rural	532,548	189,827	342,721
3	Intra-district migrants	Rural	Urban	1,305,662	442,324	863,338
4	Intra-district migrants	Urban	Urban	865,010	374,644	490,366
5	Inter-district migrants	Rural	Rural	1,657,557	322,609	1,334,948
6	Inter-district migrants	Urban	Rural	311,697	110,264	201,433
7	Inter-district migrants	Rural	Urban	943,802	425,636	518,166
8	Inter-district migrants	Urban	Urban	1,295,757	567,005	728,752
9	Inter-state migrants	Rural	Rural	567,152	200,587	366,565
10	Inter-state migrants	Urban	Rural	88,378	40,668	47,710
11	Inter-state migrants	Rural	Urban	1,156,265	739,258	417,007
12	Inter-state migrants	Urban	Urban	487,818	260,003	227,815

Note : TRU - Total / Rural / Urban

Source : Census of India (2001)

iv. Reason for Migration

Table 3.4 : Reasons for Migration

Sl. No.	Duration of Last residence	Place of Last residence	Total migrants	Work employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after birth	Moved with household	Others
1	All duration	International migrants	2,584,806	140,764	31,444	14,613	224,955	9,923	1,216,726	946,381
2	All duration	Inter-state migrants	2,457,162	680,493	97,816	26,074	599,481	57,504	570,995	424,799
3	Less than 1 year	International migrants	11,140	1,211	206	147	965	73	4,753	3,785
4	Less than 1 year	Inter-state migrants	103,157	45,960	1,489	1,130	4,584	1,530	35,371	13,093
5	1-4 years	International migrants	86,625	8,026	1,557	1,359	14,458	343	35,515	25,367
6	1-4 years	Inter-state migrants	332,403	81,187	8,261	12,168	73,287	7,821	106,655	43,024
7	5-9 years	International migrants	161,439	11,266	2,595	1,148	19,892	491	80,653	45,394
8	5-9 years	Inter-state migrants	288,964	71,371	11,481	4,345	82,905	8,806	76,441	33,615
9	10 years and above	International migrants	2,177,481	120,200	27,073	11,952	189,585	6,987	1,071,862	749,822
10	10 years and above	Inter-state migrants	1,523,550	481,819	76,556	8,418	438,597	31,356	323,262	163,542

As we can see from the above table for both international and inter-state migrants, long term migration is for employment and marriage and movement with the household whereas in case of short term migration the main reason is migration with the household.

v. Inter-state In-migrants to West Bengal by Last Residence

Table 3.5 : List of First Three States from where Maximum In-migrants Come to West Bengal

Sl. No.	Migrants from	Persons	Males	Females
1	Bihar	1,123,729	685,189	438,540
2	Jharkhand	441,058	158,995	282,063
3	Uttar Pradesh	298,356	184,056	114,300

Source : Census 2001

Considering the inter-state migration to West Bengal, Bihar ranks first from where 1,123,729 people have come as migrants followed by Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh. Data show that female migrants are more than the male migrants from Jharkhand.

vi. International In-migrants to West Bengal by Last Residence

Table 3.6 : List of First Three Countries from where Maximum In-migrants Come to West Bengal

Sl. No.	Migrants from	Persons	Males	Females
1	Bangladesh	2,528,993	1,361,863	1,167,130
2	Nepal	37,928	18,930	18,998
3	Pakistan	6,170	3,385	2,785

Source : Census 2001

In case of international migration to West Bengal Bangladesh ranks first according to the Census 2001 followed by Nepal and Pakistan with a small number of migrants. Male migrants are more in number than female migrants in case of Bangladesh and Pakistan while in case of Nepal number of female migrants is marginally higher than the same of female migrants.

1.2 Estimates by the National Sample Survey Organisation (64th Round) On Migration during 2007-2008

i. Number of Rural and Urban Migrants in West Bengal

Table 3.7 : Number of Migrant Household per 1000 Households during the Last 365 Days Preceding the Date of Survey

Name of the State	Rural Migrants	Urban Migrants	(Rural+Urban) Migrants
West Bengal	8	17	10

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey(2007-2008)

Table 3.7 shows that per 1000 households in West Bengal number of rural migrants is 8, number of urban migrants is 17 and when considering 1000 households in both rural and urban sector the number of migrants in total is 10.¹

¹ It may be noted that this number is not just the total of rural and urban migrants. It considers the total number of migrants per 1000 rural + urban households

ii. Number Of Male/ Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) In West Bengal

Table 3.8 : Number of Male/ Female Migrants (per 1000 persons) in West Bengal

West Bengal	Male	Female	Male + Female
Rural	45	512	272
Urban	233	482	353
Rural+Urban	90	505	291

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)

As we can see in Table 3.8, the number of female migrants is higher in every sector than the male migrants. The reason behind this kind of result has already been discussed in the previous analysis (Census report) i.e. marriage.

iii. Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Nature of Movements for West Bengal

Table 3.9 shows that in both the cases of rural and urban the number of female migrants is nil when it comes to the case of temporary migration with duration of stay less than 12 months. This means that female migrants are either permanent migrants or migrants with duration of more than 12 months. One of the reasons behind this kind of result can be that female migrants are either the part of family/household migration or migrants due to marriage. As a result in both the cases of permanent and temporary migration with duration of stay more than 12 months, number of female migrants is noticeably higher than the number of male migrants.

Table 3.9 : Nature of Movement

West Bengal		Temporary with Duration of Stay		Permanent	All
		Less than 12 months	12 months or more		
Rural	Male	24	134	841	1000
	Female	0	21	979	1000
	Male + Female	2	30	967	1000
Urban	Male	3	202	795	1000
	Female	0	77	922	1000
	Male + Female	1	119	878	1000

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)

iv. Distribution (Per 1000) Of Migrants by Location of Last Usual Place of Residence for West Bengal

As observed in Table 3.10, females as migrants are more in number in case of relatively short distance where male migrants are more in relatively long distance migration.

Table 3.10 : Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Location of Last Usual Place of Residence for West Bengal

Last Usual Place of Residence									
West Bengal	Rural Areas of				Urban Areas of			Other Countries	All
	Same State		Other State	Same State		Other State			
	Same District	Other District		Same District	Other District				
Rural	Male	506	101	35	43	97	61	155	1000
	Female	754	168	18	30	12	4	12	1000
	Male + Female	733	162	20	31	20	9	24	1000
Urban	Male	84	183	223	170	218	71	49	1000
	Female	226	169	88	216	216	53	32	1000
	Male + Female	178	174	134	200	217	59	38	1000

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)

v. Distribution (per 1000) of Internal Migrants by the Types of Rural-Urban Migration Streams for West Bengal

Table 3.11 : Distribution (per1000) of Internal Migrants by the Types of Rural-urban Migration Stream for West Bengal

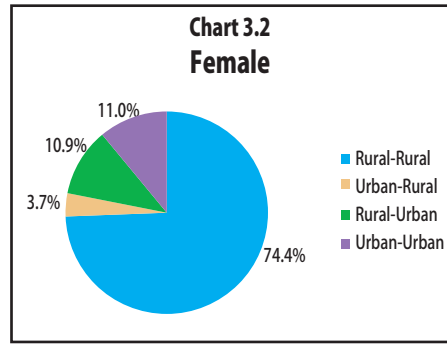
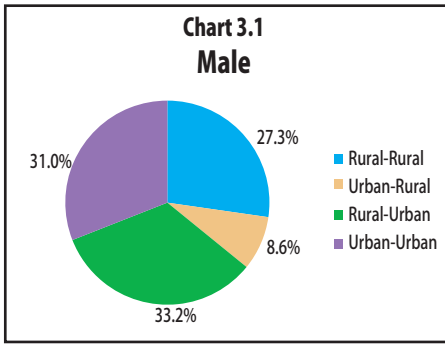
West Bengal	Migration Stream				
	Rural to Rural	Urban to Rural	Rural to Urban	Urban to Urban	All
Male	273	86	332	310	1000
Female	744	37	109	110	1000
Male + Female	674	44	142	139	1000

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)

Table 3.12 : Distribution (per1000) of Migrants by Reason for Migration for West Bengal

Reason for Migration								
West Bengal		Employment	Studies	Forced Migration	Marriage	Movement of parents or earning member	Others	All
Rural	Male	174	53	152	96	237	285	1000
	Female	2	4	5	920	37	23	1000
	Male +Female	17	8	18	850	54	47	1000
Urban	Male	485	44	20	16	236	200	1000
	Female	23	11	11	668	223	63	1000
	Male +Female	181	22	14	445	228	108	1000

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)



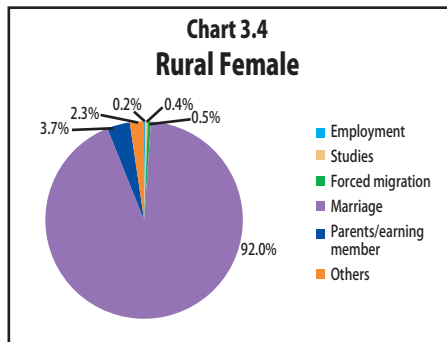
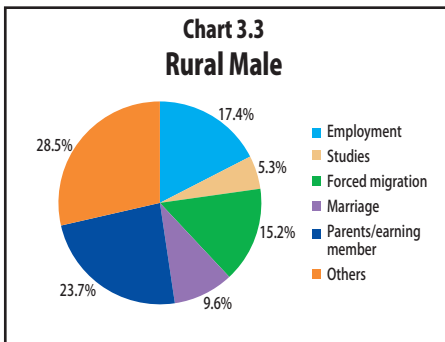
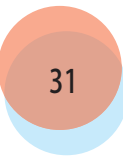
We can see from the above charts that in case of male the share of rural-urban migration is highest and in case of female the share of rural-rural migration is highest. This again shows that females are short distant migrants and males are more in number in long distant migrants.

vi. Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Reason for Migration for West Bengal

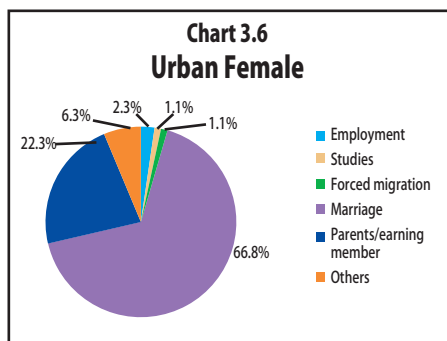
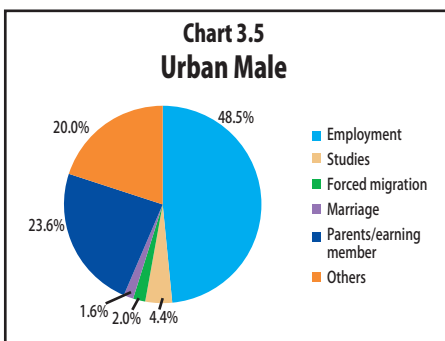
Table 3.12 and the following charts show the reasons of migration for male and females. It is observed that in case of the rural male two major reasons can be seen prominently – one is employment and the other is movement with the parents or with the earning member of the family but in case of the rural female we can see only one major reason behind migration i.e. marriage.

The major portion of male urban migrants is far from their residence due to employment related reason, where as in case of the urban females also we can see the same result as the rural females.

i.e. they are migrants due to marriage.



Reasons behind urban migration



vii. **Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by their usual principal activity status before and after migration for West Bengal**

Table 3.13 : Distribution (per1000) of Migrants by Their Usual Principal Activity Status before and after Migration for West Bengal

West Bengal		Usual Activity Status before Migration							Usual Activity Status after Migration						
		Self Employed	Regular wage/salaried	Casual Labour	Total Employed	Unemployed	Not in Labour force	All	Self Employed	Regular wage/salaried	Casual Labour	Total Employed	Unemployed	Not in Labour force	All
Rural	Male	241	72	220	533	38	427	1000	341	71	255	668	10	323	1000
	Female	19	2	27	49	2	946	1000	31	22	54	107	3	891	1000
	Male + Female	38	8	44	91	5	902	1000	57	26	71	155	3	842	1000
Urban	Male	148	204	83	435	197	368	1000	258	352	92	702	24	273	1000
	Female	20	17	8	45	8	945	1000	32	67	13	113	3	885	1000
	Male + Female	64	81	34	178	73	748	1000	110	164	41	314	10	676	1000

Source : 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008)

It is clear from Table 3.13 that the number of total employed after migration, no matter whether it is from rural or urban sector, male or female has increased significantly. This means that the employment opportunity after migration has increased. But a very important result can be seen from the above table that in case of rural sector after migration the number of casual labour has increased than other types of labour. This means a huge number of rural migrants employed themselves as casual labour after migration as they cannot manage to get regular wage/ salaried job after migration. In case of the urban sector the number of casual labour after migration has also increased but not very significantly. In comparison to the rural sector number of regular wage/salaried person after migration in the urban sector has increased more than the rural sector. The number of self-employed person increases among both rural and urban migrants. Lastly, if we compare male and female in both cases the labour force participation rate is much higher in males than females.

viii. **Number of Return Migrants (Per 1000) Migrants for West Bengal**

Table 3.14 : Number of Return Migrants (per 1000) Migrants for West Bengal

West Bengal	Male	Female	Male + Female
Rural	120	83	87
Urban	125	130	129
Rural+Urban	123	94	99

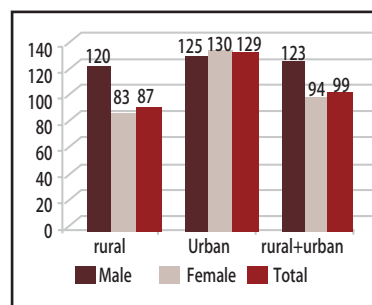
NSS Report No. 533 : Migration in India : July, 2007-June, 2008

If we analyze the data sector wise then we can see the number of return migrants in urban sector is more than that of the rural sector but if we analyze it gender wise as well we can see that in rural sector the number of male return migrants is more than the female migrants and in urban

sector the number of female return migrants is more than the number of male return migrants.

1.3 Seasonal Migration in West Bengal

A team of researchers working with Ben Rogaly studied different aspects of seasonal migration in West Bengal at the turn of the century. (Rogaly et al: 2004) Their focus was primarily on inter-district migration from poor parts of the state such as Puruliya and Bankura and Murshidabad to the more developed district of Bardhaman during the aman paddy season. This migration takes place in the context of paddy cultivation where the tribal population of Puruliya and Bankura migrate to Bardhaman to work as agricultural labourers. They have studied how the labour is recruited, the role of Krishak Sabha² in the process and the identity changes that took place as a consequence of this migration process. They noted:



Seasonal migration for rice work in Bardhaman, though liberating in some ways for some people for some of the time, is grueling and often degrading, and most people we spoke to would not do it if they had other economic choices. (p.307)

1.4 Child Labour and Crimes against Children in West Bengal

At present there is no study specifically on children and migration scenario in West Bengal. However some information is available on child labour and crimes against children. As migrant children are frequently also child workers and since such children are frequently victims of crime we may briefly note some of the data available on this. In a briefing paper by UNICEF (UNICEF: 2013) it has been noted that as per 2001 Census nearly 8.57 lakh (1 lakh = 100,000) children in the age group of 5-14 are child labours. The figure provided by the NSSO 66th round 2009-10 which is 5.5 lakh is somewhat less than the Census estimate, but it is still alarming.

West Bengal accounts for 11.07% of child labour in India. The situation regarding crimes against children (rape, kidnapping and abduction of children, abduction of minor girls for prostitution, abatement to suicide, exposure and abandonment, infanticide, foeticide) is also a matter of concern. The UNICEF document also says that there has been a "steep rise in incidence of such crimes from 2010." According to the Crime in India 2011 data, 45% cases of crimes against children fall in the category of kidnapping and abduction. In 2011 West Bengal stood at 10th position in the country in terms of crimes against children.

Section 2

Migration in Kolkata

Kolkata has been experiencing migration since its emergence as the capital of British colony in India. Migrants included not only people from neighbouring states like Bihar, Orissa and Assam but also from distant states like Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Kerala (after independence) and others. Even a large number of Chinese,

² Peasant wing of CPI-M.

Nepalese and other groups have been accommodated in the city. So far the most massive influx took place after the partition of the state in 1947 when more than 2.5 lakh new migrants arrived at the city. In 1948, the number increased to almost six lakh (ISS, 2007). According to 1971 census report, the migrants predominantly from Bangladesh had constituted 35 percent of city's population. In 2001, almost 30 percent of the city's population were migrants.

Being the only metropolitan city in the eastern India and with a large industrial base the city used to attract a huge migrant labour force from the whole of eastern India in the post independence period. However over the years the industrial status of Kolkata has deteriorated, as a result the migration in Kolkata has also come down significantly in the last two census decades.

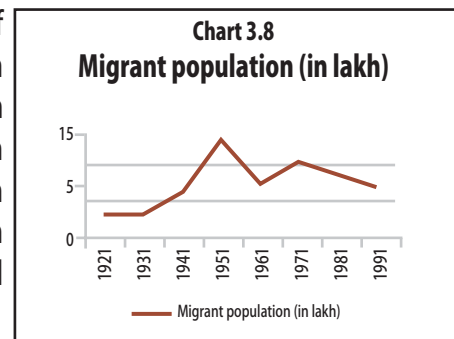
2.1 Migrants to Kolkata City during 1921-91

Table 3.15 : Migrants to Kolkata City during 1921-91

Year	Total population (in lakh)	Migrant population (in lakh)	Percentage of Migrants
1921	10.31	3.25	31.52
1931	10.41	3.57	31.29
1941	21.09	6.64	31.48
1951	25.49	13.45	52.76
1961	29.14	7.58	26.01
1971	31.36	10.62	33.86
1981	33.05	9.28	28.08
1991	33.80	7.12	21.06

Source : Census of India, 2001

As observed from Table 3.15, there was a huge influx of people during 1941-1951 due to partition of India, creation of two sovereign nations and communal tension in the then East Pakistan. Similarly, during 1961-71 the civil war in Pakistan and creation of Bangladesh led to an increase in migration to the city of Kolkata and its surrounding areas. In the other decades, however, the contribution of natural growth to the increase in city population has been greater.



2.2 Migrant Population in Kolkata Urban Agglomeration

Table 3.16 : Migrant Population in Kolkata Urban Agglomeration

Census Year	Migrants (in lakh)	% of migrants to total population
1971	35.89	45.10
1981	30.04	31.30
1991	26.18	23.98
2001	37.36	28.27

Source : ISS, Kolkata Development Report, 2007

As the concept of urban agglomeration was not introduced till 1971 we are considering the data of migration from 1971 to 2001 and comparing it with the previous table, i.e. number of migrants to the Kolkata city itself we can see that the percentage of migrant population to the total population is much higher in each year to the Kolkata urban agglomeration. But we can see a declining trend of migration from the year 1971 to 1991. Though in 2001 the percentage has increased, the new arrival mainly settled beyond the KMC boundary, which can be understood by the population growth rate in these areas.

2.3 Migrants By last Residence (for 0-9 years) into important UAs-2001

Table 3.17 : Migrants By last Residence (for 0-9 years) into Important UAs-2001

	Total Population (million)	Total Inmigrants (million)	% of Migrants to Total Population
India(urban)	286.12	36.48	12.7
Greater Mumbai(UA)	16.43	2.49	15.1
Delhi(UA)	12.88	2.11	16.4
Chennai(UA)	6.56	0.44	6.6
Kolkata(UA)	13.21	0.82	6.2
Hyderabad(UA)	5.74	0.50	8.7
Bangalore(UA)	5.70	0.76	13.4

Source : ISS, Kolkata Development Report, 2007

In comparison to the other UAs the percentage of migration to the total population in Kolkata is lowest. Which means Kolkata as a preferred destination by the migrants has gone down compared to the other metro cities of the country. Delhi and Mumbai still have largest percentage of migrants (16.4%, 15.1% respectively). New destinations are Bangalore and Hyderabad where percentage of migrants in last decades were 13.4% and 8.7% respectively. The growth of knowledge based industries in and around these two cities has attracted population from all over the country. In fact Hyderabad recorded the maximum migrant growth rate in the last decade (Table 3.17).

Table 3.18 and the chart reveal that the share of migrants from the other places of West Bengal is more in KUA than Kolkata city. In case of migrants from other states in India and from outside India the share of migrants to Kolkata is higher than the KUA.

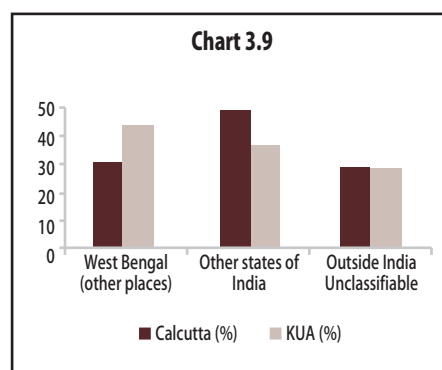
2.4 Migrant Population in Kolkata City & KUA Classified by Place of Last Residence

Table 3.18 : Migrant Population in Kolkata City & KUA Classified by Place of Last Residence

Place of Last Residence	Kolkata City	KUA
	Persons (%)	Persons (%)
West Bengal (other than Kolkata)	198853 (27.91)	1056254 (40.35)
Other States in India	326253 (45.78)	882136 (33.70)
Outside India	187291 (26.28)	678476 (25.92)
Unclassifiable	220 (0.03)	760 (0.03)
Total Migrants	712617 (100.00)	2617626 (100.00)

Source : Census 2001

Table 3.19 shows the total migrants in Kolkata and KUA according to the duration of residence. Almost 70% of migrants in Kolkata and more than 64% in KUA reside there for 10 years or more, 21% in Kolkata and 26% in KUA reside there for 1 to 9 years. Only around 1% has come to their present place of residence less than a year ago. No such variation has been found between male and female migrants in this respect.



2.5 Distribution of Migrants according to Duration of Residence in Kolkata City & KUA in 1991

Table 3.19 : Distribution of Migrants according to Duration of Residence in Kolkata City & KUA in 1991

Duration of Residence	Kolkata City			KUA		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Less than 1 year	3210 (0.75)	3230 (1.12)	6440 (0.9)	17050 (1.23)	17123 (1.38)	34173 (1.31)
1-4 years	41540 (9.77)	32370 (11.26)	73910 (10.37)	167744 (12.15)	176398 (14.27)	344142 (13.15)
5-9 years	47380 (11.15)	32340 (11.25)	79720 (11.19)	162790 (11.79)	173905 (14.07)	336695 (12.86)
10 years & above	298362 (70.19)	198664 (69.08)	479026 (69.75)	909478 (65.85)	778366 (62.95)	1687844 (64.48)
Period not stated	34561 (8.13)	20960 (7.29)	55521 (7.79)	124095 (8.98)	90677 (7.33)	214772 (8.2)
All duration	425053 (100)	287564 (100)	712617 (100)	1381157 (100)	1236469 (100)	2617626 (100)

Source : Census Of India, 2001

2.6 Distribution of Migrants According to Economic Activities in Kolkata City & KUA in 1991

Table 3.20 groups the migrant population according to the economic activities they pursue. Thus while in Kolkata 52% of the migrants are engaged in some kind of economic activity, the corresponding figure is 41% in KUA. Again in Kolkata maximum number of migrants, i.e. 13.3% of total are engaged in trade and commerce. In KUA, maximum proportion i.e. 14.8% is engaged in manufacturing and processing while 8.8% pursues trades & commerce. Another major activity is transport and storage where 7% of migrants in Kolkata & 4.4% in KUA are absorbed. It can also be observed that women constitute a very small percentage (only 9.27%) of work force among the migrant population in Kolkata city. They are primarily engaged in 'other activities' which does not clearly specify the type of work they usually do.

2.7 Vulnerability of Migrant Population in Kolkata

i. Access to entitlement

The majority of migrants in to the city are usually poor. They suffer from inadequacy of shelter, water, sanitation and other entitlement of life. A Civil Society Organisation named Right Track

carried out a survey of two squatter colonies in Kolkata and nearby Maheshtala in 2007 While the survey was not exclusively on migrant population, a substantial portion of those surveyed were migrants. According to this report the respondents in these squatter colonies were denied of several entitlements – (a) 43.8 per cent do not have

Table 3.20 : Distribution of Migrants according to Economic Activities in Kolkata City & KUA in 1991

Economic Activities	Kolkata City			KUA		
	Male	Female	Total (%)	Male	Female	Total (%)
1. Cultivator	220	10	230 (0.03)	1850	242	2092 (0.08)
2. Agricultural laborers	210	60	270 (0.04)	8909	1007	9916 (0.38)
3. Livestock, Forestry, Fishing Etc	2206	70	2276 (0.32)	9546	385	9931 (0.38)
4. Mining & Quarring	745	44	789 (0.11)	1578	76	1654 (0.06)
5. Manuf. & Process in H.H. industry	1682	151	1833 (0.26)	7821	1746	9567 (0.37)
6. Manuf & Process in O.T. HH ind	79848	2521	82369 (11.56)	373497	13513	387010 (14.78)
7. Construction	13452	397	13849 (1.94)	39987	1356	41343 (1.58)
8. Trade & Commerce	91896	2608	94504 (13.26)	223538	7066	230604 (8.81)
9. Transport & Storage	49476	1054	50530 (7.09)	112247	2719	114966 (4.39)
10. Other Services	95775	27294	123069 (17.27)	209321	62812	272133 (10.40)
Total migrant workers	335510	34209	370719 (52.02)	988294	99922	1079216 (41.23)
Non workers	89543	253355	341898 (47.98)	392863	114554 7	1538410 (58.77)
Total Migrants	425053	287564	712617	1381157	123646 9	2617626

Source : Census 2001

the Voter ID Card; (b) 43.4 per cent said that they do not have the Ration Card; (c) Only 37.8 per cent of those eligible for the BPL card actually possessed the cards; and (d) 67.8 per cent of the children did not have the cards necessary to get immunization benefits (Right Track: 2007).

ii. Proliferating Slums-Shelter and Living Environment for the Migrant Poor in the City

The migrants face the problem of shelter first after landing in the city. The poor people have to take shelter in the unauthorized encroachments or have to live on rent in the authorized slums in the city. The influx of refugees after the partition in 1947 led to the growth of several slums and refugee colonies in the city. In 1981, 30.30% of the city population lived in the slums.

According to Census 2001, the city's slum population was 1.49 million which accounts for 32.55% of the total population of the city. According to the KMC, in 2002, 1.52 million people lived in 5072 registered slums in 141 wards in KMC. According to the Census 2001 report Kolkata has the second highest percentage of slum population among the four metropolises - Chennai, Delhi, Kolkata and Mumbai. Mumbai has the highest percentage (48.87%). The percentage of slum dwellers is much less in Delhi and Chennai (ISS: 2007).

Table 3.21: First Four Cities According to Slum Population in 2001

Municipal Corporation	Total Population (in Lakh)	Slum Population (in Lakh)	% of Slum Population
Chennai	42.16	7.47	17.72
Delhi	98.17	18.55	18.89
Kolkata	45.80	14.90	32.53
Mumbai	119.14	58.23	48.87

Source : ISS, Kolkata Development Report, 2007 based on Census 2001

According to the recent figures of 2011 Census as well, Kolkata has the second highest slum population after Greater Mumbai among the four million plus cities in the country.

Table 3.22 : Percentage of Slum Population in Four Mega Cities in India in 2011

Cities	Percentage of Slum population
Greater Mumbai Municipal Corpn	41.3
Kolkata Municipal Corporation	29.6
Chennai Municipal Corporation	28.5
Delhi Municipal Corporation(Urban)	14.6

Source : Census of India 2011

However the important observation from Table 3.22 is that the slum population has come down in Kolkata from 32.55 per cent in 2001 to 29.6 per cent in 2011.

The living environment for the poor slum dwellers in Kolkata is appalling. The old slums which are registered by the KMC have undergone development activities in several phases undertaken by the KMDA and the KMC under different central and state sponsored projects. But the new slums which sprang up in encroached land are devoid of any civic amenities provided by the KMC. In addition there is a large number of pavement dwellers who are primarily migrants. According to a KMDA estimate there were 55000 pavement dwellers in Kolkata in early 1990s (ISS 2007). The surveys conducted from time to time by the KMC give a glimpse of the civic amenities that are available to the slum dwellers. The 2002 survey of the slums by KMC estimates the slum population of Kolkata as 16.75 lakh. The 2009 KMC survey shows the slum population has increased to 17 lakh of which 415916 or 24.46% are children.

These surveys give details about the civic amenities available in the slums which reflect on the living environment of the poor in Kolkata. Table 3.23 gives a glimpse of civic amenities available in slums in the city in 2002 and 2009. The surveys show that number of street lights has come

down in 2009 than that was available in 2002. The number of sanitary latrines also has come down in 2009. In fact the 2009 survey shows slums in Kolkata still have 13801 service latrines which were supposed to be eradicated long back under the Centrally sponsored Low Cost Sanitation Programme. The total number of water sources, however shows an increase in 2009 survey.

Table 3.23 : Civic Amenities in Kolkata Slums in 2002 and 2009

Basic Amenities	Types	2002	2009
Street Lights (no.)		29869	29482
Length of Roads (m.)	Total	1124424.9	
	Kachcha	81002	
	Others	1043422.7	
Latrine (no.)	Sanitary	103536	87686
Water Source (no.)	Total spot water sources	64175	66480
	Stand posts	49733	51263
	Dug wells	6665	7104
	Hand tube wells	7777	8122
Drain (m)	Unsewered pucca drains	211215.5	
	Unsewered kachcha drains	16023	

Source : Kolkata Municipal Corporation

2.10 Migrant Children in Kolkata

i. An Estimate

In 2001, there were 69986 migrant children in Kolkata which comprised seven percent of the total child population of the city of that year. The age group wise distribution shows that the proportion was the highest in the age group of 10 – 14 years followed by 5- 9 years and 0 – 4 years respectively. Almost half of the migrant children were in 10 – 14 years age group. This migration was male dominated as the sex ratio of the migrant children (807) was much lower than the sex ratio of the total child population (917) of the city in 2001. It is also interesting to observe that as the age group is increasing, sex ratio is decreasing may be because of in-migration of male child labour to Kolkata. The difference in sex ratio between 0-4 years and 5-9 years is 126 while that between 5-9 years and 10-14 years is 55 (Table 3.24).

Table 3.24 : Migrant Children in Kolkata 2001

Age Group	Person	Male	Female	Sex Ratio
0 – 4	13911	7205	6766	939
5 – 9	21507	11859	9648	813
10 – 14	34568	19661	14907	758
Total	69986	38725	31261	807

Source : Census of India. 2001

Children are migrating to Kolkata from other districts of West Bengal as well as from other states of the country. In 2001, 44.59 percent of the child migrants to the city were born in other districts of the state while almost 53 percent were born in other states. Among the inter – state migrants, more than half were born in Bihar (53.97%) followed by Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand and Orissa respectively. Inward migration also took place from most of the other states but at marginal rate. Only 2.65 percent of the child migrants were born in other countries. Several studies have indicated that most of the migrant families, settled in Kolkata belong to poor economic condition.

ii. Vulnerability of Migrant Children in Kolkata

There is no comprehensive study of vulnerability of migrant children in Kolkata city. However in 2004-05, Groupé Developpement, a French Civil Society Organisation, carried out a survey of children living in streets and railway platforms in West Bengal and Bangladesh (Groupé Developpement: 2006). One of the chapters of the report was on children living in Howrah and Sealdah railway stations of Kolkata. Children living in the platform were classified into three categories – (a) Children who stay on the platform at night and who live and eat in the platform; (b) children from the nearby catchment area who uses the platform to earn a living but do not spend the night in the platform; and (c) migrant children. The third category was further divided into two sub-categories – (i) Transit Children who use the station facilities but may or may not stay on the platform; (ii) Children of migrants who live within approximately 50 meters of the platform and stay for a particular period of time in the year. It was found that more than 90 per cent of the children were engaged in some kind of work or other. Majority of them collected materials from the trains (e.g. empty plastic bottles) while some worked with the porters and other staffs of the platforms and some were even involved in criminal activities. It was found that children could earn up to Rs 100/- per day by working in the stations. Those who were involved in criminal activities earned substantially more although their numbers were few.

In both the stations majority of the children had some connection with their parents. They also visited their homes and some even remitted money back home in case they were not living with their families in the catchment area of the stations. While there were several reasons for leaving home, it was found that domestic violence was an important push factor. However many did not suffer from domestic violence and left home for reasons that cannot be clearly understood. But the opportunity to earn money was an important pull factor.

It was also found in the survey that living conditions of the children in the platform was harsh although they managed to get food from various sources such as leftovers in the train and also used lavatories of the stations. Nearly 40% of the children in both stations reported that they were taken into police custody at least once. There were also complains of abuse by the police. The children were also harassed and underpaid by the porters, cart pullers, hawkers and shop keepers.

The children in both platforms were prone to various forms of substance abuse such as smoking, glue sniffing, and consumption of marijuana and country liquor. It was also reported that at least some of the children are sexually active. It was also found that some children, both boys and girls, were sexually abused.

In terms of civil society support to the children it was found that there are several CSOs working in both the railway platforms. While the CSOs did have a positive impact on the lives of children it was found that reintegration and mainstreaming of the children was a major challenge. The majority of the children still did not rely on CSO support but preferred to rely on their own peer group for daily survival. Many children became habituated to living in the stations and were not willing to shift completely to Homes like that of Don Bosco Ashalayam or willing to go back home. Some preferred to use the facilities of the CSOs, for example the night shelter, but were not willing to give up their life in the stations.

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Chapter 4

Migrant Children in Kolkata and Response of Non-governmental Organisations

The NGOs play a prominent role among the poor migrant children in Kolkata. Their action relates to health, education, child protection etc. for this vulnerable group. Some of their activities specifically cater to the migrant poor children in different locations like in slums, railway stations, or those who are living on the streets. A few of them are involved in implementing several government programmes that are available for these vulnerable groups. Others have their own intervention strategies and projects to implement at the local level. We had interactions with some of these Kolkata based NGOs who are very intensely involved in development activities among the poor children including migrant children in Kolkata. This chapter presents the activities and programmes of some of them based on review of their literature like project report, annual report etc. and interview with their officials and programme coordinators.

1. Child in Need Institute (CINI)

1.1 Background

Child In Need Institute is a NGO based in Kolkata. As its name suggests, it works for the children and also women. It has adopted a human rights based approach to carry out development work in the poor Indian communities. It aims at creating a friendly atmosphere for children and women where families, schools, police settings and other social and physical settings are committed to respect, protect and fulfill children's right to health, nutrition and education and protection from all forms of abuses and exploitations and violence. The children and women are also encouraged to take their own decision that could affect their life as they are the key right holders.

CINI also supports the primary duty bearers so that they can work towards fulfilling the children's right. Those are, in particular, communities, service providers and local elected representatives. The communities are mobilised by self help women's and children's groups to ensure that parents, schools, ICDS centres, health sub centres, police stations are working towards the children's good health, well being, education and protection from all ill practices that could be harmful for their full growth and development. CINI supports service providers like teachers, health personnel, social workers etc. and also monitors them to ensure that they provide quality health, nutrition, and protection services equitably and inclusively to all children living in the communities. Local elected representatives are encouraged to provide and ensure basic services to children and their mothers and also implement policies and budget for their best interest.

CINI ASHA, the urban unit of Child In Need Institute started its work in 1989 to work with the poor children in Kolkata. It works in slums in a few wards in Kolkata and on the platform of Sealdah Station with migrant children living in and around Sealdah Station.

The organisation's prime focus has been children and it has endeavored to "improve the quality of life of the urban disadvantaged children and protect the rights of the child through education, health and social mobilization".

Children falling under the high risk category such as children living on the streets and pavements, children in red light areas and child laborers are the main target groups. Various strategies have been adopted to reach out to the above target group, such as through the Drop In Centres, Night Shelters, Half-Way-Houses, Sick Bay, HELPLINE, HIV-AIDS awareness programme, Preparatory centres, Shikshalayas, Coaching centres, and Residential/non-residential education camps.

In an effort to ensuring protection to children from any kind of abuse, CINI ASHA has tried to create a child friendly environment within its set-up for the children especially with no family contact or occasional family contact.

1.2 Focus Areas

The main intervention areas of CINI are education, child protection and health and nutrition.

i. Education

Education is one of the basic rights of a child. CINI believes that children who go to school are not only getting empowered with knowledge but also tend to be more protected from abuse

and exploitation. It supports the right to education bill, 2009, and aims to achieve universal enrollment, increasing social retention and improving the quality of education. It is concerned with the deprived children who are denied access to education due to traditional or social barriers such as caste, poverty, gender or ability. The NGO identify the dropped out and out of school children or at risk of leaving it and motivate them, their parents and teachers to get them back in the school. The NGO get associated with the school authorities and local governing bodies to map out-of-school children to motivate them to be back to school and their retention in the school. The NGO promotes the creation of child friendly school by upgrading school the school environments, building separate toilets for boys and girls and introducing education methodologies which are child centered.

To ensure retention of children in schools, CINI provides extra tutorial classes after school in school premises or in local clubs. The dropped out children are provided with needed tuition classes so that he or she can catch up with the courses when enrolled in a formal school at an age appropriate class. The parents of the children are motivated by the CINI workers to get their children enrolled in a formal school and make them understand their importance, benefits of elementary education which in long term will outweigh the regular wage the children earn.

The children above 14 years of age are also given vocational training. Interested children are helped to pursue higher education after class X.

ii. **Child Protection**

Protection is one of the main focus areas of intervention for this agency. The children are often victims of abuse, violence, exploitations within their families and communities. Child labour and child trafficking are the issues that need to be addressed with serious concern. CINI is working for the children living on streets, run away and missing children, those at risk of early marriage, out of school or victims of other forms of violence for the last 2 decades. It runs a 24 hours help line 1098 which is for the children under the high risk category such as children living on the streets and pavements, children in red light areas and child labours. They provide temporary shelters to the abused and run-away children for 3-4 months and try to have a conversation with their parents and after ensuring a happy and safe childhood they send the children back to their houses. If CINI finds it otherwise they send the children to Government. organizations. They also provide shelter to the adolescent girl child at night in their different drop in centres.

iii. **Health and Nutrition**

Health and Nutrition is one of the most important concerns for CINI. They promote awareness about institutional deliveries, pre and post natal care. They identify pregnant women and make them aware other health oriented facilities. It runs 1000 days programme for babies of pre natal stage to 2 years where proper health care are given to mother and the child. The children come under the ICDS scheme after 2 years and are covered till 5 years of age.

1.4. **Projects**

- i. **Shikshalaya Prkalpa and mid-day meal** : The objectives of this project is to provide education to children in the age group of 5-9 years as per government school curriculum, to mainstream

the children into formal schools, to ensure basic level of nutrition of the children and All round development of children. The project is run by CINI ASHA division of the NGO. It covers 1412 children of KMC wards 56, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65 and 66. It is under Sarva Siksha Abhiyan.

- ii. **Towards eliminating child labour in Calcutta :** The objective of the project is to wean away children from work into schools in selected area of Calcutta city, in order to contribute towards making the area Child Labour free, To prevent further entry of children into work in the area and to Develop and nurture individuals, groups and grass root organizations in the locality who will sustain the present effort and motivate children to discontinue work and enable them to go to school while preventing further entry of children into the local work force and also develop backup services for the children admitted into formal school in the form of coaching centre. It is under NCLP scheme. It covers 300-450 children. CINI runs 9 study centres in Kolkata. The project is running since 1999.
- iii. **Child line 1098 :** Child line is a national, 24-hour, free emergency telephone helpline and outreach service for children in need of care and protection. It aims to reach out to all children in distress aged 0-18 years. CHILDLINE provides interventions of shelter, medical, restoration, rescue, sponsorships and emotional support and guidance and linking them to long-term services. CHILDLINE is a project of Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India which is funded through CHILDLINE India Foundation.

1.5. Focus on Migrant Children : Railway Children Project of CINI Asha

i. The Beginning

It was in the late 80s of the last century. CINI had already completed a decade of work on child malnutrition with deprived rural communities on the fringes of Kolkata and felt the need to work with these children in and around the Sealdah station. The felt need got a boost with the arrival of Edith Wilkins, a volunteer from GOAL Ireland, one of the funding agencies of CINI, in 1989. She accompanied by a group of CINI workers started spending time at the Sealdah station. An elderly person used to distribute food among the platform and street children near the station almost daily. The CINI personnel would sit with him and had started a dialogue with the children who used to turn up. They also undertook an informal survey to have a comprehensive knowledge on the condition of the children living in and around the Sealdah station. This was not taken well by those who were using these children as easy source of extra earning.. Among this vested group were drug peddlers to whom these children were 'safe' carriers of drug. There were even hostile and violent reactions from this group. However in the then DRM of the Sealdah the CINI workers found a supportive hand. He allowed them to use a shed, an abandoned Signalman's Cabin-- at the end of Platform No. 10 at Sealdah South terminal station for the purpose. He also installed a ceiling fan there and also cautioned the CINI workers about the challenges ahead. This shed had given the children a place where they could come to seek help in times of need. Lockers system was also introduced in that 'office' space where the children could keep their material possessions. This helped the CINI personnel to earn the trust of these children. These platform & street children had enormous attachments to the material belongings they were having. And the children, thus, began helping the CINI personnel in contacting their peers. The close interactions with these children also revealed the extent of abuse and trauma

they faced. There were instances of CINI workers running from one hospital to another with children suffering from venereal diseases. Quite a number of children had to be removed from the Sealdah environment and given a chance to recover.

The intervention was named as 'Protecting the Rights of Children at the Sealdah Station (Kolkata, India)'. Funded by GOAL, Ireland, the programme sought to address multiple needs of children living in and around the Sealdah station. In the initial phase (1989-1993) the programme was carried out under the general banner of CINI. However it came under CINI Asha when in 1993 CINI formally put all its activities on the urban sector under one unit and it was named CINI ASHA (Association for Street Children's Health and Aspiration).

ii. **The Approach of Railway Children Project :**

In the initial phase the CINI workers had to innovate constantly ways and means to figure out techniques of retaining the attention of these highly individualistic and unpredictable children. Various games and activities were introduced. There were educational inputs too. Emphasis was on using what was familiar and would be useful to them. However there was no forcible retention of the children at the centre. The atmosphere was flexible and children could come and go as they wished. The children, thus, would rush off when a train entered in to collect the left over and then troop back in the class later. This sense of flexibility and space enabled the children to trust their 'uncles' and 'aunties'.

Since February 1991 the centre began to function as a night shelter. The children were asked to give Rs 1 and in return they could have night meal and stay at the centre. The children were getting their day meal at the Loreto School, Sealdah. However the strong territorial and group codes had prevented the platform children of the Sealdah North (platform 1-9) to join their brethren at platform 10 of Sealdah South. To cope with the problem CINI had to open another centre on platform 8. It was functioning in the open.

iii. **Growing Band of Stakeholders :**

It was around this time CINI found a very strong supporter of their mission in the 'Eastern Railways Wives Association. Led by the wife (a teacher by profession) of the DRM at that point of time, the association's open and strong support to programmes of CINI with the platform children helped CINI to build the bridge with other three important stakeholders: the railway authority at Sealdah, GRP and the RPF. The Eastern Railway Men's Congress Union too stepped in and provided a space next to its own office and the centre functioning on platform 8 moved to that space. The Railway Hawkers' Union also lent its support to the initiative.

iv. **Partnership with Railway Children, UK :**

Since 1996 the Railway Children (RC), UK, an international voluntary organization (for street children worldwide) has started providing support to some specific component of the intervention activities of CINI ASHA for the platform children of Sealdah. And over time RC has become a key partner of CINI ASHA. The components of Railway Children programme of CINI ASHA at Sealdah comprise the following:

- (i) Drop-in centres and night shelters at Sealdah North & South Stations;

- (ii) Transit home near Sealdah Station;
- (iii) Outreach booth at the station;
- (iv) Home placement programme alongside referrals to other organizations and boarding schools; and
- (v) Networking with the RPF at the station for a coordinated effort with other NGOs to make Sealdah a child friendly station.

iv. Association with CHILDLINE :

In 1999 CINI ASHA joined CHILDLINE, a select group of organizations in a national programme for helping children in distress.

v. Composition of the Platform Children at Sealdah

A study conducted by CINI Asha in collaboration with another NGO named SATHI among the platform children in Sealdah station revealed that mobile category constituted the single majority of the total platform children (39%). The key group (at 20%) was children who had lived on the station for more than 6 months and did not have a family. The rest comprised the fresh children, new children and old children with family. CINI ASHA thus modified its programme approaches for interventions in the following manner:

No.	Category	Description	Approach
1	Fresh Children	Who have arrived within last 1-3 days	Refer to CHILDLINE or facilitate reunification within 7 days of contact
2	New Children	Who have been on platform form 4 days to 1 month	As above, additionally use home placement camp activity if needed
3	Mobile Children	Who commute to Sealdah station on daily, weekly or monthly basis	Focus on sensitizing them about the Sealdah environment and child protection issues and services
4	Old Children with Family	Who have been on the station from 2-6 months and have a family living in/ around station	If parents/guardians agree, keep the children at the centres and facilitate placement in the supportive organization
5	Old Children without Family	Who have been on the station from 2-6 months and do not have a family living in/around the station	Facilitate placement in a supportive organization, additionally use home placement camp activity if needed

Another observation that the CINI ASHA personnel have on the platform children of Sealdah is that about 70% of them come from poor Muslim families. This confirms another general socio-economic observation that the Muslims are poorer among the poor.

vi. Present Scenario

Infrastructure : CINI ASHA's office cum transit home for the platform children at the Sealdah station had change of places many times due to change of guard in the DRM Sealdah. Once they were even evicted too. But with the enactment of the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000, to look after the children living in and around railway stations has become a part of the normal duties of the Indian Railway and things started to tilt in favour of CINI ASHA to some extent. The DRM office, Sealdah has to submit a report on its platform children related activities each year to the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights (NCPCR). And for this the help of CINI ASHA is of high value to DRM Sealdah.

Presently CINI ASHA runs two transit homes (Drop in Centre and Night Shelter) a Child Assistance Booth at the Sealdah station. The two transit homes, called Udaan and Uttaran, are located at a place adjacent to the Sealdah Car Shed (near Railway Bridge No. 1 and Parcel Main Gate, Canal Road). The Child Assistance Booth is located at the entry point of platform no. 5 and just on the left of GRP booth. The organization was allowed by the Indian Railway Authority to use these spaces since 2000. While the infrastructures (buildings with electricity, water connections and sanitation facilities etc.) of the two transit homes cum night shelters were leased out to CINI ASHA on a very nominal lease fee, the Child Assistance Booth has no such lease attachment. The railway runs a 24 hour public address service through mike to place any lonely child found at any of the platforms of the station to refer to the Child Assistance Booth run by CINI ASHA. All the stakeholders, direct or indirect—RPF, railway hawkers, railway workers, shop owners at station, daily commuters and families living in and around station are aware of the CINI ASHA's Child Assistance Booth at platform No. 5. This Child Assistance Booth reaches about 1500 children each year. CINI ASHA has deployed about 18 trained workers to man the Railway Children project at Sealdah station. They include teachers, counselors and instructors who work, in rotation, for 24 hours a day.

Modus Operandi : CINI ASHA approaches its activities on the platform children of Sealdah in two ways – (i) Center-based and (ii) out-reach.

- (i) **Centre-based :** CINI ASHA runs two transit homes, viz., Udaan and Uttaran within the Sealdah station compound itself. In Udaan it keeps about 25 runaway and abandoned children who are 10-16 years of age. Uttaran houses the children of the age of 5-9 years. It is to be noted, however, that the inmates of both these transit homes are all boys. CINI ASHA has no provision to keep girls at these transit homes. It hands over the runaway and abandoned girls found at the station, if any, to CWC (Child Welfare Council) of Gol. CINI ASHA keeps only the Bhalo Chheles (good boys) in its transit homes. The Bhalo Chheles are those who have no drug taking habit. CINI ASHA lacks the complex infrastructure required to handle the drug addicts among children. It refers drug addicts among children as Kharap Chheles (bad boys). Like the girls, the Kharap Chheles among the runaway and abandoned children are also handed over to the CWC who in turn send them to the homes run by government and NGOs with adequate infrastructure to handle drug addicts.

Both of these transit homes, viz., Udaan and Uttaran are run in accordance to the Juvenile Justice Act 1986. The in-house activities, like taking classes etc., of these homes are conducted usually

under lock and key. However the inmates play outdoor games like cricket in the open space in front of the homes under the watchful eyes of the CINI ASHA personnel.

The inmates of both the homes share their food (breakfast, lunch, evening snacks and dinner) from the same kitchen situated at Udaan.

The inmates of Udaan and Uttaran also go through various periodic recreational and other necessary exposures and medical checkup etc.

- **Counseling** : Each inmate of Udaan and Uttaran goes through counseling session once a week. Conducted on both individual and group basis these counseling sessions are conducted by trained professionals.
- **Health checkups** : done on weekly basis and also as and when necessary.
- **Periodic Excursions** : The inmates of Udaan and Uttaran are taken to various recreational and educational excursions to places like Nikko Park, Zoo etc.
- **Child Health Volunteers (“Junior Doktor”) Initiative** : CINI ASHA has developed an innovative model of Child Health Volunteers (CHV). These volunteers are popularly referred to as “Junior Doktor” by other stakeholders of the RC programme station. Under this programme some of the children are trained in basic first-aid and given white aprons to wear when they go to the field in Sealdah Station. These aprons have “Shishu Shyastha Sekab” (Child Health Volunteer) inscriptions on their back. The programme has approval of the railway authorities and therefore when they visit the station they are protected by the RPF & GRP. The CHVs accompanied by at least two CINI ASHA personnel go on rounds of the Sealdah station four times a week and primarily provide first aid to children living in and around Sealdah station. They also inform children (and adults) about hospitals and other services (including CINI ASHA sick bay) that they can access. They also tell their peers living in station about the life they are living at Udaan and Uttaran.



Child Health Volunteers

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Each month 10 children each from Udaan and Uttaran are given training in basic first aid. An assessment takes place at the completion of the training and 5 toppers each from both Udaan and Uttaran are made CHVs for a month. They are also given a first-aid kit. The CHVs work in groups under a group leader. These groups and leaders are changed every month. Those who come first in the training programme are given awards like candies, pens etc.

According to the CHVs interviewed there are two kinds of children in the station – “Bhalo” (good) and “Kharap” (bad). The bad children are those who are already heavily into addiction of various forms. They try to motivate the good children to come to the CINI ASHA centre. Those who have wounds in their body are treated by the CHVs with their first aid kit. More serious cases are referred to Child Line.

During their street-life these children do acquire many bad and un-child like habits and practices, including homosexual practices, add the CINI ASHA personnel, the ISS research team members have met. To them (boys aged above 10 years) homosexual practices are just recreation and nothing else.” This is one of the main reasons of keeping the under-10 children separately.

On an average an inmate is kept in any of the two transit homes for a period of three month at a stretch. Thereafter he is either reunited with his family or is placed (of course with the consent of parents/guardians) in any other supportive home or organization run either by government or NGO for their further development like gong for general education or vocational training.

- (i) **Out-reach :** The Out-reach or outdoor activities of CINI ASHA in relation to platform children are of many folds: (a) Running of the Child Assistance Booth at Sealdah station, (b) Counseling with the parents of the inmates of Udaan and Uttaran, (c) Finding out native residences of the transit homes inmates, (d) Maintaining liaison with all important stakeholders, viz., DRM, FPF & GRP, Railway workers’ Union, Railway Hawkers, Stall owners, mothers’ group (of families living in and around station), (e) Conducting workshops, seminars etc. with the stakeholders to enlighten them about changes and development in legislations about street children and women and (f) family unification or placement of the platform children to various supportive organizations and homes.

CINI ASHA’s out-reach activity also has another important component: sensitizing the local self governments of rural areas like Mallikpur in South 24 Parganas which lies in close proximity to Kolkata. These semi-urban rural areas which lie at a 30-40 minutes distance by train from Sealdah are the major suppliers of platform children of Sealdah station. The families from which they come from are originally from the remotest areas of the South 24 Parganas district, particularly the localities of the Sundarbans. Such families prefer cheap rented accommodations available in these areas to pursue income generating activities (unskilled day labourers, cycle rickshaw pulling and maid servant etc.) in and around Kolkata. Another important finding about such families is that they are very prone to change their rented accommodations. This characteristic of such families make it difficult for the CINI ASHA workers to locate the family of the platform children under their charge.

The objective of CINI ASHA's programme of sensitizing the local self governments of these semi-urban rural areas is to facilitate local stakeholders (Panchayat members, AWWs etc.) in converging their resources and acting together in order to reduce the number of runaway children and develop a safety net for vulnerable.

vii. Achievements

Innumerable number of children living in and around Sealdah Station had come into contact with and received necessary support at the Sealdah programme of CINI ASHA since its inception. The following table(Table 4.1) taken from a CINI publication 'Building on Belief and Hope' provides a glimpse of achievements of the Sealdah programme of CINI ASHA for 4 years during 2006-2010.

Table 4.1: Achievement of Sealdah Railway Children Project of CINI-ASHA

Intervention	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10
Number of children contacted through outreach services	822	1685	1586	1605
Number of children accessed shelter service (at the centres)	527	575	762	483
Number of children reunified with family	36	55	69	98

Number of children referred to supportive organizations for shelter and education: approx 200

Number of children coming to the child assistance booth or being referred to by adults at the station : 1757 (March 2008-Dec 2010)

Source : CINI-ASHA

viii. Ultimate Goal

The ultimate goal of CINI ASHA's platform children programme as it mentions, is to make the Sealdah station a child and women friendly station where children can move around safely without fear of abuse and exploitation and where they can access sources of relevant information and can act on their rights and entitlements.

2. Don Bosco Ashalayam (DBA)

2.1 Background

Don Bosco Ashalayam (DBA) is a non – government organization (NGO), working with the street and destitute children since 1985. Father Anthony was the founder of this organisation. At first he used to visit the street children and talk to them to know their physical and mental condition as their life was not same as others. DBA started working with 15 children, but in the past 25 years it has helped thousands of children for restoration and rehabilitation. BDA is one of the few organizations which are working specifically with the street children who are primarily independent migrants. The vision of DBA is to build a child friendly society that owns up and offers sufficient possibilities for all its children to grow to full potential with rights and responsibilities and become agents of social harmony.

Main **aim** of the organization is to ensure

family reunification - to return the street children to their family or natural habitat.

homing – For those who are totally orphan and those who do not want to go back home, Ashalayam takes their responsibility by giving food and shelter and work for their rehabilitation.

The six steps that DBA follows towards rehabilitation of the children are as follows:

1.	Street Presence : an adult presence with the young as a support in their adventurous life, constantly offering socially acceptable possibilities.
2.	Weaning : accompaniment Restoration or A Foster Care Home.
3.	Grooming : helps to imbibe socially accepted life style and practices.
4.	Training : working towards self-reliance through academic/vocational training possibilities and become a contributing member of the society.
5.	Saving : one becomes a responsible adult by earning, spending and saving.
6.	Homing : Restoration to one's own family or help to buy a plot of land and build a house with a matching contribution arranged by Ashalayam.

2.2 Projects

2.2.1 Railway Children Project of DBA at Haora Railway Station

i. Project Background

DBA has a long experience of working with the children roaming around railway stations. Since 2009, it started partnership with Railway Children in India (RCI) at Haora station. Haora station is an important junction connected to all over India by rail route, so children from different states who leave their homes reach here, in maximum cases unknowingly. Ashalayam first raised the project proposal for the rehabilitation of railway children and it was accepted by R.C.I. The focus is on early intervention to help these children for restoration and rehabilitation.

The activities of the project are designed by keeping conformity to the National Charter for Children, 2003 announced by the Government of India in accordance with the constitutional provisions.

- Assuring Basic Minimum needs and security.
- Play and leisure
- Free and compulsory education
- Early childhood care for survival, growth and development
- Protection from economic exploitation and all forms of abuse
- Right to protect against neglect, maltreatment, injury, trafficking, corporal punishment, etc.
- Empowering adolescents
- Equality

- Freedom of association and peaceful assembly.
- Freedom of expression, freedom to seek and receive information
- Strengthening family

ii. Facilities Provided under the Project

- a. **Drop in Centre** – There is a Drop in Centre (DIC) at Haora station running in collaboration with the Railway Authorities and GRP which works as the reception centre for the roaming and working children. It is popularly known as “Majar Bari” (House of Fun). The DIC provides basic and functional literacy to the youngsters using joyful learning method. In 2012 – 13, total daily street / station contact was made with 2393 children. From June 2012 to May 2013, 434 children in Haora Station and catchment areas were rescued from exploitative and hazardous conditions and provided several other options to lead a better and happy life.

The main activities of the DIC are:

- **Bringing new children to the DIC** – If the outreach workers notice any new child in the platform, they bring them to the DIC so that they do not become victims of different social evils.
 - **Counseling of the children** – the children who visit the DIC suffer from different mental problems and need counseling. The three counselors of DBA come to the DIC from Tuesday to Thursday and try to convince them to go back to the normal life.
 - **Providing non formal education** – DBA provides these children education in the non formal way which they call ‘learning with fun’. According to the DBA staff, when the children first come to the DIC, they use many slang words. DBA first tries to teach them to speak in good language. After that, they teach the children letters, numbers, tables etc. They also teach them drawing, paper cutting etc. The whole process is non formal so that the children enjoy learning. Teaching discipline is also an important activity of the project staff. Two DIC Educators visit the DIC on daily basis.
 - **Providing food** – everyday from Monday to Saturday, children visiting the DIC are provided lunch either with fish or with chicken.
- b. **Night Shelter/Open Shelter** – It welcomes any child who wants to be away from the station or street at any point of time. All his basic necessities are met with a possibility of mainstreaming. There are three night shelters Asha Protik (for boys) Asha Karunmoyee (for Girls) and Childline Shelter. During 2012 – 13, the average number of children staying in Asha Protik. Asha Korumamoyee and Childline Shelter per month were 46, 16 and 21 respectively. In the initial stage, children like to stay in the open shelter because they have the urge to go back to the station where they can earn some money easily which can fulfill their need for addition like drugs, dendrite, tablet, heroine etc.
- c. **Re-unification with Family** – After the Child is brought to the DIC or night shelter, DBA makes contact with his / her family and tries to send the child back home. In 2012 – 13, 104

children were restored back to their biological families, 98 of them were boys and 6 were girls. 104 children were followed up and 56 of them were found at home.

- d. **Foster Care Home** – DBA has 24 foster care homes in the four units of Haora, Kolkata, Bhattanagar and Kalyani where children from stations are sheltered after staying at night shelters. The daily routine devised with the participation of sheltered children includes activities like going to school and coming back, play time, study hours, tuitions, watching television and personal time for bathing, grooming etc. Total 63 children were placed in DBA home under RC project while 14 children were referred to other homes.
- e. **Vocational Training Centre** - According to DBA for a child from the street (including station) initially education and vocational training become a means to wean them from street life. Eventually a choice is made for formal education or non-formal education as per their age, aptitude and interest. They also have marginalized youth coming to the centers to learn a trade for self reliance. They learn various skills in the Don Bosco Ashalayam’s Vocational Training Centers in Kadamtala, Pilkhana and Kalyani. In Table 4.2, total number of children enrolled into different vocational training in 2012 – 13 is given.

Table 4.2 : Number of Children Enrolled in the Vocational Training Centre of DBA

Vocational Training	Boys	Girls	Total
Art & Craft	20	*	20
Book Binding & Screen Printing	04	*	04
Carpentry	06	*	06
Bakery	06	*	06
Welding	03	*	03
Knitting	*	12	12
Tailoring	06	25	31

- f. **De – addiction Camp** - DBA tries to send the children to the de-addiction camp at Kalyani which takes place for one week. One child gets chance to take part in the camp for 3 / 4 times.
- g. **Providing Tuitions** - Children willing to stay at DBA home are sent to different schools. Regular assistance by way of tuitions is provided in the Homes. But those who refuse to go to school are prepared for formal schooling in the Residential Bridge Schools located in Bhattanagar and Kalyani. This course grooms them for formal education in schools.



Some inmates of Don Bosco Ashalayam receiving practical training in bakery

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- h. **Medical Services** - Medical assistance is provided in the infirmary located in each of the four units and if needed they are also taken to hospitals. Good nutritious food is provided for the

daily meals. Out of the 776 needy children who were provided with medical care during the last 12 months 751 were boys and 25 were girls.

- i. **Placement Cell** – The placement cell helps the job trained to get into the job market. Those who are absolute destitute are helped to procure a plot of land, build a house and assisted during their marriage. In 2012 – 13, total 64 children have been placed in different places the detail of which is given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 : Number of Persons Placed in Different Occupations in 2012–13

Sector	Number of Persons Placed
Placed in jobs	33
Self employed	1
Land and House Building	4
Marriage	4
On Job Training	22
Total	64

iii. Stakeholders

The two main stakeholders of the project are the Ministry of Women and Child Development, government of India and Department of Women and Child Development, government of West Bengal and also the Ministry of Railway. But in the execution of the project, DBA needs to interact with many other stakeholders listed below and seek their support and cooperation.

- Railway Protection Force
- Government Railway Police
- Special Juvenile Police Unit
- Local Police
- Juvenile Justice Board
- Child Welfare Committee
- Railway authorities
- Older boys at the platform
- Other NGOs
- Local community members
- Coolie/ Vendors
- Labour union leaders

iv. Impact of the Haora Railway Station Project

The project has been able to create a positive impact on the platform children to some extent.

- The DIC has been able to teach the children good manners. We also observed them to speak in good language and practice good conduct like receiving ISS team at the DIC, attending prayer etc.
- Some children are staying at foster care home and undergoing vocational training. We visited the training centre and observed the children attending training on book binding, printing, bakery etc. Some of them have been brought there from Haora Station. Some are also attending school. After passing the school level examination, people are going for job oriented course like hotel management.
- In the earlier section, it has been discussed that some children have been placed in different jobs. We got detailed information of 29 youngsters who have been placed in 2012 – 2013. Out of them, six are working as welders, four are working in bakery, eight are machine operators, one is cook and one is working in a hotel, three are gate keepers, two are working at call centres and three are self employed. One girl completed the nursing training course in Krishnanagar and presently working at Woodland Hospital in Kolkata. Some have gone back home while others have been settled by DBA. All of them have gone back to normal life.

v. Problems faced by Don Bosco Ashalayam

DBA is facing many problems from many corners in doing this job which came out from the discussions with the project staff.

- a) Don Bosco Ashalayam is not registered under Juvenile Justice (JJ) Act so, sometimes they face false allegation from Child Welfare Committee (CWC). There are certain rules and norms under the act which do not match with DBA's work approach. According to the JJ Act it is compulsory to keep the children under lock and key within the premises of the home and there should be a gate keeper to observe whether any child is going out but the approach of DBA is totally different. They want to give the children a free atmosphere so that the children will stay at the Ashalayam home willingly, not by any compulsion. They believe that no child is criminal who needs restricted movement under the lock and key. Due to this reason, CWC does not send any child to DBA home.
- b) Sometimes, DBA faces false allegation of using the children for begging, giving for adoption etc. Once two Muslim children were missing for one week from night shelter of DBA and it was very difficult to track them. Their parents came and raised allegation of child trafficking and conversion. A case was also filed against DBA but ultimately DBA was proved non - guilty.

As a solution of the problem, DBA has taken an alternative way. After the child is brought to the DBA home, DBA personnel visit child's home and let his /her parent understand the importance of staying there. If the parents realize, they give a written consent to Ashalayam with an approval of the local councilor (in urban area) or panchayat pradhan (in rural area).

- c) Another important problem faced by DBA is the want of identity proof. According to the person – in – charge of the placement cell, after the completion of study and vocational training, when the candidate is going to get a job, the employing authority asks for a generally accepted identity proof of him/her like voter ID card, ration card etc. which the candidate cannot place in most cases. The home authority can take care of the child and give all support for his / her up - bringing but cannot provide any identity proof. In many cases, the employing authority refuses to recruit the candidate without any such proof.
- d) The DIC educators at Haora Station face the following problems:
- There is no fixed number of children who visit the DIC at a certain point of time. After visiting the DIC for a few days, some children leave Haora station and go to some other stations. So continuity to teach the children some activities and bring them in a normal scale is disrupted.
 - Initially police also created problem. It was also very difficult to convince the railway authority about the importance of this project. Now they can understand and have provided room for running the DIC.
 - There is no source of drinking water near the DIC. DBA has repeatedly requested to the railway authority of Haora station to allow DBA for setting up a water tap but the latter not yet gave permission for this.
 - Sexual activity among the children has increased very much and it is taking place both in intra and inter gender term. It is very difficult to protect the girl children from this problem. Often they are lured by taxi drivers, van pullers etc. even for a payment of as low an amount as Rs. 50. Recently a girl became pregnant as a result of sexual activity.

2.2.2 Other Programmes of Don Bosco Ashalayam

SCRCP (Street Children Rehabilitation Project) : The Street Child Rehabilitation project is sponsored by the Government of Luxembourg and Groupe Developpement. The objective being to ensure prevention by empowering and to offer socially accepted alternatives to children who live in street corners.

Child Care Research Institute : It organizes the documentation and research activities whenever required for quality improvement. Various seminars, workshops are organized for children, staff and others. Students from all over the world access the center for their field training and research.

3. Right Track

3.1 Background

Right Track is a community based development agency which works to improve the quality of life of the disadvantaged children in Kolkata and South 24 Parganas since 1988. Initially the NGO used to work on issues like fight against black marketing, alcoholism and settling internal disputes of dock and port area of South West Kolkata. After the registration of the NGO in 1991, it started working on issues like education, health and livelihood generation. It has set a goal to free the society from all

forms of deprivations and discrimination by ensuring an equitable social, political, economical and cultural order, where individuals especially women and children have access to live with dignity. To attain their goal they have set up some objectives which are given below-

- To provide the basic services- Education, Health, Vocational Training, Recreation and Environment for Growth and Development.
- To create awareness among the disadvantaged section of the society regarding their social, economic and cultural predicament.
- To make them aware about their rights and duties by which they can utilize their resources more productively.
- To facilitate process towards building up of a just and equitable civil society through collective action, participation and community based initiatives.
- To make linkages with various Community Based Organization (CBOs) for effective implementation at grass root level.

The core intervention areas of Right Track are education, health, child protection, women empowerment, right to livelihood and entitlement, vocational training, and environment consciousness. It works for the vulnerable women and children in the de-notified slums and settlements in Kolkata Municipal Corporation area and Mahestala Municipality under South 24 Parganas.

The ongoing projects in the KMC area (wards 78, 79, 80, 83, 95, 96, 97,102) are – street to school, creating opportunities for working children (child domestic labours both live-in and non live-in), Ensuring rights of Children and Women in urban areas.

The NGO Right Tracks works with other renowned Government and Non-Government organizations such as Action Aid, GOAL India, Save the Children- Balraksha Bharat, UNICEF, Ministry of labour, Govt. of India and Govt. of West Bengal and Ministry of HRD, Government of India and Government. of West Bengal.

3.2 Focus Areas

i. Education

Education has always been an important component of activities for Right Track. The communities covered under their intervention areas mostly are those deprived of getting access to education. They firstly identify the out-of school and dropped out children of age 6-14 years and make proper arrangement so that they get enrolled in formal schools. They also put special emphasis on the retention of mainstreamed children in the formal schools as the NGO believes that these children are the first generation learners and they need proper guidance, counseling which is something they will not get from their respective families.

The NGO workers have taken up some strategies to enable access to education in these communities. Those are –

- a) Strengthening the community alliance

- b) To use the process of REFLECT as a capacity building and community mobilizing strategy.
- c) Using RTI Act 2005 and publishing the information within the communities and in front of institution.
- d) Advocacy with the Media & schools authority.
- e) Ensuring inclusive education for differently able children.

There are many other initiatives taken in this regard. By this children are motivated to attend regular schools; their parents are also counseled so that they let their child have elementary education and some informal centres are also there which ensure the dropped out or never enrolled children of age group 7-18 years get formal education. Those programmes are briefly explained in the following section.

- **Bridge Course Education Centres-** These community based informal education centres help the never-enrolled and dropped-out children of age group 7-18 years to prepare for getting admission in formal school in an age appropriate level by an accelerated teaching methodology within a span of one year.
- **Drop In Centres-** These centres are mainly run for the children who work as domestic help in the elite areas of Kolkata. In these centres, the children are motivated to have formal education through regular schooling and open schooling system. They are given basic education to minimize the knowledge gap and other vocational trainings for children over 14 years of age. These centres are run for 2 hours daily.
- **Coaching centres-** These are provided for the retention of mainstreamed children in the schools. The children are given guidance to prepare for their next day's class and subsequent examinations for which a two hour class is taken in these centres by the NGO workers.
- **School Mate Group-** It is a very unique concept by Right Track at the community level. The children attending formal schools and coaching centres are teamed in different groups and identified by that. The groups have a captain each and the members have a duty to ensure all children in their neighbourhood lanes and by lanes attend school regularly.
- **Strengthening Parents- Teachers Association –** This is a monitoring mechanism which is used at centre level by the teachers and parents. The committee meets twice in every month to review how the education process is carried out, makes visits to formal schools and other parents who are reluctant to send their children to formal schools.

ii. Child Protection

Child protection is another important component for Right Track. The children living in difficult circumstances are given special emphasis by the NGO. Those living in the adjacent areas of railway track and dock lead quite a hard life with dysfunctional family structures. Those children are vulnerable to various anti-social activities and mal- adaptive practices. They face all forms of abuses and exploitation at different levels. Right Track creates an enabling environment for the children where they can express their feelings and can explore their hidden talents. As these children get involved in the labour force for an earning, the intervention also includes the child labours working as domestic helps in the

apartments of Kolkata city. The main focus of their intervention is to provide a suitable environment for the children where they can lead a life with dignity. To achieve this, Right Track has undertaken many strategies. Some of the strategies are listed below-

- a) Empowering children through capacity building on legislation and laws.
- b) Sensitization amongst the partner community regarding the ill effects of addiction
- c) Referral services to the addicted
- d) Linkage with de-addiction & Rehabilitation Center
- e) Involving the religious leaders especially Moulavis in campaign against abuse and exploitation faced by the children.
- f) Case Management.
- g) Providing Life Skill Education to make the children resilient to the adverse situation
- h) Providing Counseling support to minimize the level of trauma faced by the children in difficult situation.
- i) Peer to Peer Approach
- j) Strengthening the Child Protection Committees to create awareness throughout the respective community and capacitate them in facilitating the process of reunification of children (Child Domestic Workers) who are willing to go back to their native places.
- k) Linkages and Advocacy with Law Enforcement Agencies and line Departments.
- l) Sensitization on Child Rights and Juvenile Justice (Care & Protection) Act 2000 to the Law Enforcing Agencies.
- m) Creating volunteer resource base as part of ethical resource generation to provide support to children in the form of tuitions, skill based vocational training, etc through linkages with various governmental, nongovernmental and private institutions etc.

iii. Health

It's another significant core intervention area for the NGO. The main focus of the intervention has been given on ensuring safe motherhood and child survival. Ante natal care, institutional deliveries, post natal care, colostrums feeding, exclusive breast feeding, timely immunization of all children in the community, birth registration; use of low cost nutritional food for all children mainly malnourished children, awareness about commonly occurring diseases preventive guidance on proper hygiene practices like hand washing, drinking water, toilet practices etc are the main focus of their intervention.

The strategies adopted for attaining these goals are given below-

- a) Case management- It involves tracking of individual cases of identified pregnant mothers and the new born babies at every step.
- b) Interpersonal communication- It refers to one to one communication between right track health educators and beneficiaries which helps minimizing gaps in understanding the issues.

- c) Use of behavior change communication tools- These are used for the beneficiaries to make them aware about the health and hygiene related issues at different levels. Meetings with the mothers, house to house visits, community clinics are the platforms where these behavior change tools are used.
- d) Linkage with Government System- This is done to create an access for the beneficiaries towards existing Government. health system. This is done to make these populations habituated in accessing various services being provided by the Department of Health.

iv. Right to livelihood and entitlement

Right Track makes the people of the partner community aware about their rights as citizens and the government. programmes and schemes that are meant for them. They provide information about the social security schemes of Government. of India for poor people such as Annapurna Yojana, Old Age Pension, Widow Pension, Janani Surksha Yojana etc and how they can access them and get benefited by them. The intervention includes making people aware about their importance as a citizen of this country and the citizen documents like certificates, voter ID cards, ration card that they need to keep with them as proof of their citizenship and avail facilities by the government.

Strategies adopted by the Right Track for this intervention are listed below-

- a) Interaction of alliances with the Government officials and councilor.
- b) Community mobilization and advocacy with line departments.
- c) Using Right to Information Act 2005.
- d) Media Advocacy.
- e) Using IEC materials.

3.3 Projects

Some of the projects which address the above priority areas are briefly described below-

- i. **Street to School**-This project covers wards 79 and 80 of Kolkata Municipal Corporation. As the name suggests the project is solely for the education of street children. The children of age group 6 to 18 years who live on the streets and never been to or dropped-out from school are motivated to take elementary education from formal schools. They at first identify the children living on streets and deprived of basic education. The NGO has set up special schools for the children aged 6-14 years where they get coaching and the children above 14 years are provided with various vocational trainings.
- ii. **Creating Opportunities for Working Children**- This project covers ward no.-83, 95, 96, 97, and 102 of Kolkata Municipal Corporation and has started since 2003 and is still going on. The domestic child labours, who live in their employer's house and who go back to their own residence after working are the target group of this project. The Volunteers do a door to door survey to identify the child domestic labours and then approach their parents and employers to let the children have access to elementary education at formal schools (for 6-14 years aged children). The children

above 14 years are given various vocational trainings such as beautician courses and housekeeping (it requires a minimum qualification of class VIII pass). According to the volunteers, the process of identification of domestic child labour is very difficult as the employers are reluctant to give any information about their child domestic help as they know very well that they are violating the law.

iii. Ensuring rights of children and women in urban areas- This project covers ward 78 and 79 of KMC area and some areas of Mahestala municipality. It mainly deals with the rights of Children and women living in the unauthorized as well as authorized slums of KMC and Mahestala. The programme includes creating awareness among the people of those areas about their fundamental rights, laws and also about the schemes and programmes provided for them by the government. The NGO helps them to get their Voter ID cards, Birth Certificates, ration cards etc. They also provide books and study materials for those children who need those urgently. They also provide protection to the children and women in some cases such as domestic violence, drug addiction, child abuse etc.

4. Garden Reach Slum Development

4.1 Introduction

The Garden Reach Slum development is a non-profit and non government organization founded in the year 1989. For the last two decades it has been working for the enhancement of the living condition of poor people through self help. The main components in which they are working are mainly education, health, and community empowerment of the economically weaker sections of the society residing in slums with special emphasis on pregnant women, street children, child labour, rag picker, destitute women and widow. The main intervention areas of this NGO are education, health, skill development and economic regeneration and awareness generation.

Its aim and objectives are given below-

1. Developing social and cultural co-operation between all sections of the community.
2. Running education and integrated programmes of development for under-privileged children in a qualitative way to bring them into mainstream life.
3. Imparting education programme for street children and child labour, children living in slums and illiterate adults.
4. Organising health and awareness generation programmes on various issues including child labour, aids prevention and preventive health etc.
5. Organizing seminars and workshop on various issues related with urban poor.
6. Improving the condition of women living in slums and economically poor.
7. Removing the darkness of society.

4.2 Project area

GRSD is working with the urban poor population of Garden Reach, Matiabruz and Maheshtala in the

south western part of Kolkata. These areas have migrant population from the neighbouring villages who have moved to the metropolitan city of Kolkata in search of better employment. These people are mostly below the poverty line and denied the basic necessities of life.

4.3 Activities

Listed below are some of the activities conducted by the NGO-

- Full Alternative School
- Remedial Center
- Mid-Day Meal
- Course Reading Library
- Running Home for Destitute Women
- Formation of Self-Help Groups
- Micro-Credit Programmes
- Reception & Felicitation for Successful 'Madhyamik Pariksha' (School Final) student
- Adult Education Centre
- Vocational Training Centres for youth on different trades
- Computer Education
- Community Health Center
- 24 Hours Ambulance Service
- Quiz, Debate, Essay and Cultural Programme
- Education and Social Training for Boys and Girls
- Awareness Programmes / Meetings / Rally / Campaigns on Relevant Issues
- Organising Seminars and Consultations
- Running Schools for Street and Working Children
- Scholarships for poor & deserving students
- Pay & Use Toilet
- Education Center for Schedule Caste/ Schedule Tribe/ Other Backward classes
- Education for physically challenged children
- Promotion of Safe Motherhood

i. Education :

Education is one of the most important intervention areas of GRSD. Its goal is to educate every member of the society. It runs one Centre under the NCLP scheme where the child labours are withdrawn from their work and enrolled in schools and they are provided with proper nutrition, health checkup, stipend and bridging courses and vocational training. This project has 50 beneficiaries.

The projects running under this component are-

1. Shikshalaya Prakalpa, Education for All
2. National Child Labour project
3. Educational Support to the disadvantaged children of Kolkata
 - Alternative School
 - Remedial Coaching Center
4. ICDS center for children of sex worker
5. Community Development through NFE & Course Reading Library
6. Computer Education Centre

ii. Health :

Its objective is to provide better health care services for the urban slum dwellers and to improve its environment. The Garden Reach area lacks a health care system in its locality and other basic amenities related to health such as government hospitals. As a result children suffer from malnutrition and other health problems and mothers also suffer with lack of pre and post natal care. So GRSD is organizing various awareness camps throughout the year to help the slum dwellers have a better health.

The projects currently going on in this regard are-

- Community Health Care Centre
- 24 Hour Free Ambulance Service

Community Health Care programs include:

- Pulse Polio
- Mother Sensitization
- Mother & Child Health Care
- Promotion of Safe Motherhood
- Malaria Prevention & Treatment
- Medical Treatments

- Homeopathic Outpatient Clinic
- Allopathic Outpatient Clinics

5. Vikramshila Education Resource Society

5.1 Introduction

The NGO Vikramshila Education Resource Society works for the children of under privileged and under resourced section of society and make education accessible to them and make them aware of its importance in life. It was founded in 1989 with an aim to make education a reality for all children. For the last 20 years it has been doing various works in action research and teacher-development programmes all over India.

The NGO mainly works with the children, teachers and government system through teachers development programmes and children's learning support programmes. It is working towards achieving citizenship education in its centre, quality improvement in madrasas as well as linking education to employability within formal school system. The specific strategies followed to achieve its goal include:

- Working with teachers for their continuous professional development
- Attempting quality improvement in madrasa education.
- Developing a model of citizenship education
- Attempting to link education to employability within the formal school system

5.2 Projects

The NGO has projects for achieving its goal. One such project is Nava Disha. The aim of this project is to mainstream the out of school children to formal school by giving them 3-4 years of alternate education coaching and also to work with formal schools for the improvement of their quality. Vikramshila started this project in the year 1999 with Kolkata police in the urban slums. It has 19 centres in and around Kolkata-

- I. **South-** Hastings, Kalighat, Lake, Taratala
- II. **Central** – Bowbazar, Beniapukur, Two centres in Narkeldanga
- III. **Port area-** Watgunje, 3 centres in Garden Reach, Nadial and Iqbalpur.
- IV. **East-** Tiljala
- V. **Suburb-** Khardah, Titagarh, Jagaddal, Rabindra Nagar.

It provides its service to about 1800 students of age groups from 3 to 16 years and these children are grouped in 4 to 5 levels. The centres are run in the police station premises and are managed by 55 trained teachers. The Kolkata police provide the NGOs infrastructure, and help arranging events like annual sports and health checkup camps once a month.

The teachers are trained to follow a child centred holistic and innovative pedagogy weaved around the state curriculum which provides the children an enabling and nourishing environment that helps

them to learn at their own pace. Peer learning is also encouraged in these centres. It provides its facilities to the following groups-

1. Pre schoolers
2. Primary level for those enrolled in these centres
3. Post primary level for those children who have been mainstreamed in government schools.
4. Secondary level to those who have moved beyond the upper primary level.

The centres have children coming from different language groups such as Hindi, Urdu and Bengali speaking homes, so the teachers follow multilingual approach to teach them. Some centres have all the language groups.

As a worker of this NGO said, this intervention does not only look after the education aspect of children of the society but also helps to bring about a change in the culture of urban slums and crime prone areas by educating them and making them aware about their rights and help to create a space where they can speak about their aspirations and needs without any fear. It creates a bond between the police and the communities which will help them to convey their problems to the police without any hesitation.



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Chapter 5

Government Programmes for the Development of Migrant Children in Kolkata

1. Government Approach for Child Development

India is the home to the largest number of children in the world. Nearly every fifth child in the world lives in India. Since Independence, government has made some significant commitments towards ensuring the basic rights of the children. The Constitution of India has several provisions for the protection of children from deprivations and for ensuring their rights which include:

- Article 15 affirms the right of the State to make special provision for women and children
- Article 24 provides that no child below the age of 14 shall be employed to work in any hazardous employment.

- Article 39 (e) of the Directive Principles of State Policy provides that the children of tender age should not be abused and that they should not be forced by economic necessity to enter vocations unsuited to their age or strength.
- Article 39 (f) requires children to be given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity, and that childhood and youth be protected against exploitation and moral and material abandonment.
- Article 45 of the Directive Principles of State Policy provides for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14.

Prior to the Fifth Five Year Plan, government focus on the children was welfare oriented through the promotion of basic minimum services. The National Policy for Children adopted in 1974 was the culmination of this effort. In 1975, the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) was launched in India and since then the approach shifted from welfare to development of the child. The focus further shifted to human development in the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992 – 97) and in the Ninth Five Year Plan, the government declared its commitment to every child. The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 – 2007) advocated for the integrated rights based approach to ensure the overall development of a child setting a target of reduction in infant mortality rate, arresting the declining child sex ratio, completing five year schooling by all children by 2007 etc. The Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007 – 2012) was constituted keeping child rights at its centre. National Plan of Action for Children was formulated in 2005 with four key areas addressing ICDS, early childhood education, girl child and child protection. The Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012 – 2017) gives focus on the development of both education and health of the children.

Table 5.1 is showing a glance of some of the child development schemes presently being implemented in the country.

Table 5.1 : Development Programmes for the Children in India

Sl. No.	Name of the Programme	Sponsor
1.	Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)	Ministry of Women and Child Development
2.	Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA)	Ministry of Human Resource Development
3.	Rajiv Gandhi National Creche Scheme for the Children of Working Mothers	Ministry of Women and Child Development
4.	Balika Samridhhi Yojana (BSY)	Ministry of Women and Child Development
5.	Kishori Shakti Yojana (KSY)	Ministry of Women and Child Development
6.	Scheme for Welfare of Working Children in Need of Care and Protection	Ministry of Women and Child Development
7.	An Integrated Programme for Street Children	Ministry of Human Resource Development
8.	Integrated Child Protection Scheme	Ministry of Women and Child Development
9.	National Child Labour Project (NCLP)	Ministry of Labour and Employment
10.	Childline Services	Ministry of Women and Child Development

2. Programmes for the Migrant Children in Kolkata

Although Government of India is committed to provide sufficient services to every child, there is no specific programme in the country for the migrant children whether with or without family. In the implementation of the programmes for poor children and overall children, migrant children are covered by the implementing agencies if possible. As a result, in most cases, the rights of the migrant children remain compromised. In the present chapter, we will discuss the implementation status of three major development programmes going on in Kolkata namely, ICDS, SSA and NCLP and how the migrant children are included by the implementing agencies in these programmes.

2.1 Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)

Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) launched in 1975, is an early childhood development programme sponsored by the central government and run by the state government/UT through Anganwadi Centres. This programme aims at addressing the health, nutrition and development needs of young children of age group of 0 to 6 years, and also pregnant and nursing mothers. As this is an early childhood programme, a holistic approach has been adopted to give the children a proper psychological, physical and social development and since the mothers have a key role in it, the expectant and nursing mothers are also given prenatal and post natal care under ICDS. Over 38 years of its operation, ICDS has expanded from 33 community development blocks that were selected for the programme in 1975 to almost all habitations in the county. The services provided to the beneficiaries under the programme are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 : Services Provided to Different Types of Beneficiaries under ICDS

Beneficiaries	Expectant and Nursing Mothers	Other Women 15- 45 Years	Children less than 3 Years	Children between 3-6 Years
Services	1. Health check up 2. Immunization of expectant mothers against tetanus 3. Referral services 4. Supplementary nutrition 5. Nutrition and health education	Nutrition and health education	1. Supplementary nutrition 2. Immunization 3. Health check up 4. Referral services	1. Supplementary nutrition 2. Immunization 3. Health check up 4. Referral services 5. Non-formal pre- school education

Source : Website of Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India

Kolkata is one of the 33 settlements where ICDS was first launched in 1975 on experimental basis. At present, there are 12 ICDS project areas in Kolkata city under which 1526 Anganwadi Centres (AWC) were operating in March 2013. Out of them, 1438 AWCs provided supplementary nutrition programme (SNP) and 1485 provided pre – school education (PSE) to the targeted beneficiaries as mentioned in Table 5.2. Table 5.3 shows the number of AWCs provided different types of services in different project areas in March 2013. Highest number of AWCs (196) was operating in Entally project area while the Red Light Area had only 100 AWCs, the number being lowest among all the project areas. The pattern was same in case of pre-school education (PSE)

services but in case of supplementary nutrition programme (SNP), the number of AWC was lowest in Dhakuria (73) project area followed by the Red Light Area. Apart from these 12 project areas, Behala project area of South 24 Parganas district is also coming under Kolkata city covering ward no. 115 to 132.

Table 5.3 : Number of AWC Providing Services in Different Project Areas of Kolkata

Sl. No.	Project Areas	Number of AWC Functional in March 2023	Number of AWC Providing SNP in March 2013	Number of AWC Providing PSE in March 2013
1.	Khidirpur	176	168	165
2.	Belgachia	116	116	115
3.	Tollyganj	105	102	102
4.	Entally	196	191	194
5.	Garden Reach	130	73	125
6.	Dhakuria	120	119	119
7.	Bartala	125	125	125
8.	Bagbazar	105	105	105
9.	Beliaghata	105	101	101
10.	Red Light Area	100	99	99
11.	Bhavanipur (U)	123	116	112
12.	Tiljala (U)	125	123	123
	Total	1526	1438	1485

Source : Directorate of Social Welfare, Government of West Bengal

According to the information collected from different ICDS project offices, among the 12 project areas, Khidirpur, Dhakuria, Tiljala and Garden Reach are heavily covered by migrant families those who have come to the city during the last ten years while a small number of such families are found in Tollygunj project area. In Khidirpur project area, migrant families are found in Watgunj and Canal Road of ward no. 75, Bhukailash Road of ward no. 78 and Indira Pally at Brace Bridge station area of ward no. 80. In Dhakuria project area, migrant families are living at Rajdanga Narkel Bagan canal side area of ward no. 107, part of Nonadanga and RR plot no. 3 and 4 of ward no. 108 and Birji area of ward no. 110. Tiljala project area covers ward no. 66, 67, 68, 69 and part of 108 (Nonadanga). A large number of migrant families are staying in ward no. 66 and 108. In other wards of this project area, migrant families are insignificant in number and also sparsely distributed. In Tollygunj project area, a small number of migrant families are found only in ward no. 113 and 114 while in Garden Reach project area, migrant families are in large number in ward no. 140 and 141. Others have come to the city long back and are presently staying as permanent settlers and enjoying the benefits given by the government to the BPL families.

Inclusion of Migrant Children in ICDS

In Khidirpur, Dhakuria, Tiljala and Tollygunj, people have come to the city either temporarily or permanently and they do not go to their native place on regular basis. On the other hand, in ward no. 141 of Metiaburuz area of Borough XV of KMC, large number of people migrates every year

to work in the brick kilns. They are seasonal migrants and their lifestyle does not match with the migrants of the other areas of the city. Naturally, the method of inclusion of children of these families to the ICDS programme is different from the children of other type of migrant families.

- a) **Non-seasonal Migrant Families** – Every day after the AWC hours, the Anganwadi workers visit the house of the beneficiaries. If any new family comes to any area within their coverage, the anganwari workers can be informed very easily. They visit the house of new comer; take all information of the children below six years and pregnant and lactating mother if any. Sometimes, they ask the mother to take her child/ children to the AWC, check weight and take details of past immunization and also help to get her child immunized at the new place. From the very next day, the children and pregnant and lactating mother of that family get the services of SNP and PSE (if there is any child of three to six years of age). In this way, the new migrant poor family is included in the programme.
- b) **Seasonal Migrant Families** – To understand the process of inclusion of the children of seasonal migrant families under ICDS, brick kiln areas of ward no. 141 under Borough XV have been covered.

Migration Process - There are some brick kilns in ward no. 141 which come under the Garden Reach project area of ICDS. Every year, a large number of people from outside Kolkata come to these brick kilns as seasonal labours. As brick works need dry weather, people start coming to these field in November and go back to their native place in June / July. Here, two types of in-migration take place for two different works. At the initial stage, only male labours mainly from Murshidabad and Bardhaman districts come here for the preparation of the field. After the field is prepared, labours from Bihar, Jharkhnad and West Midnapore come for brick making. Mainly tribal families from this belt come for this work though nowadays some non – tribal families are also coming. Both husband and wife along with their children above 10-12 years of age if any, work as labours in the field. Even the small children give support to their parents in the brick making process.

Service Coverage and Process - There are 15 brick kilns in ward no. 141 to which ICDS services reach through five Anganwadi centres numbered 9, 10, 11, 19 and 81. During the previous season (November 2012 to July 2013), three of them (no. 9, 10 and 81) could render services to the migrant families. The companies within the service area of other two AWCs were closed. After the labourers come to the brick field with family and start working, the Manager (called Munshi by the Anganwadi workers) of the company informs the Anganwadi workers about the arrival of the migrant families. The workers then visit the house of the labourers and take information of their children and pregnant and nursing mother, if any. If anybody belonging to the target group is found, the Anganwadi workers check his/her weight and register names in their record book. From that very day, children below six years of age and pregnant and nursing mothers of these families come under the ICDS. Sometimes, the Manager on his own brings the children to the AWC. Here, the Manager works as the middleman between the migrant families and the Anganwadi centre. He also plays the role of an interpreter as the migrant families coming mainly from the tribal belt cannot understand the language of the Anganwadi workers speaking in Bengali and vice versa.

Three types of services are provided to these families under ICDS –

- **Weighing** – at the beginning of the season, weight of the children and pregnant and nursing mothers is recorded to measure the nutrition standard of them.
- **Supplementary Nutrition Programme** – Every day, nutritious cooked food is provided to the beneficiaries at the Angawadi centre.
- **Immunization** – Immunization is not directly provided under ICDS, the worker’s responsibility is to make the beneficiaries aware of it. Sometimes, for the migrant families, immunization camps are arranged at the AWCs where people of the Health Department come and immunize the beneficiaries. The migrant families do not carry any immunization card of their children. It is very difficult for the workers to understand the past immunization of the children at the native place. They have no option other than depending on the verbal information given by the beneficiary families. But an immunization card for the period of their staying in the brick field is provided to the families from the Health Department which they are supposed to carry to their next destination.

Table 5.4 : Number of Beneficiaries from Migrant Families of the Brick Kiln Workers in Ward No.141 under ICDS

Beneficiary	Centre No. 9	Centre No. 10	Centre No. 81
Children below 3 years	2	4	2
Children 3 to 6 years	4	6	6
Pregnant & Nursing mother	2	0	2

Source : ICDS Garden Reach Project Office

Table 5.4 shows that total 24 children and four mothers were brought under SNP under ICDS in 2012 – 2013. There was no pregnant and nursing mother at centre no. 10 while each of other two centres had two such beneficiaries. The highest number of children was provided with nutritious food at the centre no. 10 followed by centre 81 and centre 9 respectively. In all the centres number of children at the age of three to six years was more than the number of children below 3 years of age.

According to the information provided by the officials of ICDS Garden Reach project office, pre-school education or PSE could not be provided to the children of these seasonal migrant families. Mismatch of time of the PSE hours with the working hours of the migrant labour families is the main factor behind it. The PSE starts at the AWC at 11 a.m. and continues up to 1.30 p.m. after which lunch is given. This is the working hour of the brick field labour as well; they cannot take children to the AWC during this time as they don’t want to lose even small amount of income. But at lunch time they bring their children to the centre probably because they also have lunch break at the same time. Sometimes, distance of AWC from the brick kiln also plays a role for not bringing the children to AWC during PSE hours.

Due to the same reason, migrant families also do not participate in any health related awareness meeting. These meetings are arranged jointly by the ICDS project office and the Health Department. The meeting time is fixed up according to the convenience of the officials of these two offices. In most cases, the meeting time does not match with the time of the brick workers which prevents them to take part in the meetings.

2.2 Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is an integrated flagship programme of Government of India to attain Universal Elementary Education (UEE) in the country with a mission mode approach. The programme has been designed in respect to the mandate given by 86th amendment to the Constitution of India making free and compulsory education to the Children of 6-14 years age group, a Fundamental Right. It is implemented in the entire country in partnership with the state governments to address the needs of 192 million children in 1.1 million habitats (Department of School Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, GOI).

The programme gives special focus on urban deprived children. Among the various provisions, some important provisions for the out of school children due to migration are:

- Special schools like mobile schools, back to school camp, short term schools at the construction sites
- Provision for seasonal hostels/residential camps to retain children in the sending areas during the period of migration.
- Worksites schools at the location where migrant families are engaged.

SSA in Kolkata with Special Focus on Migrant Children

In Kolkata, SSA is implemented in all 141 KMC wards, administered under 23 circles, shown in Annex 5.1. As informed by the SSA Kolkata, in some of the circles, children suffer from discontinuation of schooling due to various reasons including migration.

Table 5.5 : Types of Out of School Children in Kolkata under SSA during the Last Three Years

Sl. No.	Year	Total Out of School Children	Never enrolled Children	Drop out Children
1	2010-11	5565	3573	1992
2	2011-12	7309	4312	2997
3	2012-13	4296	2528	1768

Source : SSA, Kolkata

Table 5.5 shows that number of out of school children in Kolkata increased from 5565 in 2010-11 to 7309 in 2011-12 and a remarkable improvement has taken place in the enrolment activities from 2011-12 to 2012-13 so that the number of out of school children decreased to 4296 in 2012-13. In all the three years, the number of never enrolled children was higher than the number of drop out children. The gap between these two components was much higher in 2010-11 but gradually decreased in the next two years.

The authority of SSA Kolkata conducted a survey on the out of school children in 2013-14 in 123 out of 141 wards to understand the reasons for not sending children to school by their parents. The survey revealed that out of 4017 out of school children, 988 or one fourth (24.6%) were in-migrants. They had come to the city in recent past and could not get their children enrolled in any school in their locality for whatever the reason. The circle wise number of in- migrant out of school

children is given in Table 5.6. The highest number of such children was found in Circle VII comprising around three-fourth of total out of school children in the circle followed by circle X (166) and circle XVI (106) respectively. In some other circles like II, III, XIV, XVII and Behala (W), the percentage of in-migrant children to out of school children was higher than the city average. The ward level information shows that the highest number of in-migrant out of school children (200) was found in ward no. 29 of Circle VII where migration was the reason of being out of school in case of 100 percent of such children. In ward no. 80 (140) and 57 (60) also, the numbers of in-migrant children were significant. Information of other programmes also shows that these wards are very much occupied by the migrant families, who have come to the city not long back.

Table 5.6 : Circle wise Number of Out of School Children and In-migrant Out of School Children in 2013 – 14

Circle	Total Out of School Children	In-migrant Out of School Children	Percentage of In-migrant Children to Out of school Children
I	151	25	16.56
II	60	36	60.00
III	46	15	32.61
IV	80	13	16.25
V	67	0	0
VI	0	0	0
VII	323	239	73.99
VIII	125	23	18.4
IX	454	45	9.91
X	517	166	32.11
XI	190	37	19.47
XII	107	12	11.21
XIII	63	1	1.59
XIV	91	43	47.25
XV	267	50	18.73
XVI	423	106	25.06
XVII	122	6	4.9
XVIII	117	33	28.21
XIX	85	18	21.18
Tollygunge	149	16	10.74
Behala	0	0	0
Behala (W)	135	52	38.52
Alipore	445	52	11.69
Total	4017	988	24.6

Source : SSA, Kolkata

Earlier, Shikshalaya Prkalpa was an important component of SSA, which was made basically for the deprived urban children including migrant children. A Shikshalaya was a community based alternative formal school recognized by the government under SSA. The aim of running AIE centres was to provide every child easy access to a school. In 1999, there was a national level meet in Kolkata on the distress and plight of the deprived urban children living in various urban areas of the country. It was followed by a survey, funded by West Bengal District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) and conducted by 50 NGOs under CLPOA under the guidance of Sister Cyril of Loreto Day School. The survey revealed that 25 percent of the children aged from five to nine years and 29 percent of the children between 10 and 14 years were out of school. The survey formed the basis of Shikshalaya Prkalpa as since then, informal schooling centres had been set up in Kolkata under the SSA. City level Programme of Action for Street and Working Children (CLPOA) was made the coordinator under which more than 60 NGOs together were running 340 Alternative Innovative Education (AIE) centres or Shikshalayas (Mooij and Jalal, 2009 and website of CLPOA), where more than 16,000 children were enrolled (SSA, Kolkata). Apart from CLPOA, 87 AIE centres were running by the Kolkata District Committee of Bangiya Saksharata Prasar Samity, eight centres were running by Indian Mime Theatre, six centres were running by Bijan Benarjee Memorial Trust, Parivar, and two centres by Mahila Kala Shiksha Aur Seva Kendra. The Shikshalayas used to reach out to the children where access to regular formal schools was limited either due to insufficient vacancy or the number of schools (CINI Asha, 2005).

After the enforcement of Right to Education (RTE) Act, Shikshalaya Prkalpa has been eliminated from SSA as the Act mandates to include all children in the mainstream education. NGO's involvement to run school under any government sponsored education programme is no more allowed. According to the NGOs those were involved in this programme, the AICs were very much useful to cover the children of marginalized section of the society. The data available with SSA, Kolkata also supports the opinion. The number of Shikshalayas increased from 50 in the starting year 2000 to 443 lastly when the component was discontinued from SSA. There were 14 KMC wards where more than 10 AIE centres used to function. Out of them, in five wards, more than 20 AIE centres were there, in one ward, 18 centres were functioning while the remaining eight wards had 11 to 15 AIE centres. Out of them, three top ranking wards were no. 6 with 26 centres and no. 58 and 108 each with 24 centres (Table 5.7). In all these wards migrant families are living in significant number and their children used to attend the AIE centres because there were large number of Hindi and Urdu medium AIE centres to reach the children of non – Bengali deprived families. While some of the formal schools had been observed to run with insufficient number of students, the AIE centres were over-crowded though there was a problem of the students of AIE centres to get admitted in the mainstream schools (ISS, 2006 and Mooij and Jalal, 2009).

Table 5.7 : Number of KMC Wards with More than 10 AIE Centres

Number of AIE Centres	Number of Wards
More than 20	5 (6,58,108,135, 139)
16 to 20	1 (59)
11 to 15	8 (56, 65, 66, 79, 80, 134, 137, 138)
Total	14

Source : SSA, Kolkata

2.3 National Child Labour Project (NCLP)

An Estimate of Child labour in Kolkata

Child labour is a big problem in Kolkata as well as in other parts of the country. In 2001, there were 30844 child labours in the city comprising 1.79 per cent of the total workers and 4.15 per cent of the child population of the city. 5.18 per cent of the male child population and 3.02 per cent of the female child population were in the work force in 2001. More than 82 per cent of the child labour was engaged as main workers and most of them were engaged in industrial and trade sectors. More than one-fourth child labours were engaged in industrial activities, mostly in non- household category while 18.41 per cent of them were engaged in wholesale and retail trade. It was followed by financial intermediation, real estate and business activities where almost 14 per cent of child labour of the city was engaged. Four percent of workers were engaged in agricultural sector, mostly worked in household farms while each in eateries and transport sectors, more than three per cent of child labours were engaged (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8 : Percentage of Child Labours of Kolkata in Different Economic Activities, 2001

Economic Sector	Percentage to Total Child Labour
Non-household Industries	19.52
Wholesale & Retail Trade	18.41
Household Industries	6.75
Financial Intermediation, Real Estate & Business Activities	13.68
Agricultural Sector	4.00
Transport, storage and Communication	3.41
Hotel & Restaurants	3.36
Others	30.87
Total	100.00

Source : Census of India, West Bengal, 2001

Government Effort to Tackle the Issue

Government has been taking some important measures from time to time to tackle the problems of child labour in the country. The first committee called Gurupadswamy Committee was set up by the central government in 1979 to understand the problems of child labour and to give some recommendations to tackle the issue. Based on the recommendations of the Committee, the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act was passed in 1986. The Act prohibits employment of children in certain hazardous industries though same criteria were used to define hazardousness for an adult and a child. In 1987, the National Policy on Child Labour was announced, the Action Plan of which comprised three aspects – a legislative action plan, a general development plan for the benefit of the children and a project based action plan in areas of high concentration of child labour. In October 2006, Government of India banned employment of child below 14 years of age in the country in eateries and households along with 13 other occupations that are already listed in the Act passed in 1986 (ISS, 2007).

In order to tackle the problem of child labour, The National Child Labour Project (NCLP) was introduced by Government of India in 1988 in 12 child labour endemic districts in the country. The scheme seeks to adopt a sequential measure for the rehabilitation of child labour engaged in hazardous activities. The identified children are to be withdrawn from the occupations and then put into special schools formed for them so that in future these children can be mainstreamed into formal schooling system. At present, 271 districts in the country have been brought under the scheme. The NCLP schools are supposed to provide the following:

- Non-formal /bridge education
- Skilled/vocational training
- Mid-day Meal
- Stipend @ Rs. 150/- per child per month
- Health care facilities by appointing a doctor for a group of 20 schools.

NCLP in Kolkata

Kolkata along with other 18 districts of West Bengal is covered under NCLP. A society has been formed under the chairmanship of the Labour Commissioner, Government of West Bengal for implementing the project in Kolkata. As per the provision of the scheme, 40 such schools each enrolling 50 students are running in Kolkata by 40 NGOs. A survey was conducted in 1998 to arrive at the approximate number of child labour in the city so that a programme can be envisaged to bring them under the fold of basic educational system. On this basis, 40 NGOs were selected by the Labour Commissioner, based on the infrastructure and prior experience in this field to impart education. In the year, 2002, the Child Labour Project was formally launched. The first term of the Project extended from the year 2002 to 2005. The student teacher ratio was set at 50:2 in each school run by the NGOs. The project caters to the migrant children as well who are engaged as child labour.

An advisory committee was formed at that time to monitor the Project. The Committee comprised of Labour Commissioner as the Chairman, 40 implementing NGO representatives, 2 Educational Instructors, 1 Vocational Instructor, 1 Peon, 1 Clerk to maintain the accounts. Apart from this 2000 students from 40 schools were also considered as members of the Committee. The advisory committee played a key role in deciding the syllabus and other activities of the programme. The Field Officers were to act as a bridge between the Committee and the NGOs.

The provision of Mid-Day Meal was introduced in the year 2011, keeping at par with the same provision extended in other Government aided schools. A monthly health check up facility was introduced as a part of the project activity in the same year under which each NGO is entitled to receive Rs. 250 per child for every health camp organised, even though a majority of them have not yet been able to implement it. A stipend of Rs. 150 per month for every student attending the school was allotted under the project scheme. The objective of the Project is to mainstream the students who are identified as child labourers, into formal schools after providing them with primary education.

From the year, 2011, the Project rolled into its 4th term (1st term: 2002-2005; 2nd term: 2005-2008;

3rd term: 2008-2011; 4th term: 2011-2014). In this term, 4 new NGOs have replaced 4 earlier NGOs who have chosen to drop out from the Programme. The Field Officer mentioned that the NGOs are finding it difficult to carry out the programme activities effectively, due the delay in receipt of funds, which are often disbursed to them after a gap of one year.

Under the present study we visited a few NGOs who are running the NCLP schools in different localities in the city to understand their experience in running the schools. In the following section, the activities of four selected NGOs running NCLP schools have been analysed.

The selected NGOs, running NCLP schools that were visited by us are:

1. Garden Reach Slum Development (GRSD)
2. Trinita Society for Social and Health Research
3. Tiljala Shed
4. Prantik Jana Bikash Samity

Apart from having interaction with the project personnel of these NGOs, the NCLP School run by GRSD was visited separately. An analysis of them is given below:

Beginning of the Programme

After the baseline survey conducted by the Labour Department, the NGOs were involved in 2002 and asked by the government to choose their own area for running the school. All the NGOs chose the area and conducted a survey to identify the exact number of child labour in the respective area. The NGOs submitted report to the department from which 50 students for each NCLP school were selected. The NGOs informed that the final selection was done by the department. The schools started functioning in 2004. The areas where the schools are running are shown in Table 5.9.

5.9 : Areas where the Selected NGOs are Running NCLP Schools

Name of the NGO	Area where NCLP School is Running	KMC Ward No.
Trinita Society for Social and Health Research	Topsia Khalpar Area	66
Tiljala Shed	Rajabazar	28
Prantik Jana Bikash Samity	Rajabazar	37
Garden Reach Slum Development	Garden Reach, Metiaburuz	135

Process of Running Schools

All the NCLP schools are running following the guidelines of the programme. There are 50 students in each school and for them two Educational Instructors and one Vocational Instructor are there. The school timing is from 11 a. m. to 4 p. m. Mid-day meal is provided in all the schools; A stipend of Rs. 150 per student per month comes to the NGOs. The schools are also getting a fund for health camp to be organized every year though the amount is highly insufficient as opined by all the NGOs.

Background of the Children

As per the guidelines of the project, the students of NCLP schools are in the age group of 9 years to

14 years. All the students of these schools are child labour. They belong to very poor families. The children are born and brought up in the locality but most of them belong to migrant families. The children attend the school and practice the economic activities simultaneously. They work in the morning and attend school during day time. The nature of job they are involved in is different from one area to another as observed in Table 5.10. In Topsia area, the child labours are mostly rag pickers. In Rajabazar area, children are mostly working as helpers in shoe making, paper box making and envelop making, a part of them are involved in folding papers for book binding which is locally called 'farma banano' while some are working in tea stalls. On the other hand in GRSD NCLP school, boys are involved in kite making while girls are doing embroidery work. In Metiaburuz area, most of these industries are household based and the children are not paid for their work, they are just supporting their families. When the NCLP School run by GRSD was visited by the team, only 25 students were attending the school because the day was just a few days before Viswakarma Puja and the children were very busy in kite making thus were not attending the school, as informed by the Instructors. The area is known as the 'tailoring zone' of Kolkata and a large section of families are involved in garment making. Even some girls were found to do embroidery work in the class.

Table 5.10 : Types of Work in which the Child Labours are Involved

Name of the NGO	Locality	Types of Work
Trinita Society for Social and Health Research	Topsia Khalpar Area	Rag Pickers
Tiljala Shed	Rajabazar	Helper in shoe and paper box making, some working in tea stalls
Prantik Jana Bikash Samity	Rajabazar	Helper in paper box making, shoe making, some are involved in folding papers for book binding
Garden Reach Slum Development	Garden Reach, Metiaburuz	Kite making, girls are also involved in embroidery works

Education Services Provided by the Schools

In these schools, the child labours are getting an opportunity to obtain primary education from the NGOs. The syllabus of these schools is similar to that of mainstream primary schools. In addition, students of these schools are imparted vocational training which can help them in future for earning money. The courses of training are selected by the respective NGOs. All the NGOs except GRSD are imparting training on mehendi work to the girl children and tailoring work to both boy and girl children. GRSD did not mention about any vocational training for the students of NCLP School.

Bottleneck of the Programme

The NGOs mentioned about a number of problems for which they cannot run the schools properly.

- The amount of fund allotted for this programme is very low and they are not disbursed on time. Sometimes, it remains due for two years at a stretch.
- The teachers refuse to conduct classes when they do not receive their payments and the school

remains closed for indefinite period under these circumstances. Sometimes, the NGOs are paying to the teachers from other sources of fund to continue classes regularly but it is very difficult for them to implement the programme in this way.

- Communication of the NGOs with the Project Management Unit (PMU) is very irregular. Only one Field Officer visits the school and enquires about the programme once or twice a year. Meetings with the department are conducted seldom and that also do not bring any fruitful result.

3. Conclusion

So far no separate programme has been taken up by the government to tackle the issue of migrant children. They are supposed to be covered under the general development programmes for the children. We discussed in this chapter the three important government programmes that are going on throughout India and also in the city for development of the children and how the migrant children are included in these programmes. The programmes discussed here, are ICDS, SSA and NCLP. The processes of inclusion of migrant children are different in three different programmes. In ICDS, there are separate processes to include the children of seasonal migrant families and long term migrant families. As the Anganwadi workers visit the area and the houses of the beneficiaries on regular basis, any newcomer in the locality, coming under the purview of the programme, can easily be noticed by them. In case of the seasonal migrant families (workers in the brick kilns) also, the Anganwadi Workers are informed and the target group families are included in the programme. Though the Anganwadi Workers face some difficulties to bring the target group families under the programme due to language and other problems, these families are not totally kept outside the programme. But PSE could not be provided to the children of the brick kiln workers due to the mismatch of time.

The picture is different in SSA. Earlier the migrant children were mostly covered under the Shikshalaya Prakaalpa of SSA which was implemented through NGOs. The NGOs were running AIE centres where deprived urban children used to get enrolled. More than 400 AIE centres were running throughout the city under the programme. The Shikshalayas used to reach out to the children where access to regular formal schools was limited. Studies have shown that the AIE centres were overcrowded in spite of having some problems. After the enactment of RTE, the Shikshalaya Prakaalpa has been eliminated from the programme as NGOs are no more allowed to run schools under any Government programme. The students of these centres are supposed to get enrolled in the mainstream schools but how far it has been implemented is not known yet.

Under the NCLP, child labours are covered and a substantial part of them belong to migrant families though the children are mostly born in the locality. The children get enrolled in these schools on the basis of the survey conducted by the NGOs and the process is same for all child labours. These children have not withdrawn themselves from work but continuing both work and study simultaneously. The NGOs are also facing difficulties to run the school due to inadequate and irregular disbursement of fund. As it is an important programme for the deprived urban children, more care should be given by the government to implement the programme successfully.

Annex 5.1 : Wards under Circle at Kolkata under SSA

Circle	Wards
I	2,3,4,5
II	1,6,7
III	10,11,17,18
IV	21,22,23,25,42
V	12,13,15,16,28
VI	26,39,41,43,44
VII	27,29,30,33,34,35
VIII	37,38,40,45,46,47,48,49,50,51,52,53
IX	54,59,60,61,62,64,65,66
X	75,76,77,78,79,80
XI	63,70,71,72,73,84,85,86,87
XII	89,90,93,94,97,114
XIII	96,99,100,110
XIV	95,98,113
XV	14,31,32
XVI	36,55,56,57,58
XVII	67,68,69,91,92,107
XVIII	74,81,82,83,88
XIX	8,9,19,20,24
TOLLYGUNGE	101,102,103,104,105,106,108,109,111,112
BEHALA	115,116,117,118,119,120,121,122,123,124
BEHALA (W)	125,126,127,128,129,130,131,132
ALIPORE	133,134,135,136,137,138,139,140,141

Source : SSA, Kolkata

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Chapter 6

Primary Survey Data on Migrant and Non-migrant Households: Socio-Economic Background and Access to Basic Services and Amenities

1. Sample Size and Area Coverage

For the present project, primary information was collected by two methods – questionnaire survey for quantitative information and focus group discussions (FGD) for qualitative information. Two types of poor households were chosen as respondents for both the processes – a) migrant families - those who have come to the city from outside during the last ten years and b) non-migrant families - those who originally belong to the city or have migrated here more than ten years before. Since the objective

of the study was to look into the condition of migrant children, those families were purposively selected for the survey who have children below 14 years.

Methodology

Questionnaire Survey– The survey was conducted on the basis of a structured questionnaire. Total 1000 households were covered under the survey, 500 each for migrant and non-migrant families. The migrant families were surveyed in slums located in 15 wards covering both core and added areas of the city and also from all spatial locations. From these 15 wards total 20 locations were covered which were selected mainly on the basis of the concentration of migrant families, the information on which was collected mainly from the ICDS project offices. Out of 12 ICDS project offices in Kolkata, five project offices namely, Belgachia, Tiljala, Dhakuria, Kiddirpur and Garden Reach have concentration of migrant families. All of them except Garden Reach have been covered under the survey of this group. In Garden Reach area, there are some pockets on the bank of Hugli River where migrant families come every year to work in the brick kilns. They come in November and stay there till summer. Before monsoon, they leave the place. In the present survey, they could not be covered as it was conducted during rainy season.

On the other hand, non-migrant poor families were surveyed in 10 slums each covering 50 households. All of them were selected from the core area of the city. These slums are very old and people have been living there since long time. Previous slum development programmes have been implemented in these slums. Names of the slums covered under the survey have been shown in Annex 6.1 and the map showing the localities is also presented in Annex 6.2.

Focus Group Discussions– For collecting qualitative information 10 FGDs were conducted of which seven were with migrant families and three with non-migrant families. In all the FGDs, minimum 15 persons were interacted while in some FGDs 25 to 30 people participated. The locations for FGDs were chosen from those slums where questionnaire survey had already been conducted. The only exception was Nonadanga Lake Pally in ward no. 108 where no questionnaire survey was taken up. Annex 3 shows the name of the slums where FGDs were conducted.

In the present chapter, we present a comparative analysis of the situation of migrant and non-migrant families on their socio-economic background and their life in the city in terms of access to civic amenities and social environment.

2. Analysis of Data

2.1. Social Background of the Respondents

i. Caste and Religion

Table 6.1 : Composition of Different Religious Groups among the Migrant and Non-migrant Families

Religion	Migrants Families	Non-migrants Families
Hindu	80.2	86.8
Muslim	19.2	12.4
Christian	0.2	0.6
Others	0.4	0.2
Total	100	100

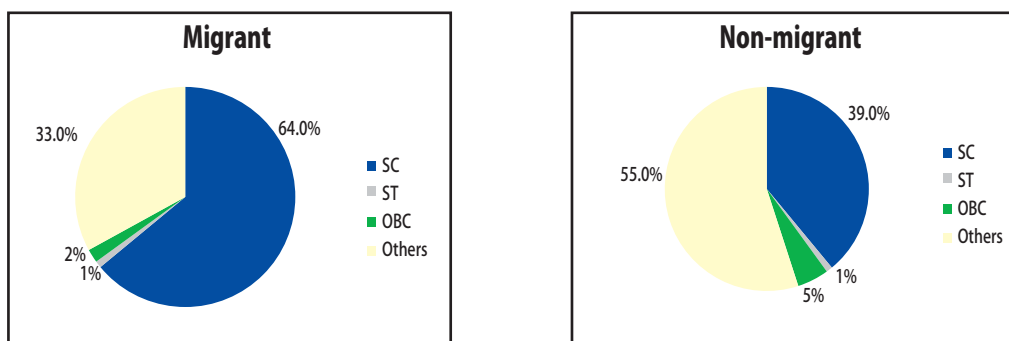
Hindus were the largest religious group both among the migrant and non-migrant families though among the latter group of respondent, the percentage was higher. Percentage of Muslim Families was higher in the migrant dominated slums than the slums where non-migrant families were living. The other religious groups including Christian were very marginal among both the respondent groups. In 12 out of 19 migrant slums and six out of 10 non-migrant slums, the entire respondent families were Hindus. There are two migrant slums and one non-migrant slum where 100 per cent of the respondent families were Muslims, in one migrant slum, more than 90 per cent of the target group was Muslim and in one slum 55 per cent of the target group belonged to the same religious group. The Muslim dominated migrant slums are Tala Park in ward no. 5, Majdoor Bustee in ward no. 66 and Indira Pally near Brace Bridge railway station in ward no.80 while the same feature was found in M.M. Ali Road in ward no. 77 among the non-migrant slums (Table 6.1).

A sharp contrast was found among the migrant and non-migrant families in terms of caste composition. Scheduled Caste (SC) and the others or the general castes were the two dominant caste groups among the both type of respondents. But SC was the most dominant caste among the migrant families while among the non-migrant respondents, more than half of the family belonged to general castes though a substantial portion of them was from SC category. Even among the migrant dominated slums, caste contrast was found. In some slums like Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road, Canal West Road, Birjee Mondal Para, the entire respondent families were SCs while in Tala Park, Prantik Pally and Brace Bridge Railway station, all the families covered under the survey were from general castes. No such contrasting feature was found in the non- migrant slums except M.M. Ali Road where 98 per cent of the respondent families were from general castes (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 : Caste Composition of the Migrant and Non-migrant Families

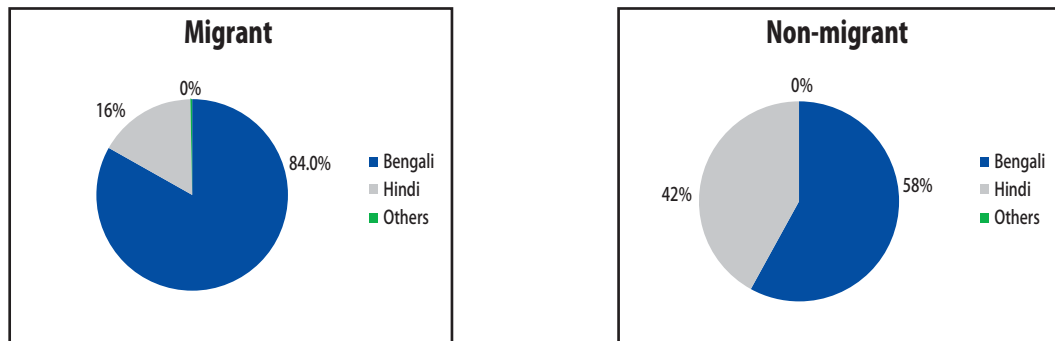
Caste	Migrants Families	Non-migrants Families
Scheduled Caste	63.8	38.8
Scheduled Tribe	0.8	1.2
Other Backward Classes	2.2	4.8
Others	33.2	55.2
Total	100	100

Figure 6.1: Distribution of Surveyed Households by Caste



The migrant families were mostly Bengali speaking with almost 85 per cent of the families belonging to this category. On the other hand, in the non-migrant slums, only 57.6 per cent families were Bengali speaking. Hindi speaking families were more frequently found in the non-migrant slums (42.4%) than migrant slums (15.6%). In fact, there was not much difference in number between the Bengali speaking and the Hindi speaking persons in the non-migrant slums. It may be related to the migration pattern as observed in Table 6.7. Majority of the migrant families had origin in other districts of the state.

Figure 6.2: Distribution of Surveyed Households by Mother Tongue



ii. Family Size and Sex Ratio

The average family size of non – migrant families (5.0) was higher than the migrant families (4.5). The highest average family size among the migrant families was found in the squatter opposite to Nimtala Burning Ghat (6.5) while the lowest one was found in Khalpar Canal West (2.00) in ward no. 36. In three migrant dominated slums, average family size was more than five, in 14 locations it was between four and five while in three locations the figure was less than four. On the other hand among the non migrant slums, Ghosh Bangan bustee in ward no. 6 had the highest family size (5.7). In five slums the size was more than five while in another five slums, it was between 4.0 and 5.0. In no slum of this category, lower family size has been found (Table 6.3).

Table 6.3 : Average Family Size of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Average Family Size	No. of Migrants Slums	No. of Non-migrants Slums
More than 5	3	5
4 to 5	14	5
Less than 4	3	0
Total	20	10

The average sex ratio in the migrant families was 968 as observed in Table 6.4. In nine locations, there were either more females than males or the numbers were the same. The sex ratio was between 800 and 999 in 10 locations while one location had sex ratio of less than 800. The sex ratio of the non-migrant families was comparatively high being 976. In four slums, the sex ratio was more than 1000 while in six slums it was between 800 and 999. The child sex ratio was much lower than the sex ratio of total population in both categories of respondents. However, migrant families had much lower child sex ratio (899) than the non-migrant families (954).

Table 6.4 : Sex Ratio of the Respondent Families in Migrant and Non-Migrant Slums

Sex Ratio	No. of Migrants Slums	No. of Non-migrants Slums
1000 and above	9	4
800 – 999	10	6
Less than 899	1	0
Total	20	10
Average Sex Ratio	968	976

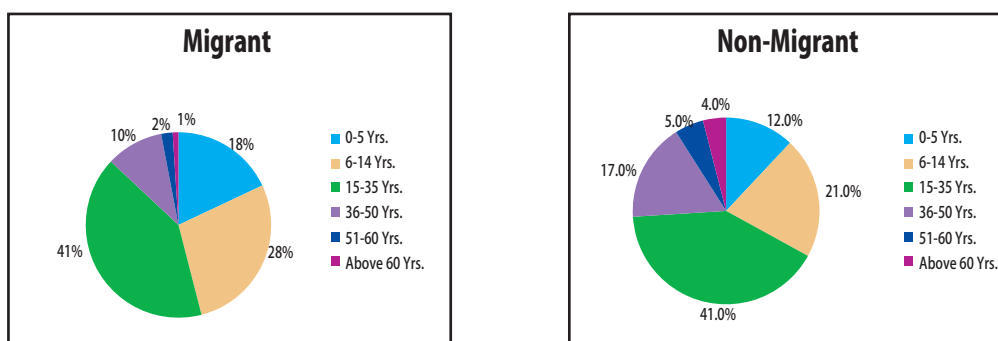
iii. Age Distribution

Table 6.5 shows the age distribution of the respondents. In both the categories, highest share of population belonged to 15 -35 years age group. Child population (0-5 and 6-14 years) constituted a larger share among the migrant population than in the non-migrant group (45.5 and 32.3 respectively). Among the child population, majority was in the age group of 6 – 14 years. From the age 36 years upward, percentage was higher among the non-migrant population than migrant one indicating more propensities of young people to migrate to the city.

Table 6.5 : Distribution of Population by Age

Age Group	Migrant Population	Non-migrant Population
0 – 5	17.9	11.5
6 – 14	27.6	20.8
15 – 35	40.9	41.1
36 – 50	10.3	17.2
51 – 60	1.8	5.4
Above 60	1.5	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0

Figure 6.2 : Distribution of Surveyed Households by Mother Tongue



In seven migrant slums, 50 per cent or more population were children, in 11 such settlements, the share of children to total population was 40 percent to 49.9 per cent while it was 30 per cent to 39.9 per cent in three migrant slums. There was no such slum where child population occupied less than 30 per cent of the total population. The scenario of the non-migrant slums was quite different. Here in a majority of the slums, the share of child population was between

30 per cent and 39.9 per cent and contrary to the migrant slums, none of the non-migrant slums was found where child population had more than 50 per cent share to the total population (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 : Distribution of Slums with Percentage of Child Population to Total Population

% of Child Population to Total Population	No. of Migrants Slums	No. of Non-migrants Slums
50 and above	6	0
40 – 49.9	11	1
30 – 39.9	3	6
Less than 30	0	3
Total	20	10

2.2 Migration Status

i. Place of Origin

Out of 500 migrant families under the survey, only three were found to be seasonal migrants. One of these three was in 46 Canal West Road and the other two were from Majdoor Bustee. The larger group has come to the city on long term basis.

Table 6.7 reveals that inter-district migration was the most dominant type. Around four-fifths of the migrant families originated in other districts of the state. Discussions from FGDs have shown that a large section of them have come from the surrounding districts of North and South 24 Parganas. 17 per cent of the migrant families had origin in other states while 1.4 per cent in other countries. Non-migrant families as expected mostly belonged to Kolkata though some of them originated from other parts of the city. 13.6 per cent had origin in other states while 10 per cent in other countries. Less than 10 per cent of them were from other districts of West Bengal.

Table 6.7 : Distribution of Respondent Families by Place of Origin

Birth Place	% to Total Respondent Families	
	Migrants	Non-migrants
Other Parts of Kolkata	0	76.0
Other districts of West Bengal	81.6	9.4
Other States	17.0	13.6
Other Countries	1.4	10.0
Total	100	100

If the place of origin of the migrant families is analysed at the slum level, some important features emerge. There are some slums where all the families covered under the survey migrated to the city from the same type of source and at a certain period of time. There are two slums in the northern part of the city, namely, Tala Park in ward no. 5 and Canal West Road in ward no. 15, and also 113 Chetla in ward no. 82 in the southern part of the city, where all the target group families migrated to Kolkata from other districts of West Bengal. In some other slums like Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road, 46 Canal West Road, Muraripukur in North Kolkata and Kalikapur, 4 no. RR plot, Rajdanga Narkelbagan and all slums in Birjee area, lion's

share of the families have followed the stream of inter-district migration. Nimtala Burning Ghat is the only slum where people mostly migrated from other states.

ii. Place of Last Residence

Some differences are observed between the place of origin and the place of last residence among the migrant families. Table 6.8 shows 8.8 per cent of the migrant families stayed in other parts of the city before coming to the present location. On the other hand, in other three categories percentage of households has decreased from birth place to place of last residence. It indicates that it was the second or more migration for some of the families while for others the present location is the first destination after migrating from the birth place. In some of the slums like Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road, Prantik Pally, Majdoor Bustee and Rajdanga NarkelBagan, much higher percentage of the families earlier migrated to some other parts of the city and later shifted to the present location.

Table 6.8 : Distribution of Migrant Families by Birth Place and Last Residence

	% of Total Migrant Families	
	Birth Place	Last Residence
Other Parts of Kolkata	(-)*	8.8
Other districts of West Bengal	81.6	76.4
Other States	17.0	13.8
Other Countries	1.4	1.0
Total	100	100

*Here the birth place of the head of the family has been considered and not of any other family member. As per the scope of the study, a family is considered a migrant one if its stay in the city is not more than 10 years.

iii. Duration of Stay in Kolkata

The non-migrant families settled in the city long back. According to Table 6.9, more than 60 per cent of them have been staying in Kolkata for generations, 33 per cent said they lived in Kolkata for 21 to 40 years while five per cent of them have been here for 10 to 20 years. All the slums of this category are characterized by the same feature except Kamardanga slum where the families are comparatively new. 70 per cent families have been staying in the city for 21 to 40 years, 20 per cent from 10 to 20 years and only 10 per cent have been staying here for generations. Migrant families, on the other hand, have come to the city not even 10 years back (according to the specification of the present study). Majority (58.2%) of them came to the city between five to ten years ago, a substantial portion of them migrated to Kolkata between past one to five years while only four per cent of them have not covered even one year in the city.

Table 6.9 : Distribution of Families by their Duration of Stay in Kolkata

Migrant Families		Non-migrant Families	
Year	% to Total Migrant Families	Year	% to Total Non-migrant Families
Less than 1 Year	4.2	10 to 20 Years	5.0
1 to 5 Years	37.6	21 to 40 Years	33.2
More than 5 Years to Less than 10 Years	58.2	For Generations	61.8

In some of the slums, migration took place in a certain period of time. In Chetla, all the 17 families surveyed came to the city from one to five years ago while in Nimtala Burning Ghat and Muraripukur, more than 90 per cent of the families migrated five to ten years ago. This was perhaps due to a certain reason which forced them to shift from their native place. In most of the other slums, majority of families have been staying in Kolkata since last five to ten years while a substantial portion of them are in the city for last one to five years. Rajdanga Narkelbagan and No. 3 Kalikapur slum are the only two locations where some people have migrated during the last one year.

iv. Reasons for Migration

Table 6.10 : Distribution of Families according to the Reasons for Migration to Kolkata

Reasons	Percentage of Total Families
Job	96.0
Eviction	0.8
Political Reasons	0.0
Natural Calamities	3.0
Others	0.2
Total	100

Job was the only reason for migrating to Kolkata in case of almost all the families as Table 6.10 shows. 96 per cent of the families mentioned that job was the reason while three per cent told that natural calamities compelled them to leave their own place and shift to the city. These three per cent families are now sparsely located in northern and southern parts of the city i.e. in Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road and 46 Canal West Road in the north and Rajdanga Narkelbagan and Garia Birjee area in the South. During the FGD, a section of the Majdoor Bustee, migrating from South 24 Parganas mentioned about the natural calamities as reason for migration. They cited "Aila", the cyclone that struck South Bengal in May 2009 as a main reason behind coming to Kolkata. "Aila" had breached the river embankments of south 24 Parganas and most of the farm lands became salt water lagoons and turned into brackish water fisheries. As a consequence most of the families that were farm labourers lost their jobs and were forced to come to Kolkata. Four families comprising 0.8 per cent mentioned about eviction as reasons for migration while only one family told about other reasons. Three of them were from Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road while one family was from Narkelbagan. The issue of eviction also came in the FGD conducted in Nonadanga Lake Pally in ward no. 108. The residents of this area came to Kolkata and began to reside in different squatter settlements along the canals around the city as tenants. When rehabilitation and resettlement programme for the canal bank dwellers was going on, only the landlords were registered while the tenants got evicted from the canal banks. After that 10-12 households formed a squatter and started living near the RR housing complex on the bank of a fishery pond. Most of the participants used to live near Kalikapur before living in this locality. Migration due to political reason was mentioned by no family. In 13 out of 19 slums, 100 per cent families shifted from their native place in search of jobs.

80 families were found to whom present location was not the first migration. For them also, job was the most important reason as 85 per cent of them mentioned about it. Five families were found to mention about eviction from the previous location, two families told about natural calamities while five families mentioned about other reasons.

2.3 Economic Condition

i. Income and Expenditure

Families are mostly from the lower income group both in case of migrant and non-migrant categories, the percentage being higher in case of former group. 95 per cent of the migrant families and 87.6 per cent of the non-migrant families have monthly income up to Rs. 10,000. Of them, monthly income of the majority is between Rs. 1501 and Rs. 7500. There are only five percent migrant families with Rs. 10,000 or higher income per month while the figure is 12.4 per cent in case of non-migrant families. Among the latter group, almost four per cent families have more than Rs. 15,000 income per month while none of the migrant families belong to this group (Table 6.11).

Table 6.11 : Distribution of Households by Income per Month

Income (INR) per month	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HH	As%	No. of HH	As%
0-1500	11	2.2	9	1.8
1501-7500	385	77.0	351	70.2
7501-10000	79	15.8	78	15.6
10001-15000	25	5.0	43	8.6
15000 above	0	0.0	19	3.8
Total	500	100.0	500	100

ii. Workforce Participation

Table 6.12 shows the workforce participation rate (WPR) of the family members of the respondents. The WPR of the members of the migrant families is 42.91 while in the non-migrant families, 40.30 per cent members are participating in economic activities. In both the cases, male WPR is greater than female WPR. The male WPR is higher in non-migrant families than that of migrant families while female WPR is higher in migrant families than non-migrant families. As a result, male-female differential is more among non-migrant families than in the migrant ones.

Table 6.12 : Workforce Participation Rate of the Migrant and Non-migrant Family Members

Type of Family	Persons	Male	Female
Migrant	42.91	51.00	34.54
Non-migrant	40.30	55.05	24.39

iii. Occupational Pattern

Some differences are observed between the two types of families in terms of occupational pattern of the household members those who are economically active. The migrant family members are engaged in two dominant activities i. e. daily labour (51.7%) and housemaid (28.6%). The remaining 20 per cent members are engaged in other occupations of which two important vocations are household workers (8.5%) and self employment (7.1%). On the other hand, non-migrant family members are more evenly spread over the various economic activities shown in Table 6.13. 22.8 per cent of them are self-employed while 17.5 per cent are daily labours. Around 19 per cent are attached to the service sector, mostly being in private sector offices. Rest of the economically active members is businessman (16.3%), household workers (12.5%) and house maid (11.2%). Six members of the non-migrant families and one of the migrant families have income from other sources like pension, rent etc. Male-female variations are observed in both types of respondents. Highest number of females is engaged as housemaid in both migrant and non-migrant families. On the other hand, males are engaged in highest number as daily labour and self-employed in migrant and non-migrant families respectively.

Table 6.13 : Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Family Members by Economic Activity

Economic Activity	Migrant						Non-migrant					
	Male	As%	Female	As%	No. of members	As%	Male	As%	Female	As%	No. of members	As%
Businessman	4	0.7	0	0.0	4	0.4	147	20.8	18	6.0	165	16.3
Shop-keeper	13	2.2	4	1.0	17	1.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Service in Pvt. Firm	11	1.9	0	0.0	11	1.1	156	22.0	14	4.6	170	16.8
Service in Govt. Sector	1	0.2	1	0.3	2	0.2	15	2.1	8	2.6	23	2.3
Day Labor	450	77.5	47	12.3	497	51.7	163	23.0	14	4.6	177	17.5
Self Employed	63	10.8	6	1.6	69	7.2	196	27.7	34	11.3	230	22.8
Income from other source (pension, rent)	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.1	2	0.3	4	1.3	6	0.6
Helping to family business	3	0.5	1	0.3	4	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
House maid	2	0.3	273	71.7	275	28.6	1	0.1	112	37.1	113	11.2
Household worker	33	5.7	49	12.9	82	8.5	28	4.0	98	32.5	126	12.5
Total	581	60.4	381	39.6	962	100	708	70.1	302	29.9	1010	100

iv. Expenditure Pattern

The majority of the household have monthly expenditure between Rs. 1501 and Rs. 7500 though the percentage is higher by 10 percent points in case of migrant families. In the higher expenditure group, the percentage is much higher in case of non-migrant families. As there is no migrant family having monthly income above Rs.

15000, no family has this amount of monthly expenditure as well. On the other hand, 1.6 per cent of the non-migrant family has a monthly expenditure above Rs. 15000. Comparing Table 6.11 with Table 6.14 we find that while 95 per cent of the migrant families have a monthly income up to Rs. 10,000, and 98 per cent of them have monthly expenditure of the same amount. On the other hand, in case of non-migrant families, 87 per cent and 83 per cent have this amount of monthly income and expenditure respectively.

Table 6.14 : Distribution of Households by Expenditure per Month

Expenditure (INR) per month	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HH	As%	No. of HH	As%
0-500	0	0.0	0	0.0
501-1000	2	0.4	3	0.6
1001-1500	8	1.6	3	0.6
1501-7500	425	85.0	376	75.2
7501-10000	57	11.4	83	16.6
10001-15000	8	1.6	27	5.4
15000 above	0	0.0	8	1.6
Total	500	100.0	500	100

v. Loans and Savings

The need for taking loan is more prominent in case of migrant families than non-migrant families. 72.6 per cent of the migrant families and 65.4 per cent of the non-migrant families take loans or credit to meet the expenses. It is observed in Table 6.15 that the sources of loan are same for both the groups but the pattern differs to some extent. The four sources are grocers, neighbours, money lender and employer. Many of them take loan from more than one source. Grocers are the most important source for both the respondent group followed by neighbours, money lender and employers respectively. In case of first three sources, the percentages of migrant families are higher than those of non-migrant families. On the other hand, employer as a source of loan is more observed in case of non-migrant than migrant families. It may be related to the occupational pattern of the respondents as observed in Table 6.15. Employment in government and private sectors is more frequently observed among the non-migrant families than the migrant ones. A very few of the non-migrant families take loan from other sources while none of the migrant families use this source.

Table 6.15 : Distribution of Households by Source of Loan

Source	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HH	As%	No. of HH	As%
From Employer	14	3.9	29	8.9
From grocers	235	64.7	187	57.2
From neighbors	152	41.9	73	22.3
Money lender	56	15.4	34	10.4
Others	0	0.0	4	1.2

Note : Multiple responses

Non-migrant families are more habituated to save money than the migrant families. Only 37 per cent of the migrant families save money (in whatever the institution), while it is practiced by more than half of the non-migrant families. Bank and LIC are the two important institutions where money is saved by both type of respondent families though non-migrant families are more in favour of bank than LIC in this respect. This is because in the absence of proper identity and residence proof it is difficult for the migrant households to open bank accounts. A large section of the migrant families save money at the chit fund while this institution is not much used by the non-migrant families. None of the families save money with the SHGs while money is kept at the post office by 4.9 per cent and 1.5 per cent of the migrant and non-migrant families respectively. A marginal section of the both type of families save money in the other institutions (Table 6.16).

Table 6.16 : Distribution of Families by the Institution for Saving Money

Institution	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No	As%	No	As%
Bank	78	42.2	138	52.3
Post Office	9	4.9	4	1.5
LIC	82	44.3	111	42.0
SHG	0	0.0	0	0.0
Chit Fund	54	29.2	10	3.8
Others	5	2.7	1	0.4

2.4 Access to Entitlement

Under the various development schemes of central and state governments, poor people are entitled to get different types of benefit. In the present section, an analysis of the access to the entitlement of the migrant and non-migrant families has been done.

i. Possession of Entitlement Documents

Table 6.17 : Distribution of Households having Entitlement Documents

Documents	No. of Families			
	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of Families	As%	No. of Families	As%
Having Ration Card of BPL Category	96	19.2	92	18.4
Having General Ration Card	36	7.2	343	68.6
Having no ration card	368	73.6	65	13.0
Having Voter ID	342	68.4	428	85.6
Having no Voter ID	158	31.6	72	14.4
Having Adhar Card	178	35.6	343	68.6
Having no Adhar Card	322	64.4	157	31.4
Having KMC's Health Card	4	0.8	32	6.4
Having no KMC's Health Card	496	99.2	468	93.6
Having Job Card (100 Days)	23	4.6	3	0.6
Having no Job Card (100 Days)	477	95.4	497	99.4
Having Birth Certificate	368	73.6	372	74.4
Having no Birth Certificate	132	26.4	128	25.6

The Residential Address of Voter ID card as well as Adhar Card of Migrant families is not revealed.

The entitlement scenario both among the migrant and non-migrant families is not impressive though the latter group shows a better picture to the some extent. Only 19.2 per cent of the migrant families have Ration Card of BPL category (Government is not bound to provide BPL card to the migrant families which have no citizen proof but in some of the slums BPL survey is going on) while almost three-fourth families do not possess any type of ration card. The non- migrant families could not show any better picture in terms of BPL card but majority of them have general ration card. Only 13 per cent of them have no type of ration card. One of the reasons of the migrant families with no ration card is due to the fact that a large section of them have left their ration card at native place. As they are not residing at the present location on permanent basis, they did not transfer their ration card to that address. Though majority of the families of both the categories have voter ID card, the percentage is higher in case of non- migrant than migrant families. In case of Adhar card, the scenario of the two categories of respondents is just opposite. 68.6 per cent of the non-migrant families have Adhar card while 64.4 per cent of the migrant families don't have it. There is not much difference between them in terms of KMC health card. Almost none of the migrant families have so far received this card while only 32 non-migrant families comprising 6.4 per cent of the total (500) have this card. KMC has issued job card to some of the BPL families under 100 days employment programme but almost none of the non-migrant families have received it while only 4.6 per cent of the migrant families have access to this facility. The scenario of birth certificate is same for both types of respondents. Three-fourths of both the categories have availed the document (Table 6.17).

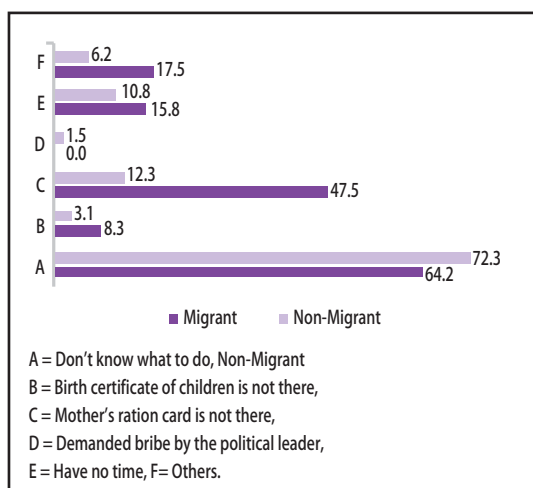
ii. Reasons for Not Getting Any Document

Table 6.18 : Reasons for Not Having Either BPL/APL Cards

Reason	No. of Migrant families having no BPL/APL Card		No. of Non-Migrant families having no BPL/APL Card	
	No	As%	No	As%
Don't know what to do	77	64.2	47	72.3
Birth certificate of children is not there	10	8.3	2	3.1
Mother's ration card is not there	57	47.5	8	12.3
Demanded bribe by the political leader	0	0.0	1	1.5
Have no time	19	15.8	7	10.8
Others	21	17.5	4	6.2

The respondent families those who have no ration card, have shown different reasons behind it. Even sometimes, more than one reason worked for it. Most of the families of both the categories do not know what to do for getting it. Almost half of the migrant families could not get it for the children as mother's ration card is not there while 8.3 per cent families have no birth certificate of the children. 16 per cent have no time while 17.5 per cent families showed other reasons. All these reasons have been mentioned by the non-migrant families but at lower percentage. No migrant family mentioned about bribe demanded by the political leader while only one non- migrant family mentioned about it (Table 6.18).

Figure 6.4 : Reasons for not having Documents



iii. Participation in Casting Vote (if having Voter ID Card)

Table 6.19 : No of Families (who have Voter ID Card) Who Cast Vote in Last General Election

Type of Families	No. of Household having Voter Card	No. of Households casting vote			
		Yes	As%	No	As%
Migrant	342	326	95.3	16	4.7
Non Migrant	428	421	98.4	7	1.6
Total	770	747	97.01	23	2.99

770 out of 1000 have voter ID card; of them, 747 or 97.01 per cent cast vote in the last general election, the figures being 95.3 per cent and 98.4 per cent for migrant and non-migrant families respectively. Only 23 families did not cast vote (Table 6.19). But the reasons for not casting vote by these 23 families are explained in Table 6.20. Most of the migrant families showed the reason of losing the day's earning behind it. Among the seven non-migrant families of this category, only three showed the same reason while four mentioned other reasons.

Table 6.20 : Reasons Behind not Casting Vote

Reasons	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HH	As%	No. of HH	As%
Lose of a day's Earning	14	87.5	3	42.9
Not Allowed to cast vote	1	6.3	0	0.0
To cast vote is meaningless	0	0.0	0	0.0
Others	1	6.3	4	57.1
Total	16	100.0	7	100.0

Source : Field Survey

2.5. Living in the City : Basic Amenities and Social Environment

i. Access to Basic Amenities

In the present section we discuss whether the migrant households have access to the minimum basic amenities like shelter, water supply, sanitation, electricity and health facilities that are necessary for them and the condition if such facilities. A comparative analysis with non-migrant households is presented to understand the differences if any between these two groups.

Shelter

Table 6.21 shows the ownership pattern of shelters of the households. It is observed that more migrant households (66.2%) live in their own houses than the non-migrant households (46.4%). Even though it is surprising, the reason for this is that poor migrants as soon as they come to the city try to make a jhuggi with even dilapidated materials on unauthorized land which they call their own shelter (though it is questionable from legal point of view). In the authorised and registered slums there is no place for construction of new premises. Therefore, more non-migrant households (52%) live in rented places than the migrant households (33.6%). Sometimes, the shelters are provided under some political programme as well to these migrant households in unauthorized localities as well. Our FGD in Majdoor Bastee suggests many of the residents in this bastee who are relatively recent migrants from South and North 24 Parganas after the 2009 cyclone Aila that uprooted them from their homes, have been given huts made of bamboo mats and tiled roof by a political big wig in the area and a NGO called World Vision.

Table 6.21 : Distribution of Households by Ownership Pattern of Shelter

Ownership pattern	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	HHs	As%	HHs	As%
Owned	331	66.2	232	46.4
Rented	168	33.6	260	52.0
Shared with others	1	0.2	8	1.6
Total	500	100	500	100

Table 6.22 projects the type of structure the households live in. The majority of migrant households (64%) live in jhupris and in kuchha huts (23.8%). In case of non-migrant household these percentages are only 15.8 and 6.2. Most of the non-migrant households live in semi-pucca houses (72%). A few of them live in pucca houses as well (6%).

Table 6.22 : Distribution of Households by Type of Structure of Shelter

Type of Structure	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	HHs	As%	HHs	As%
Jhupri	320	64.0	79	15.8
Kutchha Hut	119	23.8	31	6.2
Semi Pucca	54	10.8	360	72.0
Pucca	7	1.4	30	6
Total	500	100	500	100

Drinking Water

The supply of water is a perennial problem for the households. KMC standpost is the primary source of water for all household- both migrants and non-migrants. Even though the unauthorized squatters occupied by the migrants are not supposed to be provided with the water supply facilities by the KMC, they still manage to get the water from the nearby stand post (Table 6.23).

Tube well is also a source of water for a few households (15.8%). But these water sources are inadequate for the whole locality. In Majdoor Basti, for example, only one water tap is available nearby. It also came to light during FGD in a migrant slum in Jhilpara in ward 108, that there is no drinking water facility in the place near their locality. They have to fetch water from a distant place by van rickshaw or a bi-cycle. Non-migrant household on the other hand are better served with public water supply. The households in a non-migrant slum in Kripanath Datta lane in ward 6 said during FGD that they have 24 hour water supply near their slum even though one water connection is not enough for the entire slum. In places like Rajdanga Vivekananda Pally in ward 107 and in Pagladanga, the KMC water tankers supply drinking water on weekly basis. In Indira Pally slum in Brace Bridge area the migrant households who are Banjaras (Nomads) have to cross the railway track to fetch water from the only KMC water tap lying on other side of the slum.

Table 6.23 : Distribution of Households by Source of Drinking Water

Source of Drinking Water	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	HHs	As%	HHs	As%
KMC Stand Post	421	84.2	500	100
Tube Well	79	15.8	0	0.0
Pond	0	0.0	0	0.0
Dug Well	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	500	100	500	100

Sanitation

It is well documented that the most important basic necessity that is lacking in the poor localities in urban areas is the toilet facility. Table 6.24 shows that majority of households (57.4% migrant and 59.4% non-migrant) are having toilet facilities outside their premises. However, surprisingly the table shows that more migrant households (42.6%) have access to toilets within premises than the non-migrant households (40.6%). But a clear picture emerges when we look at the type of latrines the migrant and non-migrant households use (Table 6.25). It is observed that a majority of non-migrant households are using flush latrines and the pit latrines (53.6% and 40% respectively). Less than one-third (32%) migrant households on the other hand are using pour flush latrines. A big percentage (25.8) of households uses hanging type toilets which are most insanitary. The migrant households living in unauthorized land beside the big nallas and water bodies erect this kind of makeshift toilet which they call their own toilets within premises. The non-migrant households do

not have that privilege of spare space to make this type of toilet, neither they have permission from KMC to do this. Therefore, in most cases they have to use community toilets or shared latrines provided by the KMC or the landlords outside their premises. In Majddor Basti and Jhilpara, the migrant slums, the participants said during FGD that many people use individual toilet made up of bamboo over the nearby pond.

Table 6.24 : Distribution of Households by Sanitation Facility

Location of Sanitation	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	HHs	As%	HHs	As%
Within Premises	213	42.6	203	40.6
Outside Premises	287	57.4	297	59.4
Total	500	100	500	100

Table 6.25 : Distribution of Household by Type of Latrine

Type of Latrine	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	HHs	As%	HHs	As%
Pour Flush	160	32.0	268	53.6
Pit Latrine	169	33.8	200	40
Hanging Type	129	25.8	21	4.2
Open Defecation	42	8.4	11	2.2
Total	500		500	

Drainage

A significant percentage (41.2) of migrant households in most of the slums does not have any drainage facility (Table 6.26). Only 13.4% households in non-migrant category on the other hand, said that they do not have any drainage facility. In fact as high as 74.4% households in this category said they have closed drains, and only 12% households have open drains.

Table 6.26 : Distribution of Households by Drainage System

Drainage System	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HHs	As%	No. of HHs	As%
Open Drain	73	14.6	61	12.2
Closed Drain	221	44.2	372	74.4
No Drain	206	41.2	67	13.4
Total	500	100	500	100

Electricity

The migrant households are in a much disadvantaged position so far as access to electricity facility is concerned (Table 6.27). While 92.2% non-migrant households are having electricity connection, in case of migrant households this facility is available for 53% households only. Only Kamardanga slum in non-migrant category has 17 households without any electricity facility. All the other surveyed slums in this category have 100 per cent households with this

facility. The obvious reason for not having electricity for the 47% migrant households who do not have this connection is primarily the factor that they do not have and legal sanction from CESC to have this facility (77.9%) since their slums are not authorized by the KMC (Table 6.28). For 19.6% households the reason for not having electricity is that they cannot afford to have the facility. The Jhilpara slum with migrant households said during FGD that they have no electricity. The migrants in Canal West Road beside the canal have to survive only with street light. Inside their jhupries they depend on kerosene lamps and lanterns for cooking and other activities. Majdoor Basti, another migrant slum on the other hand has all the huts with electricity connection. In these cases the connections are primarily taken by illegal hooking from the nearby electric pole with some political support.

Table 6.27 : Distribution of Households by Electricity Connection

Electricity Connection	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HHs	As%	No. of HHs	As%
Having electricity	265	53.0	461	92.2
Not having Electricity	235	47.0	39	7.8
Total	500	100	500	100

Table 6.28 : Reason for not having Electricity Connection

HHs	No of HHs with Electricity	Reason for not having Electricity connection		
		Area not Electrified	No legal right to have CESE Connection	Can't Afford
Migrants	235	6	183	46
As %	47.0	2.6	77.9	19.6
Non-Migrants	39	0	34	5
As %	7.8	0.0	87.2	12.8

Waste Disposal

Garbage disposal facility is almost non-existent in migrant slums. Table 6.29 shows 71.6% households throw garbage in open space. In case on non-migrant households that percentage is only 23%. KMC services like vats or mobile conservancy van for door to door collection are available to 42.8% and 34.2% non-migrant households respectively. These services are available only to 21.6% and 6.8% household in migrant slums. In Taltala Basti, a non-migrant slum, the FGD participants said that they are provided with all services by the KMC. For garbage cleaning a daily sweeper is allotted to this slum by KMC to keep the area clean. KMC has put a garbage disposal van also nearby for daily garbage disposal.

Table 6.29 : Distribution of HHs by availability of Garbage Disposal Facility

Point of Garbage Disposal	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HHs	As%	No. of HHs	As%
KMC Vat	108	21.6	214	42.8
Open Space	358	71.6	115	23.0
KMC mobile conservancy	34	6.8	171	34.2
Total	500	100.0	500	100.0

Road

The condition of road is also not very good in the migrant slums (Table 6.30). While 88.6% households in non-migrant slums enjoy the facility of concrete road, only 26% households in migrant slums enjoy the similar facility. The migrant slums in unauthorized locations are not provided with any road facility. Therefore majority of them have to depend on un-surfaced kachha roads (62.6% households).

Table 6.30 : Distribution of Households by Type of Road Used

Nature of Road	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HHs	As%	No. of HHs	As%
Black Topped/Concrete	131	26.2	443	88.6
Un- surfaced / kutchra road	313	62.6	45	9.0
No road	56	11.2	12	2.4
Total	500	100.0	500	100.0

However, water logging problem almost equally affect the migrant and non-migrant households. Because of deficiencies in the drainage system Kolkata city experiences large scale water logging in several parts of the city. Table 6.30 shows 59.6% of migrant households and 52.4% of non migrant households suffer from the water logging problem.

Table 6.31 : Distribution of Households by Water Logging Problem During Rainy Season

Problem Faced	Migrant		Non-migrant	
	No. of HHs	As%	No. of HHs	As%
Yes	298	59.6	262	52.4
No	202	40.4	238	47.6
Total	500	100.0	500	100.0

ii. Healthcare Services

The availability of healthcare services is an acute necessity for both the migrant and non-migrant households who live in slums. The incidence of falling sick is quite high in slum areas because of unsatisfactory basic services and environmental conditions that prevail in these localities. Table 6.31 shows in the last 3 months preceding our survey almost equal number of adult and children (349 migrant and 387 non-migrants) fell sick because of various reasons. The health care facility availed by the slum dwellers in both the migrant and non-migrant slums vary from public facilities to private ones. Table 6.31 shows that sick persons in migrant category use more of government facilities than private hospitals and private doctors.

But both the category prefer government facility if available nearby. The number of sick persons using government facility in non-migrant category is much more than the migrant category (62.5% and 51.2% respectively). The percentage of persons consulting private doctors is much higher for migrant households than non-migrants (46.1 and 28.9 respectively). The use of expensive private doctor's service by the poor people is usually caused by two reasons: either the government hospital is not available nearby or the person prefers not to go to a

government hospital because of long waiting period which might lead to a loss of a day's earning. In Majdoor Basti slum of migrant households, the participants in the FGD said they prefer going to the private doctor who is nearby and there is no government hospital around.

Table 6.32 : Sickness of the Residents and Availability of Healthcare Services

Type of Family	No. of Surveyed member	No. of family sick last 3 months	No. of member sick (Adult +Child)	Treatment facility availed by no. of members						
				Govt. Hospital	Private Hospital	KMC Ward Health Unit	Private Doctor	Angan wadi Centre	Others	None
Migrant	2242	293	346	150	2	24	135	0	9	0
As %		58.6	15.4	51.2	0.7	8.2	46.1	0.0	3.1	0.0
Non-Migrant	2506	291	387	182	12	19	84	0	7	1
As %		58.2	15.4	62.5	4.1	6.5	28.9	0.0	2.4	0.3

iii. Social Environment

We asked the respondents during survey about the social surroundings they live in, their perception about the safety and security in their locality. Table 6.32 suggests that according to the respondents both migrants and non-migrants, the places where they live are free from all vices. A vast majority of all the households in both migrant and non-migrant slums expressed that the locality is peaceful, safe for women, not infested by criminals, though alcoholism is a problem in migrant slums as 56.4% said so, in case of non-migrant slums this is also not a problem.

Table 6.33 : Distribution of Households by Condition for Social Environment

Social Environment	No. of HHs							
	Migrant				Non-migrant			
	Yes	As%	No	As%	Yes	As%	No	As%
Is the locality peaceful	388	77.6	112	22.4	380	76.0	120	24.0
Is it safe for women & children	398	79.6	102	20.4	474	94.8	26	5.2
Is it criminal infested area	106	21.2	394	78.8	24	4.8	476	95.2
Is it violence prone	47	9.4	453	90.6	24	4.8	476	95.2
Problem of alcoholism	282	56.4	218	43.6	67	13.4	433	86.6

However the social environment in all slums is not as rosy as it appeared in the survey. In our FGDs a different picture emerged in some of the slums. In Majdoor Basti, a migrant slum, the participants in the FGD said,

The area is infested with drunkards and drug addicts, criminal activities are very common, domestic violence and eve-teasing are common incidences, social environment is not so peaceful and children are also involved in various criminal activities and take drugs.

The experience of households in the migrant slum in Brace Bridge, Taratala is also similar. They said in FGD that most of the male members in the slum are addicted to country liquor, which results in domestic violence. Trafficking of girl child was a major problem in the locality which now has come down.

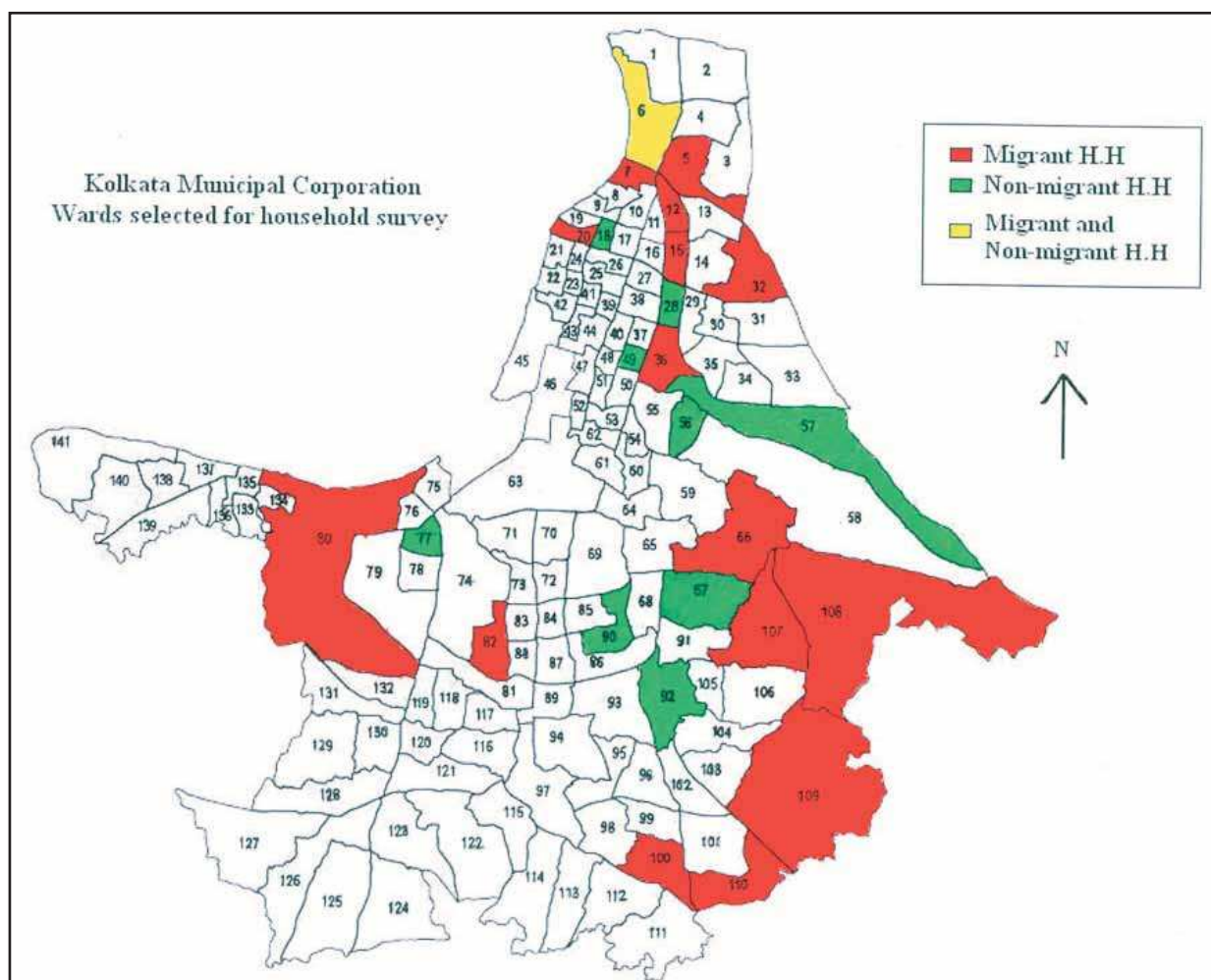
2.6 Conclusion

The analysis of the field survey data in the present chapter brings forth a difference between the migrant and non-migrant households and also inter-slums and intra-slum differences in various aspects of social background, economic status and also access to basic amenities. The households in non-migrant category are in a better position in income status and ownership of entitlement documents. Also, because of their long stay in the city and authorisation of the legal status of their slums the migrant households are served much better by the civic authorities than the households in migrant slums in terms of civic amenities like water, sanitation, electricity and other services.

Annex 6.1
List of Slums Covered under Questionnaire Survey

Migrants Households			
Sl. No.	Name of the Slum/Squatter	Ward No.	No. of Household Covered
1.	Tala Park	5	14
2.	Ramkrishna Mukherjee Road, Bagbazar Lock Gate to Tala Bridge	6	32
3.	37, Chitpur	7	2
4.	46, Canal West Road, Opposite to Ultadanga Post Office	12	43
5.	Canal West Road	15	6
6.	Nimtala Burning Ghat	20	23
7.	28/1, Murari Pukur Lane	32	15
8.	Khalpar Canal West, Kolkata – 700009	36	1
9.	Majdoor Bustee	66	47
10.	Near Brace Bridge Railway Station	80	47
11.	113 Chetla	82	17
12.	128 Gorla Road	100	1
13.	Prantik Pally	107	12
14.	RajdangaNarkelBaganKhalpar	107	40
15.	No. 3 Kalikapur	108, 109	28
16.	No. 4 R R Plot near Ruby Hospital	108	41
17.	Garia Birjee	110	59
18.	Garia Birjee Gazi Bustee	110	44
19.	Birjee Road Purba Para & Mondal Para	110	41
	Total		500
Non-migrant Households			
1.	Ghosh Bagan Slum	6	50
2.	19, 21, 22 Masjidbari Street	18	50
3.	Kamardanga Slum	56	50
4.	Swinhoe Lane Slum	67	50
5.	21, 22, 23, 24 & 31 Panchanantala Road	90	50
6.	2 No. Bipradas Street	28	50
7.	B. B. Ganguly Street Slum	49	50
8.	M M Ali Road		50
9.	Pagla Danga Slum	57	50
10.	Teliapara Slum	92	50
	Total		500

Annex 6.2



Annex 6.3

List of Slum/Squatter Settlements Selected for Focus Group Discussions

Sl. No.	Name of the Slum/Squatter	Ward No.	Migrant/Non-migrant
1.	46, Canal West Road, Opposite to Ultadanga Post Office	12	Migrant
2.	MajdoorBustee	66	Migrant
3.	Indira Pally, near Brace Bridge Railway Station	80	Migrant
4.	RajdangaNarkelBaganKhalpar	107	Migrant
5.	No. 4 R R Plot near Ruby Hospital	108	Migrant
6.	Nonadanga Lake Pally	108	Migrant
7.	GariaBirjee	110	Migrant
8.	4, KripanathDutta Lane	6	Non-migrant
9.	Taltala Bustee	28	Non-migrant
10.	8, Pagla Danga Road	57	Non-migrant



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Chapter 7

Children of Migrant and Non-Migrant Poor : Human Development Perspectives

1. Introduction

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990) and the Millennium Development Goals (2000), to which India is a signatory, have put a strong emphasis on improvement in the condition of children around the world and ensuring certain minimum standards for the protection and sustenance of children. To achieve the mandate of such international agreements, there are several legislations, policies and programmes of Government of India and state governments which are aimed at improving the nutrition, health, sanitation and educational levels of the children.

In this chapter the condition of children of the migrant and non-migrant poor in Kolkata city is discussed

based on our primary survey. The chapter is divided into the following sections. The first section explores the access of the children to the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme, popularly known as Anganwadi Centres. The second looks at status and problems associated with school education for the children in the survey. The third section discusses the achievements and problems related to sanitation, basic healthcare and immunisation. The fourth section examines the extent of child labour among the surveyed households and the related issues. The fifth section explores issues related to child protection. The sixth section discusses the hopes and aspiration of the children in age group 10-14 years. The final section summarises the key findings of the chapter and points out certain policy implications. Each section has discussed, through evidence from household survey and Focus Group Discussions some of the key issues which affect the conditions of children. This chapter, however, does not discuss the living condition of the children as that is being discussed in Chapter 6 as part of a general discussion on living conditions. This chapter is also not considering single migrant children living in the city without their parents as another chapter has looked into it in detail (Chapter 8).

Before proceeding further we take note of the number of children being covered under the household survey. It can be seen that 500 migrant households and 500 non-migrant households have been covered in the survey. Total number of migrant individuals was 2295 and total number of non-migrant individuals was 2506 in the sample. In the age group 0-5 years there were 402 children of migrant households and 288 children of non-migrant households. In the age group 6-14 years there were 618 children of migrant households and 521 children of non-migrant households.

Table 7. 1: Child Population in the Household Survey

Category	No of Households	No of Household members	0-5 years	As%	6-14 years	As%
Migrant	500	2295	402	17.5	618	26.9
Non-Migrant	500	2506	288	11.5	521	20.9

2. Children and Human Development

2.1 Integrated Child Development Services

The results of the field survey conducted to see the performance of ICDS centres in the study areas are presented below.

Table 7.2 : Distribution of Children (0-5 yrs) who attend Anganwadi Centre

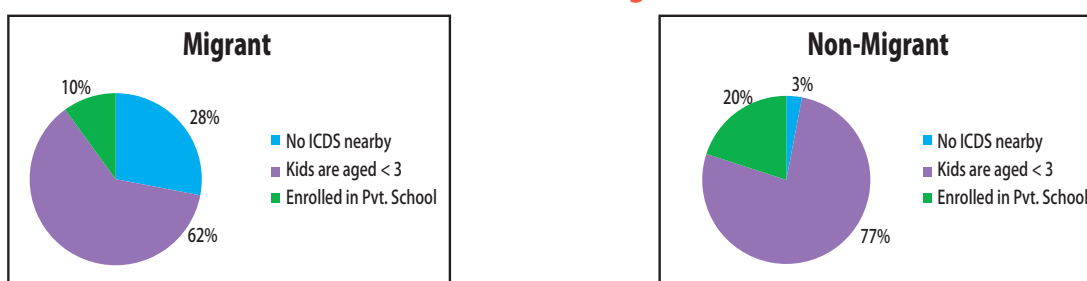
Type of HHs	No of Children aged 0-5			
	Total no children aged 0-5	Attend ICDS centre	Get Supplementary food	Attend Pre-school under ICDS
Migrant HHs	402	162	139	134
As %		40.2	34.6	33.3
Non Migrant HHs	288	144	140	120
As %		50.0	48.6	41.7
Total	690	306	279	254

It can be seen from the above table that only 40.2% of children from migrant families and 50% of children from non-migrant families attend ICDS centre. The percentage of those who attend pre-school is even lower – 34.6% for migrant households and 41.7% for non-migrant households. Thus the survey clearly point out that a large number of children do not attend ICDS centres. The number is higher among the children from migrant households than from non-migrant households. Table 7.3 explores the reasons behind the low percentage of enrollment in ICDS.

Table 7.3 : Reason for not Attending ICDS Centre

Reasons	Migrant HHs		Non-migrant HHs	
	No. of Children	As%	No. of Children	As%
No ICDS nearby	67	27.9	4	2.8
Children less than 3 years ¹	149	62.1	111	77.1
Enrolled in private school	24	10.0	29	20.1
Total no of Children not attend ICDS Centre	240		144	

Reasons for not attending ICDS centres



The survey further attempted to find out what are the reasons behind children not attending ICDS centres. The most important reason for both migrants and non-migrants is that some children are less than 3 years old. However 28% of the migrant households have said that there is no ICDS centre nearby in comparison to 3% of non-migrant households. This point towards the fact that there is a shortage of ICDS centres in areas where migrant children live. It is also interesting to note that there is a trend towards sending children to private pre-schools – 10% of the migrant households and 20% of the non-migrant households have sent their children to pre-schools that are not government schools.

The study team conducted ten Focus Group Discussions where the opinion of the parents regarding ICDS centres was sought. The study team also visited some of the ICDS centres. The result found was mixed and uneven. However on the whole one can say that the quality of the ICDS centres fall well short of the minimum standards prescribed in the draft Quality Standards of ECCE mentioned below.

¹ Children below the age of 3 are considered old enough to go to the ICDS centres.

Quality Standards for ECCE (draft), Ministry of Women and Child Development, GoI

“This quality criterion states upfront the following non-negotiables which must be made available to all children attending any kind of ECCE provision:

- Duration of the ECCE programme should be 3-4 hours.
- Classroom measuring 35 square meters for a group of 30 children and availability of 30 square meters of outdoor space for a group of 30 children.
- The building should be structurally safe and within easy approach. It should be clean and should have surrounding green area.
- Clean potable water should be available.
- Separate toilets for girls and boys should be available.
- Immediate health service in terms of First Aid/ Medical Kit should be available at the centre.
- Adequate trained staff should be appointed.
- There should be provision of adequate developmentally appropriate toys and learning materials.
- Space should be allocated for cooking meals and nap time for children”. (pp.3-4)

Source : [http://wcd.nic.in/schemes/ECCE/Quality_Standards_for_ECCE3%20\(7\).pdf](http://wcd.nic.in/schemes/ECCE/Quality_Standards_for_ECCE3%20(7).pdf)

The group discussions mostly brought out a sorry state of affairs of the ICDS centres in the localities where migrants live. Most of the ICDS centres are cramped for space and sometimes do not have safe concrete structures, let alone proper toilets and playing facilities. To make matters worse, many children do not have access to ICDS centre at all. There has been complains of insects being found in the food being served to the children. On the positive side the study team did not receive any complain regarding the Anganwadi workers and their commitment to their job. In the three Focus Group Discussions with non-migrant population we did not find any complain among the parents regarding the ICDS centres, which point towards the fact that the condition of the children in non-migrant population is slightly better. This does not however mean that the condition is satisfactory. Regarding the quality of education in the ICDS centres the participants in the FGD were not able to say much as the men and women were themselves mostly uneducated and not in a position to comment on what their children were learning in the ICDS centres. The study team is of the opinion that ICDS centres are primarily seen as “Khichuri School”, i.e. places where children are given some food rather than “pre-schools” where children are taught. Whether children are getting adequately educated in the centres are as of now not an important question for the largely uneducated parents.

In Majdoor Basti, a migrant slum in ward 66 the participants expressed worries about the poor condition of the ICDS centre because of which the children do not want to come to the centre for pre-school education. Therefore, a large number of children of age group 3-6 years of the locality do not attend the pre-school run by ICDS centre even though the area has four ICDS centres. ISS research team visited one of the four ICDS centres. The centre is operated from a club called the “Moon Light Club” which is a narrow room made up of “dorma” (Bamboo mat) and brick tiles. The room has neither electric connection nor has any window which can lit the

room and therefore is very dark with only one source of light coming from the door. During summer the inside of the room becomes hot and humid which causes lot of discomfort to the children. As one woman present during the FGD said,

“My kids do not want to come here (ICDS centre) as it is very hot over here and whenever they come they start crying. And that’s why I don’t send them regularly.”

The floor is uneven and has big holes in it and is also very unclean and untidy. When we visited the centre, an Anganwadi worker was cleaning the dishes inside the room making it more unhygienic. Food is cooked inside this dark room. On asking the Anganwadi worker, what they felt about the present condition of their ICDS Centre, a worker said that they have appealed many a times to improve the condition but without any result.

In Kripa Nath Dutta Road, a migrant slum in ward 6 of KMC the picture is quite opposite. The ICDS centre operates in the premise of a local club, Pradeep Sangha. Children of age group 0-6 years old come to the centre regularly as reported by the FGD participants. The women present in the Focus Group Discussion said that the meal given by the ICDS centre is of good quality. The ICDS workers regularly conduct home visits and ask the parents individually to send their children to the centre. The participants said that they are satisfied with ICDS centre and its workers. ICDS centre also organizes immunization programmes and health check up camps for lactating mothers and their children.

At Birjee (ward 110) and Nonadanga Lake Pally (ward 108) the participants said the children less than 6 years go to the ICDS centres and mothers and children get meals regularly and the children were also taught by the teachers. The Birjee ICDS centre is spacious, well lit and clean as well.

2.2 Elementary Education

India, for many years has shown a policy level commitment to universal education. Apart from state specific programmes the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, a national programme, was aimed at achieving universal free education for the children of the country. Recently, the Right To Education Act (2009) of India has guaranteed the following provisions for the children of India in age group 6-14:

- (i) Right of children to free and compulsory education till completion of elementary education in a neighbourhood school.
- (ii) RTE clarifies that ‘compulsory education’ means obligation of the appropriate government to provide free elementary education and ensure compulsory admission, attendance and completion of elementary education to every child in the six to fourteen age group. ‘Free’ means that no child shall be liable to pay any kind of fee or charges or expenses which may prevent him or her from pursuing and completing elementary education.
- (iii) RTE makes provisions for a non-admitted child to be admitted to an age appropriate class.
- (iv) RTE specifies the duties and responsibilities of appropriate Governments, local authority and parents in providing free and compulsory education, and sharing of financial and other responsibilities between the Central and State Governments.

- (v) RTE lays down the norms and standards relating inter alia to Pupil Teacher Ratios (PTRs), buildings and infrastructure, school-working days, teacher-working hours.
- (vi) RTE provides for rational deployment of teachers by ensuring that the specified pupil teacher ratio is maintained for each school, rather than just as an average for the State or District or Block, thus ensuring that there is no urban-rural imbalance in teacher postings. It also provides for prohibition of deployment of teachers for non-educational work, other than decennial census, elections to local authority, state legislatures and parliament, and disaster relief.
- (vii) RTE provides for appointment of appropriately trained teachers, i.e. teachers with the requisite entry and academic qualifications.
- (viii) RTE prohibits (a) physical punishment and mental harassment; (b) screening procedures for admission of children; (c) capitation fee; (d) private tuition by teachers and (e) running of schools without recognition,
- (ix) RTE provides for development of curriculum in consonance with the values enshrined in the Constitution, and which would ensure the all-round development of the child, building on the child's knowledge, potentiality and talent and making the child free of fear, trauma and anxiety through a system of child friendly and child centred learning.

The results of the field survey related to education of the children are presented below.

Table 7.4 : Schooling Status of Children Aged 6 -14 by Type of HHs

Type of Family	No. of HHs surveyed	No of family having children aged-6-14	Schooling Status			
			Never sent to School	Drop-out	Going to School	Total
No of Migrant HHs	500	357	48	39	531	618
As %	100.0	71.4	7.8	6.3	85.9	100.0
No of Non-Migrant HHs	500	362	5	8	508	521
As %	100.0	72.4	1.0	1.5	97.5	100.0

It can be seen from Table 7.4 that there is significant difference in both enrolment and drop out data between the migrant and the non-migrant poor. While 7.8% of children of migrant poor have never been to school only 1% children of non-migrant have not enrolled for school. Similarly in case of drop out also one can see that 6.3% of the children of migrant households have dropped out of school whereas the corresponding figure for non-migrant households is only 1.5%. This points toward a relatively better position of the non-migrant population in terms of the education of the children.

The above table (7.5) breaks down the data on reasons for not enrolling in school. While there are examples of girls not being sent to school because of prejudices against the girl child among the migrant group (4.2%) the most important reason for not sending the girl or the boy to school is economic² and to some extent health (39.6% for boys and 27.1% for girls). It is also significant

Table 7.5 : Reason for Non- Enrollment in School by Number of Children Aged 6-14

Reason	No. of children belonging to Migrant Family					No. of children belonging to Non Migrant Family				
	Boys	As%	Girls	As%	Total	Boys	As%	Girls	As%	Total
Educating Girl child useless	0	0.0	2	4.2	2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Engaged in economic activity	5	10.4	1	2.1	6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Have no means to send child to school	2	4.2	0	0.0	2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Have no time to send child school	5	10.4	1	2.1	6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Any other (Financial problem, sickness)	19	39.6	13	27.1	32	1	20.0	4	80.0	5
Total	31	64.6	17	35.4	48	1	20.0	4	80.0	5

to note that among the migrant population more boys have never been sent to school than girls. Thus one can say that it is not social values but economic factors which have prevented the families from sending their children to school.

Table 7.6 : Reason for Drop-out of School by Number of Children aged 6-14

Reason	No. of children belonging to Migrant Family					No. of children belonging to Non Migrant Family				
	Boys	As%	Girls	As%	Total	Boys	As%	Girls	As%	Total
Educating Girl child useless	0	0.0	3	7.7	3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Engaged in economic activity	4	10.3	2	5.1	6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Have no means to send child to school	2	5.1	0	0.0	2	2	40.0	2	40.0	4
Have no time to send child school	1	2.6	0	0.0	1	1	20.0	0	0.0	1
Any other (Financial problem, Physical Problem)	16	41.0	11	28.2	27	2	40.0	1	20.0	3
Total	23	59.0	16	41.0	39	5	100.0	3	60.0	8

The data on drop-out also points towards economic reasons being the most important one rather than cultural or social. It can be seen that 41% have cited boys of migrants have dropped out because of financial difficulties and 10.3% have said that the boys are engaged in economic activity and therefore they have dropped out. For girls also the primary reason is financial problem (28.2%) and the fact that they have already started to earn (5.1%). Social prejudice against girls however does exist (7.7%).

² Although primary school education is technically “free”, i.e. all costs are borne by the Government; the families concerned are too poor to send them to school. Sending a child to school involves certain costs such as transport cost if the school is not located within walking distance. Private tuition is also considered a normal expenditure for a school going child. If the family is very poor then the children also help out in household activities and even in earning for the family.

Table 7.7 : Accessibility of Mid- Day Meal by Number of School Going Children (aged 6-14)

Type of HHs	Total no. Of Children aged 6-14	No of children attending school	Accessibility of mid day meal	
			No. of Children access	No. of children do not access
No of Migrant	618	531	460	71
As %		85.9	86.62	13.37
No of Non Migrant	521	509	447	62
As %		97.7	87.81	12.87

In terms of the access to mid-day meals Table 7.7 shows that more than 10% of both the children of migrants (13.37) as well as children of non-migrants (12.87) do not have access to mid-day meals. Field visits and discussions with parents have brought out the fact there is concern about the quality of the mid-day meals.

The study team found a fairly uniform pattern across all ten areas where the Focus Group Discussions were held, except for Brace Bridge where the population is of a somewhat special category. The respondents showed uniform willingness to send their children to primary school. They also realize that their children need private tuition and try their best to arrange for it although cost is a significant issue. Usually there is no discrimination among boys and girls in terms of sending them to primary schools. However for the children not completing education up to Class VIII is not unusual and many children start earning at an early age when they are supposed to be in school. It is also quite rare for children to carry on with education after Class VIII. The most important reason cited is the cost of education which is considered to be prohibitive. In the FGD at Kripa Nath Datta Road it came out that the minimum cost of education beyond Class VIII is:

- (a) Private Tuition – Rs 600-800 per month
- (b) Admission – Rs 1000 per annum
- (c) Books/Stationeries – Rs 800 – 900 per annum
- (d) Uniform – Rs 1000 per annum

In Majdoor Basti a woman named Shakila Bibi, around thirty five years of age, said that her sons collect bottles to earn money as their father is unwell and the youngest son who is six years of age does not attend school and stays at home.

In Nonadanga Lake Pally, the group complained that there is no primary or secondary school in the nearby locality as a result of which the children have to travel far. Drop-out from school or not enrolling at all is not uncommon. Since the nearest government primary school is at some distance the children have to pay for the transportation which every family cannot afford. There is a private school nearby which charges Rs 40 per month and some parents send their children to this school. However the parents who send their children to this school also complained that the school does not have toilets for the children. The group complained about the quality of the mid-day meal. One mother said:

“The rice served in the mid-day meals often have insects in it. My children come home crying as they couldn’t eat anything the whole afternoon. Now I pack them lunch so that they don’t have to starve.”

Other participants in the group agreed with the lady.

In no FGD the study team found any awareness regarding Right to Education. The parents, being mostly uneducated, were not aware of quality issues of education but the fact that they almost uniformly believed in the necessity of private tuition shows that they are not relying completely on the education provided in the Government schools. Needless to say the respondents did not belong to an economic class where they can send their children to private schools which are usually considered better. The response regarding mid-day meal varied. While some were satisfied, others complained of the poor quality of the food provided.

2.3 Sanitation, Basic Health and Immunisation

Government of India has specific programmes for the improvement of sanitation, basic health and immunisation of its citizens. All children are supposed to be provided free immunisation and Primary Health Centres are supposed to give free healthcare services to the population. Apart from this in each ward Kolkata Municipal Corporation is also expected to provide free medical service to the poor. Under the Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Programme of Government of India make-shift latrines in urban India are supposed to be converted to water seal twin-pit sanitary latrines.

Table 7.8 : Children and Immunisation

Category	No of Family Members	No of children less than 6 years	No of Children Immunised ³	As%	No of children taken to pulse polio	As%
Migrant	2295	402	402	100	402	100
Non-migrant	2506	288	288	100	288	100

Table 7.8 clearly indicates that both migrants and non-migrant parents are aware of the need for immunisation and all children are fully immunised. This is a major success of the welfare programmes of the state aimed at immunisation of the children.

The situation regarding sanitation facilities and healthcare facilities are the same for both adults and children and therefore have been discussed in Chapter 6. It may be briefly pointed out that the migrant population to a large extent uses make-shift toilets and do not have proper toilets at home and community toilets are not popular as they are few in number and their cleanliness is an issue. For usual medical needs the parents of both migrant and non-migrant families utilize the support of private doctors whereas for more serious cases they go to government hospitals where treatment is free of cost.

³ By “immunised” it means the child has undergone the entire immunisation programme on time.

From the Focus Group Discussions conducted by the study team a fairly uniform picture of the situation regarding sanitation, health facilities and immunisation come out. Sanitation facility is usually quite poor. The community toilets built by the KMC are not popular and also inadequate in number. Cleanliness of the community toilets is an important problem pointed out by the respondents. In some cases the respondents use pay-and-use toilets in return for a fee but the usual form is open defecation through make-shift toilets. The respondents were mostly aware of the importance of immunisation and the children have mostly received full immunisation. In some cases the respondents have cited problem of relevant documents being destroyed due to fire or cyclone which has hampered the process of immunisation but such cases are exceptional. For every day medical problems the respondents usually prefer the service of private doctors even though they have to pay a fee but for more serious cases they usually avail the various Government run hospitals in the city. There were a few complaints against the Government hospitals but on the whole the respondents were happy with the medical facilities available in the city for them and considered it to be significantly better than that was available to them in rural areas.

2.4 Child Labour⁴

Both the survey and the FGDs have found evidence of child labour although the matter is sometimes not admitted by the respondents as it is a matter of shame for them. In Kolkata, as the Table 7.9 below shows, as per Census 2001 a total of 4.15% of the children in the age group of 6-14 are child labours.

Table 7.9 : Percentage of Child Labour to total Child Population (0-14) of Kolkata

Male	Female	Total
5.18 %	3.02 %	4.15%

Source : Census of India 2001

In the study area, the field-survey has not found any evidence of child-labour among the non-migrant population. However among the migrants 6.4% of the 6-14 population has been found to be child labours as is evident from Table 7.10.

Table 7. 10 : No. of Households Having Child Labour (6-14 yrs.)

Type of Household	No. of surveyed Households	No. of HHs having 6-14 yrs. Child	No. of family with child labourer
Migrant	500	357	23
As %	100.0	71.4	6.4
Non-Migrant	500	362	0
As %	100.0	72.4	0.0
Total	1000	719	23

⁴ Definition of "child labour" is as per Government of India's definition (age 5 -14) as used in Census 2001.

Table 7.11 : Distribution of Child Labour (6-14 yrs.) by Age & Sex

Age (Years)	No. of children in Migrant family		
	Boys	Girls	Total
6-10	7	0	7
As %	38.9	0.0	25.9
10+ - 14	11	9	20
As %	61.1	100.0	74.1
Total	18	9	27

If the child labour population is broken down into two age-groups, 6-10 and 10+ to 14 then one can see that in the age group 6-10 only boys are child labours (Table 7.11). On the other hand there is evidence to show that girls in the age group of 10+ to 14 years are also joining the child labour force. Overall more boys and fewer girls are joining the child labour force. As the girls usually work at home by helping mothers in child rearing and domestic work, their scope of joining the labour force outside is much less.

The survey tried to understand whether the children who have become child labours were once in school or whether they never joined school. It has been found in Table 7.12 that all of them had joined school once but had dropped out.

Table 7.12 : Schooling Status of Child Labour

Sex	Schooling Status		
	Never been to School	Dropped out	Still attending school
Boys	0	18	0
As %	0	66.7	0
Girls	0	9	0
As %	0	33.3	0
Total	0	27	0

What are the different types of activities in which the child labours participate? Among boys one can find them working in a domestic enterprise (3.7% for 6-10 and also 3.7% for 10-14%), working as domestic help (3.7% for 6-10 age group), working as a helper in tea stalls and small eateries (11.1% in 6-10 age group and 3.7% in 10+ - 14), working as helpers in hotels and restaurants (11.1% in 6-10 and 3.7% in 6+ - 10) and various other categories such as helper in meat shop, working in plastic factory and rag picker. Among girls the maximum (25.9%) work as domestic help (Table 7.13).

Table 7.13 : Activities of Child Labour

Type of Work	Sex				Total
	Boys		Girls		
	6-10 yrs	10+-14 yrs	6-10 yrs	10+-14 yrs	
Unpaid worker in family enterprise	1	1	0	1	3
As %	3.7	3.7	0	3.7	11.1
Employed as domestic help	1	0	0	7	8
As %	3.7	0	0	25.9	29.6
Helper in roadside tea stall/ Eatery	0	0	0	0	0
As %	0	0	0	0	0.0
Helper in hotel / restaurant	3	1	0	1	5
As %	11.1	3.7	0	3.7	18.5
Meat shop helper/plastic factory labourer/Rag picker	2	9	0	0	11
As %	7.4	33.3	0	0	40.7
Total	7	11	0	9	27

It is evident from Table 7.14 below that most of the children, both boys and girls, work relatively close to home (81.5%).

Table 7.14 : Work Place of Child Labours by Age & Sex

Type of Work	Sex				Total
	Boys		Girls		
	6-10 yrs	10+-14 yrs	6-10 yrs	10+-14 yrs	
Near Home	6	9	0	7	22
As %	22.2	33.3	0	25.9	81.5
Far from Home	1	2	0	2	5
As %	3.7	7.4	0	7.4	18.5
Total	7	11	0	9	27

In terms of monthly income most of the boys and girls earn between Rs 500 to Rs 1000 per month (69.2%) which indicates that their payment is quite low (Table 7.15).

Table 7.15 : Income Per Month of Child Labours by Sex

Income Category	Age Distribution				Total
	6-10 yrs		10+-14 yrs		
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Rs. 500/- - Rs. 1000/-	5	0	7	6	18
As %	19.2	0.0	26.9	23.1	69.2
Rs. 1001/- - Rs. 2000/-	1	0	2	1	4
As %	3.8	0.0	7.7	3.8	15.4
Rs. 2001/- - Rs. 3000/-	0	0	2	2	4
As %	0.0	0.0	7.7	7.7	15.4
Total	6	0	11	9	26

Note : Out of 27, 1 child labour (boys) engaged in family business & do not earn money.

Most of the child workers stay at home along with their parents (81.5%) and go out to work (Table 7.16). However, it is noteworthy that staying away from home for the purpose of work is not insignificant (18.5%).

Table 7.16 : Location of stay of child labours by sex & age (6-14 yrs.)

Income Category	Sex		Age Group				Total
			6-10 yrs		10+-14 yrs		
At home	Boys	Girls	5	0	11	6	22
	As%	As%	18.5	0.0	40.7	22.2	81.5
At work place	Boys	Girls	2	0	0	3	5
	As%	As%	7.4	0.0	0.0	11.1	18.5
	Total		7	0	11	9	27

Government of India has a provision for non-formal school for child labour (for details see Chapter 5). However the survey found that all the child labours were admitted to such a school but they have dropped out (Table 7.17).

Table 7.17 : Non-formal Schooling Status of Child Labours by Their Formal School Status

Formal School status	Non formal school status of child labor (NCPL)	
	Whether attending	Not attending
Never been to school	0	0
As %	0.0	0.0
Dropped out	0	27
As %	0.0	100.0
Still attending school	0	0
As %	0.0	0.0
Total	0	27

While explaining the reasons for dropping out of the schools meant for child labour, it was found (Table 7.18) that there is no such school in the vicinity of the homes of the child labours (77.7% for boys and 100% for the girls).

Table 7.18 : Reason for Not Attending NCLP Schools

Reason	Gender of Child Labour	
	Boys	Girls
There is no such school nearby	14	9
As %	77.7	100
Never heard of such school	1	0
As %	5.55	0.0
Have no time for school	2	0
As %	11.11	0.0
Education is a luxury to poor	0	0
As %	0.0	0.0
Other	1	0
As %	5.55	0.0
Total	18	9

The FGDs conducted by the study team in different parts of the city where the migrant population live corroborated the findings of the household survey. Although the respondents were hesitant to admit that their children start earning before the age of 14 there were some confessions. A woman named Shakila Bibi in Majdoor Bustee, for example, said that her two sons collect empty bottles in order to earn money as their father is bedridden and cannot go out to work. The field research also pointed out another dimension that deserves policy level attention. If a child is more than 14 years of age s/he technically does not fall in the category of “child labour” it is quite common for children above 14 but less than 18 to start earning for the family. What is more significant is that they do not get any vocational training and do not become skilled workers. Boys usually end up joining small eateries or become rag pickers or collect empty bottles like the sons of Shakila Bibi and the girls start working as domestic help. In other words, they enter into jobs in the informal sector, where there is very little scope for improvement of income over time and therefore they cannot hope to break out of the cycle of poverty. Even for children who are finishing education up to Class VIII as per the norms of Right to Education, the prospect of becoming a skilled worker or starting a business or becoming a white colour employee and thereby moving up in the class hierarchy is severely limited.

2.5 Child Protection

The living conditions of the migrant population mentioned in the report in Chapter 6 clearly points towards an environment which is not conducive for a child to grow. In course of the Focus Group Discussions and the field visits we found children living in cramped rooms with very little sunlight, hardly having any place to play. Apart from poor living conditions, the study team found evidence of children becoming addicted to smoking and taking to drugs (FGDs at 8 No Pagladanga, Bresbridge, Khaldhar, Mazdoor Bustee). In most of the neighbourhoods, alcoholism is a major problem which indirectly affects the children in terms of poor family and social environment. The parents also complained that the children sometimes pick up the vulgar language of the youths in the neighbourhood. In some cases the respondents have admitted that for young girls sexual harassment in the form of “eve teasing” is an everyday occurrence (Khaldaar). The study team also found that getting married before the age of 18 is the usual norm in all the study areas. In several Focus Group Discussions the parents have complained that their children are falling in love at the age of 12+ and some have even eloped and got married. While it was not possible to directly ask the respondents about sexual activities of children, it seems from the fact that children are falling in love, eloping at the age of 12+ and usually getting married before 18 that they enter sexual practice well before the age of 18 (FGD at 8 No Pagladanga, Brace Bridge, Khaldhar, Majdoor Bustee).

While all these point towards an undesirable situation, it would also be a mistake to think that there is no redeeming feature within this grim situation. While we have received complain about sexual harassment, addiction, alcoholism and child love/marriage the study team has also heard in several discussions that women and children feel relatively safe because of the strong presence of Community Based Organisations. The study team did not find any case of rape or trafficking – two of the most heinous forms of crime against women and children. At Brace Bridge it was reported that there was once a case of trafficking but that has stopped now. Such CBOs, created by the migrant and non-migrant poor, help to regulate community disputes and act as a check on undesirable elements in the locality. We present below profile of one such CBO:

Nonadanga Lake Pally Unnayan Samitee

(Nonadanga Lake Palli Development Society)

Nonadanga Lake Palli Unnayan Samity, popularly known as the “club” was founded about 6-7 years ago (2007-08) by the residents of the Nonadanga Lake Pally squatter settlement. The migrant households who settled at Nonadanga during 2007-08, decided to form a committee after a couple of years of migrating to the locality. They mutually selected the Secretary and the Treasurer and other residents became members. Since then the Secretary has been changed twice and those were selected based on voting among members. Presently the committee has 70-80 male members and 9 female members. It takes a monthly fee of Rupees 5 per month from every household.

The Club room is situated in the middle of the settlement. It is a single spacious room made up of bamboo mat walls and roof tiles with cemented floor. It has electric connection with a fan and a light. The committee has done quite a bit for the welfare of this locality. It has arranged two tube wells and 3 community latrines by appealing to the local councilor. The club has also made an effort to bring electricity to the entire locality. Out of 230 families 132 households have electricity from two main meters.

Apart from arranging these basic needs of the locality, the club room is also used for social occasions like marriages or any other festivals. The club room is also used as guest room if any community members have guests. A health awareness campaign by an international organisation was also held in this club. It also organises various festivals especially the “Kali Puja”, which is celebrated with great fanfare.

The club acts as a local welfare society as well as a social community hall for the people of Nonadanga Lake Pally. It helps people resolving disputes among them and finds solution if any crisis happens. People come to them in case of any problems or emergencies as they said they rely and have trust on the committee members. The committee is also trying to appeal for drinking water van in their locality to the councilor. It has also registered each and every household member of the place and maintains the records. Some strict rules and regulations have also been stated by the committee which includes that no new family or person can settle down in their squatter colony.

Similarly at Brace Bridge the study team found a remarkable person named Swapan Ghosh, who has worked 40 years to improve the condition of the Banjara community residing in that area. During the field visits the study team found that the local population treats him like Godfather and follows what he wants them to do. Every evening he sits in a small office in Indira Pally of Brace Bridge and attends to the various needs of the local population. His influence has improved the condition of the area although it still remains grim. The once nomadic Banjara community which was prone to illegal activities has now realized the value of education, alcoholism has been reduced and child trafficking has been stopped.

2.6 Hopes and Aspirations

Table 7.19 : Hopes and Aspirations of Children 10-14 years

Aspirations	Children belongs to Migrant Family		Children belongs to Non Migrant Family	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Govt. Job	11	6	32	27
As %	3.7	2.0	11.4	9.6
Pvt. Job	62	43	48	21
As %	20.9	14.5	17.1	7.5
Teacher	21	58	14	57
As %	7.1	19.5	5.0	20.3
Engineer	12	1	7	2
As %	4.0	0.3	2.5	0.7
Player	1	0	8	0
As %	0.3	0.0	2.8	0.0
Shop- keeper	5	0	1	0
As %	1.7	0.0	0.4	0.0
Home Maker	0	5	0	5
As %	0.0	1.7	0.0	1.8
Police	24	3	21	7
As %	8.1	1.0	7.5	2.5
Doctor	16	15	8	9
As %	5.4	5.1	2.8	3.2
Businessman	6	0	3	0
As %	2.0	0.0	1.1	0.0
Dancer/Singer/Artist	4	0	1	4
As %	1.3	0.0	0.4	1.4
Self Employed	2	2	1	5
As %	0.7	0.7	0.4	1.8
Total	164	133	144	137

A total of 164 boys and 133 girls in the age group of 10-14 from migrant households and a total of 144 boys and 137 girls were interviewed regarding their future hopes and aspirations. Various answers came up from the children as presented in Table 7.19 above. Majority of the boys in migrant and non-migrant households said that they would like to get a job in a private firm. Majority of the girls in both migrant and non-migrant households said that they would like to become teachers. For boys the second most preferred future job is that of a policeman whereas for the girls it is a job in a private firm/household. It is interesting to note that only a small number of girls have said that they would like to become homemakers (1.7% and 1.8% respectively), clearly pointing towards the fact that they would prefer to earn their own money. Among boys the preference is towards getting a job than to be self-employed or becoming a businessman.

3. Conclusion

To conclude the evidence from the field may be briefly summarised. Poor people migrating to the city in last decade are usually found to be living in squatter settlements rather than notified slums where usually the non-migrant population lives. The condition of living in the squatter settlements is unfit for human habitation where an entire family is squeezed inside a tiny, dimly-lit, make-shift room. There are risks of fire and disease. Sanitation facility is poor. The living condition of the non-migrant slum population is marginally better in terms of basic facilities. The children of the migrants grow up in such undesirable conditions (see Chapter 6 for detailed analysis).

Parents, migrant and non-migrant, of the children have shown strong positive awareness regarding the need for immunisation and the children are usually immunised. There are several no-cost facilities provided by the government for the children regarding their health and education which provide some benefit to the children. For example the ICDS scheme provides free pre-school and nutrition for the children. However the ICDS centres are often of poor standard and hardly ideal for the development of a child. There have been several complaints against the quality of food supplied by the centres. In some cases children of migrant families do not get the opportunity to avail ICDS facilities. On the positive side the ICDS workers are usually committed and the study team has not found any complaint against them.

The children in the age group of 06-14 usually go to various Government schools and enrollment is high. Their parents clearly want them to get education and also whenever possible arrange for private tutors for additional support although this is a drain on their income. The parents, being mostly uneducated, are not in a position to judge whether the children are getting quality education in the schools but the fact that they realize the need for private tuition show that they do not rely entirely on the government system.

The children often fall ill and usually for minor medical cases the migrant population relies on private doctors rather than the government hospitals. For more serious cases they go to the various government hospitals in the city. Although children go to school, dropping out school is not uncommon.

Some children end up working at home while a small percentage becomes child labours. They have also dropped out schools meant for child labour.

Child marriage is quite common. There have been cases of children entering into amorous relationship at an early age and some even elope and get married before the age of 18. Some children pick up foul language from elders and indulge in various forms of substance abuse.

In terms of their future aspirations the children of both migrant and non-migrant households, both boys and girls, hope to get some job that will help them to earn their own money. They prefer to get jobs with steady income rather than becoming entrepreneurs.

There is no evidence of children getting any vocational training and becoming skilled workers or entrepreneurs. After the age of 14 (and in some cases before that) the young boys and girls usually join the informal economy of the city which gives them very little opportunity of breaking out of the cycle of poverty.

Within this overall grim situation the fact that the urban poor, migrant and non-migrant, form Community Based Organisations of their own, gives the poor and their children a relative sense of security and togetherness and keeps the neighbourhood relatively free from the depredations of undesirable elements.

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Chapter 8

Migrant Children at Railway Stations-Two Case Studies

Railway stations often become the place to stay for many children who have run away from home because of various reasons like parental abuse, violence and poverty. According to an estimation of Railway Children, India over 12 million children live on the streets with an estimated 120,000 or more arriving on platforms every year. In simple terms, a child arrives alone on a railway platform every five minutes. They use India's extensive railway network to get to the cities. As a result, thousands of children who arrive at railway stations dreaming of adventure and a better life instead end up living on railway platforms. There is no specific law in the country for platform children. They come under the broad definition of "child in need of care and protection" under Juvenile Justice Act, 2000 [chapter 1, Sec 2 (d)]. Also, as signatory to the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child, the government has an obligation to protect them. Platform Children have the

right to life, to good health, to quality education, to be heard and, above all, to be free from abuse and exploitation. But often their problems have been overshadowed by issues such as child labour, child domestic workers and street children.

Big railway stations in Kolkata, particularly the terminal ones, like Sealdah and Haora, are not only the ultimate landing destinations of the runaway and abandoned children of rural areas but also serve as points of attraction to them. The vast infrastructure of these railway stations not only provides these hapless children ample opportunities to earn, but also 'shelter', drinking water and bathing and latrine facilities. Sealdah Railway Station and its immediate surroundings are serving as living and earning places to the runaway and abandoned children and uprooted rural families and also to refugee families for about 70 years. But according to the estimate of the RPF, each day on an average about 3 runaway children land on various platforms of the Sealdah station. In addition there are poor rural households who are forced to leave their native places and are living on the platforms and nearby roadsides to eke out a living. Children of these families along with those of runaway ones do begging, selling of tidbit items, rag-picking, menial jobs in wayside tea stalls & eateries, carry loads (Coolie) and stealing etc. in and around railway platforms to earn a living. They are often subjected to various forms of child abuses — physical, economic and even sexual.

Several NGOs in India are working for the poor and destitute children but a handful of them is working for the platform children. Railway Children (RC), an international organisation fights for vulnerable children who live alone at risk on the streets including railway platform, where they suffer abuse and exploitation. In India, RC works in a number of states of which West Bengal is important. Here it covers five railway stations - Sealdah, Haora, Asansol, Malda and New Jalpaiguri. At Haora station, RC's partner organisation is Don Bosco Ashalayam while at Sealdah station, RC works with CINI Asha. In Chapter 4 we have discussed in detail the Railway Children Projects of CINI ASHA and Don Bosco Ashalayam.

In the present study to analyse the situations of the migrant children in railway platforms we conducted two case studies in two railway stations, Sealdah and Haora as these two stations have an important role in shaping the daily life of the city. In each of these two stations, we first tried to understand the details of the projects run by CINI ASHA and Don Bosco Ashalayam and then visited their project areas to directly interact with the children. The methodology followed is as follows:

- Visit the NGO office
- Discuss with the project staff to learn about the project
- Collect relevant secondary information
- Visit the project office at the railway station
- Interact with the project staff working there
- Interact with the children by
 - ✓ Conducting survey with a structured questionnaire among a few (25) children
 - ✓ Conducting a Focus Group Discussion with the children

In the present chapter the two cases studies conducted on children of Haora station and Sealdah station are presented. We gratefully acknowledge the support provided by the NGOs – Don Bosco Ashalayam and CINI ASHA in conducting the study in their project areas in Haora and Sealdah railway stations.

Case Study 1 : Railway Children in Haora Station

1.1 Interaction with the Children

This section gives information on the profile of children who are presently staying at Haora station and visit DIC. A survey was conducted with a structured questionnaire on 25 children who visited the DIC on the day of the survey. In addition, a focus group discussion with some of these children was conducted. The outcome of the survey and the FGDs is presented in the following paragraphs :

- a) **Age – sex composition** – Out of 25 children. 23 were boys and two were girls. Their age ranged from 7 years to 18 years. The age of one boy was marginally higher but according to the project staff, his mental development is much less than his physical development. The physical status of all children was normal, nobody belonged to handicapped category. 20 out of 25 children were from Hindu community, four from Muslim community while one child could not give any information of it.
- b) **Place of origin** – Children have come here both from within and outside the state.

Table 8.1 : Place of Origin of the Children Staying at Haora Station

Location		Number of Children
West Bengal		18
Out side West Bengal	India	7
	Outside India	0
Total		25

Out of 25 children, 18 have come from other parts of West Bengal including the districts of Bankura, Birbhum, Haora, Hooghly, North 24 Parganas, South 24 Parganas and even from other parts of Kolkata. Among the others, most have come from the neighbouring states of Bihar (mostly Patna), Jharkhand, Odisha and Assam. Children have also come here from Bangladesh but they were not present in the FGD as informed by the DIC educators.

They are mostly Bengalees; even the children from other states also speak Bengali very well.

- c) **Duration and reasons for migration**– All the children are not living in the railway station for a fixed period. Some have left home in the early childhood while some have come recently. Ten out of 25 have been staying at Haora station for more than five years, five for more than one year but less than five years while seven have come to Haora station not even one year ago. Three children could not say the duration properly as they visit home frequently and also go to other stations and stay there (Table 8.2).

Table 8.2 : Duration of Stay at Haora Station

Duration of Stay	No. of Children
Less than 1 year	7
1 to 5 years	5
More than 5 years	10
Could not say	3
Total	25

The reasons for leaving home are also varied as observed in Table 8.3. Most of them have left home on their own due to various reasons like broken family, lack of care at important reason was lack of care at home. 13 children left home as they were beaten by their parents. A substantial number of them have step mother whose behavior was not very cordial with their step children.



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Day Care Centre of Don Bosco Ashalayam for platform children at platform no. 14 of Haora Station

Bablu, a 14 years old boy had left home for the first time in 2009; in 2011 he went back home but could not stay there for long time. Again he has come to Haora station and is presently staying there. He used to work in a shop in his native place and whatever he earned was handed over to his father. Once his step sister wanted a cycle and was presented by parents but when he wanted a mobile his parents refused to give it to him. He left home in disgust.

Raju Debnath from Rishra also left home due to the misbehavior of his step mother. Three children are totally orphan. One of them are Rohit Das from Patna whose father is dead and mother is mentally unstable. None of the parents of Suraj Gope, a boy from Puri is alive. Tulsi Murmu, a 17 years old boy from Bihar had gone to a fair in Asansol in his childhood and was lost there. On the other hand, Puja and her sister are from broken family. They stay at Haora station with their maternal uncle and grandmother. Their parents are separated, two girls have contact with their mother and sometimes go to meet her but they have no contact with their father. Along with family problems, attraction of city life also worked as a reason behind leaving home in case of three children. Six children also mentioned other reasons like being scolded by the teachers at school and abandoned by parents.

Table 8.3 : Reasons for Leaving Home

Reason*	Number of Children
Parents beat and do not love	13
Broken Family	2
Attraction of city life	3
To earn money is easier in Kolkata	1
Orphan	3
Other reasons	6

*Including multiple response

iv) Educational Status - Educational status of the children is obviously low. Some of them used to go to school at native place but up to primary standard while others have never gone to school. At present, they are visiting DIC where some non – formal educational services like drawing, learning letters, numbers, tables etc. are provided. Some of the children have learned all these things at DIC. They even performed before our research team to show some of their acquired skill. Some children are also going to a centre of another NGO, named Hope Kolkata at Santragachhi and learning drawing and other basic skills. 15 out of 25 children are pursuing study in this way while 10 are not pursuing any study. They come to DIC, stay there for one /two hours, learn drawing and other non –academic things like good behavior, speaking in good languages, attending prayers etc. but are not willing to learn any academic activity.

v) Economic Activity - The children are engaged in different economic activities starting from begging to stealing articles from the train passengers (Table 8.4). The most common profession is collecting used water bottles either from train or from platform where half of the respondents are engaged. There are certain centres in the station where they deposit the bottles and earn Re. 1 per bottle. In this way, they earn Rs. 100 – 200 per day, not a small amount. Some also informed that from the bottles, they earned Rs. 30 per kilogram. Two girls, Puja and her sister are also practising this activity. In addition, two of them clean train compartment and collect leftover food and other materials like laptop computers, mobile phones etc. which are left behind by the passengers by mistake in the long distance trains. They sell these items to different persons and earn money. Five boys are van pullers and earn more than Rs. 100 per day at Rs. 20 per trip while five boys work as porter and earn Rs. 100 – 150 per day. Four children are rag pickers. Raju Debnath from Rishra and Rohit Das from Patna are beggars. Raju earns more than Rs. 100 per day by begging while Rohit’s daily income is around Rs. 50. Out of 25 children, average daily income of four children is Rs. 50 to Rs. 100, of 13 children it is Rs. 100 to Rs. 200 while eight children earn more than Rs. 200 per day on an average. Even one boy earns his living by pick pocketing from crowd in the station area. The bottle sellers, rag pickers and the porters get their payment instantly: some of the van pullers also get payment instantly while others get it on daily basis.

Table 8.4 : Economic Activities of the Children Living in Haora Station

Activities	In Haora
Rag Picker	4
Clean train compartment	2
Fish Van Puller	5
Porter	5
Begging	2
Used Bottle Seller	12
Stealing money and articles	1

*Including multiple response

All of them try to save money after meeting their daily need but the system is very peculiar. Children who collect bottles save money with the person to whom bottles are deposited. When they need money for food or other things, they take some amount from that person. According to the DIC Educators, they lose some amount in this way because they don't keep any account of the amount they are earning and saving. When they need money, they just take it.

vi) Shelter and Basic Amenities – Night shelter is a real problem the children face. Almost all of them stay in the station area at night either inside or outside. 15 children reported that they stay inside the station. They mainly stay on the floor of the platform No. 1 to 23. Even girls also stay there. Puja and her sister stay with their grandmother in platform No. 12. When pushed out by the RPF, they spend night outside mainly in the taxi stand. Nine children generally stay in the taxi stand while one child reported to go back home every day. He stays in Bagnan, which is not far from Haora station, Everyday, he comes in the morning and goes back home in the evening.

There is no particular facility for these children in the station. Children have reported to take bath in the platform's bathroom; sometimes they also go to the river Ganga for bathing. In most cases, they take bath very rarely. When the DIC Educators repeatedly ask them to take bath, the children go for bathing. For other purposes, they use the facilities available in the station. For lavatory, 11 children use station toilets while three children use railway lines. Another 11 children either use the toilet of the long distance trains or sometimes they go to the pay and use toilets run by the Sulabh International. They collect drinking water from the station.

vii. Social Environment – 18 children reported to face problems from the police. When RPF does not allow them to stay on the platform, they have to spend night outside. Sometimes, police also take them to the shelter homes, run by the state government where the children do like to stay. Two children face problems of harassment by commuters while one each reported to face problems from the railway staff and elder dwellers. One child said to have problems from all three sources of police, commuters and railway staff while two children face no problem at all. Initially they also face problems very much but after some days they get adjusted to it.

Table 8.5 : Persons to whom the Children Go for any Help or Solution of Problems

Person to whom the Children go	No. of Children
No where	5
Elder Dwellers	4
NGO	6
Peer group	2
Own solution	1
No answer	7
Total	25

Where do the children go for any help or solution of their problems? Only 18 children gave answer to this question which was of various types. Six children go to NGO (here DBA), five children go to the elder dwellers, two go to the peers while five do not go anywhere for any solution(Table 8.5). One boy said that he himself thinks for a way out and implement it. Seven children did not give any answer to this question. Children took name of two persons, one uncle and one Didi, both of them were platform children before. The uncle is presently working somewhere, but still spending night in the platform. If the present platform children go to him with any problem, he tries to help them. On the other hand, Didi is presently living somewhere else which the children do not know and she works as a prostitute. She frequently visits the station and helps the children physically and financially. She brings food for them, takes them to the doctors if needed and also gives other support.

viii) Health and Nutrition – Children take food three to five times a day. Those who visit DIC of DBA, get a lunch packet from Monday to Saturday, other times they arrange for their own food. All of them are earning and spend some amount from their daily income on food. Some of them collect leftover food from long distance trains. In this respect, they prefer Satabdi Express. Earlier, they also used to enter the compartments of Rajdhani Express but now they are not permitted by the railway authority. Even during the DIC hours, they just run to the platform if any long distance train arrives at the Haora station. Due to the unhygienic living condition and lack of care, children fall sick frequently. 15 out of 25 children fell sick during the last three months. Fever is the most common ailment they suffer from. Apart from it, other diseases they mentioned are cough and cold, chicken pox, indigestion, infection in eyes, breaking of hand and bleeding due to injury.

For medication, they mainly depend on NGO and pharmacy. Nine children go to NGOs for seeking treatment while six children go to the nearby pharmacy, say about their problems to the people running it and buy medicine from the shop. Here, NGO means mainly DBA which has a nurse attending the sick children. For serious cases, children are taken to government hospital while in case of minor ailments; children are brought to infirmary of DBA. Two more NGOs named Hope Kolkata and Little Big Hope are working in the Haora station and they are also providing medical services to the platform children. Three children reported to go to hospital for treatment, one child follows self medication while another child does take some medication in case of any health problem occurs. During sickness, mainly NGO and peers take care of the child.

- ix) **Recreation** – Mainly two types of recreation they mentioned about – watching movies in the cinema hall and playing with peers. Almost all of them, mentioned about either of the two. Six children mentioned about smoking while four each mentioned about taking liquor and drugs during leisure time. Three children watch TV in the platform or at tea stall etc. One child visits Santragachhi centre of another NGO, named Life Connection to play football, carom board etc.
- x) **Drug Addiction** – Addiction to dendrite and other drugs, is a common problem of these children. A part of their income is spent for this purpose. Dendrite is mostly used as it is easily available. Some are also habituated to take whitener and heroine. Even during the FGD, some children were not in normal state and could not answer our questions properly. Sometimes they visit home to meet their parents and family members but due to the problem of taking drug at home, children cannot stay there for long.



Children of Don Bosco Ashalayam Day Care centre

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Case Study 2 : The Platform Children at Sealdah Station

2.1 Introduction

CINI ASHA, the urban unit of Child In Need Institute (CINI), is working among the platform children, including those of the wayside households since 1989 to protect their rights as children (see Chapter 4 for detail). CINI-ASHA's Railway Children project was our entry point to having an encounter with the children in the railway station. ISS research team had a three and a half hour session with the inmate children of Udaan on October 1, 2013. On the day of our visit Udaan housed about 23 platform children, all boys, since CINI ASHA railway children project does not cater to the girls because of infrastructure problems. Our researchers interviewed all of them individually and had group discussions with them as well.

2.2 Life of the Children in Udaan

i. Background of the Children

The boys we met were all between 10 and 14 years. A overwhelming majority of them (19 out of 23) are aged above 12 years. The rest (4 out of 23) are between 10-12 years. 13 of the boys were Hindu and 9 were Muslim; One boy could not tell about his religious identity. For the majority of the boys(21) the mother tongue is Bengali and two boys speak in Hindi. Most of the boys, except 3 have some educational background. 8 boys are at below primary level and 12 are at primary level. Before coming to CINI ASHA home majority of them were engaged in different kind of activities for their daily living , like rag picking, shoe polishing, working in the tea stall, cleaning train compartments etc. But from the time CINI ASHA rescued them from Sealdah Station they had to leave all those.

ii. Place of Origin

Table 8.6 : Place of Origin of the Boys in Udaan

Location		Number of Boys
West Bengal		19
Out side West Bengal	India	2
	Outside India	2
Total		23

21 out of total 23 children are of Indian origin. The two children migrated from abroad were mainly from Dhaka, Bangladesh who have come to India by crossing the border at Bangaon. 19 out of 21 Indian children are from 5 districts of West Bengal, viz., South 24 Parganas, North 24 Parganas, Nadia, Hughli and Bardhaman. Other 2 children of Indian origin are from Bihar and UP. South 24 Parganas: is the native district of about 11 out of 21 Indian inmates of Udaan. It appears that South 24 Parganas is the major suppliers of runaway children of Sealdah station. North 24 Parganas is the native district of 4 inmates of Udaan. Nadia is the native district of 2 children. while the districts of Hughli and Bardhaman have one representative each among the inmates of Udaan.

iii. Reason for Leaving home and Length of Stay in the Platform

The boys mentioned different reasons for leaving home and coming to the railway station. As mentioned by the boys at Haora station, the lack of love and care from the parents is a major reason for the boys from Sealdah station as well to leave home. 8 of the boys said their parents do not love them and beat them often. Broken family, parents remarrying, abandoned by parents are also examples of lack of care by the parents which compelled 6 boys to leave home.. Importantly, the lack of food at home is also a reason for 3 boys to leave home and venture for this uncertain world in the railway platform. Others have come here for earning some money, attraction of city life or just lured by other elder boys who had already experienced the life in a railway platform.

Table 8.7 : Reason for Leaving Home

Reasons	Number of Boys
To earn money is easier in Kolkata	3
Parents beat and do not love	8
Broken Family (parents remarried etc)	4
Lost parents in natural calamity	2
Not enough food at home	0
Attraction of city life	3
Lured by friend/elders	3
Abandoned by parents/family	2
Others	3
Total	23

We asked the boys how long they are in Kolkata. 4 of the boys said they have been in the city for less than a week. So they are very new to this life. 14 boys are here for more than a week but less than one year. Only five children said they have come here more than a year back.

iv. Scheme of Child Health Volunteers

CINI ASHA has developed an innovative model of Child Health Volunteers. These volunteers are popularly known as “junior daktar”. According to the CHVs we interviewed there are two kinds of children in the station – “bhalo” (good) and “kharap” (bad). The bad children are those who are already heavily into addiction of various forms. So they are left alone. The CHVs try to motivate the good children to come to the CINI Asha centre. Those who have wounds in their body are treated by the CHVs with their first aid kit. More serious cases are referred to Child Line.

The CHVs some time face problems in their outreach programme. If they face any violent behaviour they complain to the railway police (GRP). The railway police protect them.

v. Access to Basic Services

The children are staying in the CINI-ASHA shelter home. Therefore, as in Haora station, the boys in Sealdah do not have to face acute problem of basic amenities like sanitation, bathing place and drinking water. All the boys use the toilets and bathing facility in the shelter home and carry the drinking water from the railway station for the shelter home.

Table 8.8 : Access to Basic Services

	No. of Children	
Sanitation	Railway Lines	0
	Station. Toilet	0
	Nights Shelter	23
	Others (River side, Sulabh International, Train’s Toilets)	0
Access to bathing facility	Platform	0
	Long Distance Train	0
	Shelter Home	23
	Others	0
Drinking water access	The railway children who stay in CINI home fetch water from the platform for their shelter home	

Access to health and education facility are also available for these boys. All the 23 children are pursuing studies in schools run by CINI-ASHA. Railway children of Sealdah get proper treatment during their illness as well. The CINI personnel take them to hospital or give medicine when they are sick. Children do not have to spend money for that.

vi. Daily Routine of the Children at the Centre

The daily activity schedule of child-inmates of Udaan according to our respondents is as follows:

Time	Jobs to perform	Description/remarks
6-7 am	Wake up from sleep followed by tooth brushing and shower, Prayer for 5-10 minutes and Tiffin	
9 am-12 noon	To attend study classes (Art therapy, music therapy, dance therapy and arts & crafts)	Aim of this study classes is to distract the children from their platform life and to bring them to a life of a normal child in family atmosphere.
12:30- 1 pm	Lunch	
1 pm-4 pm	Sleep	This day sleep helps CINI ASHA personnel to keep the children in control. "They are more energetic compared to their counterpart in family environment. If they are not forced to sleep they will create havoc," confess the CINI ASHA personnel.
4 pm-6 pm	Play indoor & outdoor games and watching TV programmes	Games include (i) carom, (ii) cricket and (iii) Karate
6 pm-10 pm	(i) To clean oneself, (ii) Evening prayer, (III) Tiffin, (iv) cooking (rotation wise) & washing of clothes, and (v) Dinner	
10 pm	Sleep	

(This activity schedule is framed on the basis of the information provided by both the CINI ASHA personnel and the child inmates of Udaan)

vi. Ways of spending leisure time

The children have good avenues for spending their leisure time. The majority of children play with their peers, watch TV or cinema in their leisure time.

Types of recreation	Sealdah
Cinema	3
TV	12
Play with peers	16
Smoking	0
Liquor/drug	0
Betting	0
Glue Sniffing	0
Others	0

vii. Problem faced by the children on the platform

Railway Children in Sealdah we have interviewed are under CINI-ASHA's supervision, that is why they do not face the kind of harassment from outsiders like commuters, elders, police, local musclemen, railway staff etc as the Haora platform children face.. The CINI ASHA staff members protect them like their guardians.

viii. Whether they prefer to stay in the Centre or go back home?

When we asked the children how they like their shelter home and whether they want to go back home, the group was unanimous that they prefer to be at the shelter home. Environment at their own homes is not good. The CINI-ASHA Centre is fun. In the Centre there are lots of friends plus opportunity to visit different places and opportunity to play. For example, they told us they would be going to Nicco Park soon. During Pujas also the children are taken for a trip to the pandals by the railway police. They said that they would like to stay here and when they grow up they will do various kind of activities like opening a snack bar(roll er dokan) or be a driver or even an engineer or a karate teacher

2.3 Life Stories of Platform Children : A Few Snapshots

(Names used in the snapshots are changed because of CINI's policy of not disclosing the names of inmates)

Snapshot 1: Fatik is 12 and hails from the Bagula area of Nadia district of West Bengal. His father married another woman when his mother died. His father and his new wife did not like him. So they deposited him in an unknown person's house when he was only 5 years old. He used to work as a domestic servant there. After two years, when he was 7 years old he fled from that place and ended up in a railway station named Bogula. There a young lady ("Didimoni") found him crying and took him to her home. Didimoni was not married. She informally adopted him and loved him like her own son. Fatik studied under her guidance. After some time Didimoni got married and left for her in-laws place. She wanted Fatik to accompany her but he refused. He then went back to his home but his father refused to acknowledge him as his son and refused him entry. He continued to try. So he left and started living in a nearby station. He earned his living by selling papad. Whatever money he could earn he gave to his father's new wife in the hope that they would accept him as their son. However they refused. So he left home and reached Sealdah station. There he found a new home in the CINI ASHA shelter. After one and half years he was sent to Child Line and then a Home in Haora. The social workers tried to restore him to his original home. But he once again fled after a while. Currently he is in Udaan. He does not know what he wants to become when he grows up. However at present he is enjoying his studies.

Snapshot 2 : Umesh is 13 years of age and a native of Sasaram district of Bihar. Both his parent have passed away. He can remember that his father had fever before his death. He used to live with his uncle. His uncle used to beat him. He did not enjoy studies. These two things were his motivation for leaving home. He first came to Haora station and from there he reached Sealdah station and in the station he came in contact with CINI ASHA workers. Umesh claims that he knows English in addition to Hindi. He was once restored to his home as per the policy of CINI ASHA. However after one and a half years he again fled from home and came back to Sealdah.

He enjoys being at Udaan as there are a lot of friends. They sometime have fights, he says, but all in a friendly manner. When he grows up he would like to become an engineer!

Snapshot 3 : Rajen is 12 years of age and hails from Santipur in Nadia district in West Bengal. He has studied till class V. He can recall that he used to work in a mango orchard and collect mangoes. Many a boys of his neighbourhood used to indulge in various forms of addiction. He also got addicted. His father, who was a cycle van puller, was also an addict. His mother left home although Rajen does not know why. After class V Rajen left school and he started working in a bicycle repairing shop. For some unknown reason he was thrown out of his job. Then he got a job in a photographic studio. While he was working his father once came suddenly and told him that he should stop working. So he stayed at home. But his father used to beat him regularly. So he fled and came over to Halisahar. There he started to work in a small eating joint, popularly known as “hotel”. His father found him, beat him up and according to Rajen, wanted to throw him under a running train. However he was rescued by some local boys and his uncle (Pishemoshai). Then he fled to Ranaghat a place near Kolkata. He sold sweets there for three- four days. Then he left for Sealdah which is connected to Ranaghat through local trains. He first started living in Platform number 1. A social worker of CINI ASHA came to meet him. At first Rajen did not like him and inflicted expletives at him. But then after a while he agreed. The GRP also told him to go to CINI ASHA. From CINI ASHA he once fled to Haora but came back. He loves Karate and in future he would like to become a motor driver.

Snapshot 4 : Pradip, a young boy of 13, hails from Garia which is located in the southern outskirt of Kolkata. He fled home because his parents always fought among each other He has studied up to class II. After leaving home he used to work in a snack bar popularly known as “RolerDokan”. He used to get Rs 150/- per day. But it was hard work. He had to work from 5 am in the morning till 10 pm at night. As a result he decided to leave this job and took up another one, this time cleaning and cutting fishes in a store which sells fish. From there he landed up in Sealdah Station although it is not clear why he decided to come over to the station. In the station he met the social workers of CINI ASHA and ended up in their shelter. His parents know his whereabouts and sometimes come to visit and give some money but he refuses to go with them. He is a good cook, a “junior doctor” or Child Health Volunteer, can sing, dance and show his Karate skills. When he grows up he would like to have his own snack bar (“Roll-er Dokan”).

Snapshot 5 : Mujibur is a Bangladeshi national and hails from Dhaka. A boy of 13 he studied up to Class II. His parents are still alive. He has one elder brother and one younger brother. His father works as a mason and his elder brother runs a garments shop. He has not explained why he has left home. About one and half years ago he left home. A friend once suggested that they should go to a place called Kamalapur, a railway station in Bangladesh. At Kamalapur he used to work both as a coolie(porter) and a rag picker (collecting empty water bottles). He used to sleep at a Night Shelter of an NGO named INCIDIN Bangladesh. He had to pay 10-12 Bangladesh Taka foreach night. After a while(exact time he could not tell), he left for Hili, a town near West Bengal border. There he met another boy and they became friends. They used to collect bottles and sell them on the other side of the border. But his friendship with this boy came to an end when the friend stole his money and fled. Meanwhile he made friends with another boy.

They crossed the border and from there they reached Dumdum station. Mujibur and his friend parted company here. From Dumdum, Mujibur came to Sealdah station. From Sealdah station he went to Taldi at Canning in South 24 Parganas. He used to work in a shop there but did not enjoy it. So he left Taldi and came back to Sealdah station. Here the social workers of CINI ASHA contacted him. At first he was afraid but then he loved the place. He said that he wants to become a car driver and does not want to go back to Bangladesh.



Inmates of Udaan (CINI ASHA) flanked by ISS study team members

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Annex 8.1 : Respondents in Haora Railway Station Case Study

Name	Age	Sex (M/F)	Native Place
Tulsi Murmu	17	M	Bihar
Puja Pal	13	F	Uluberia, Haora
BikashYadav	12	M	Dhanbad, Bihar
Chhote Singh	12	M	Uluberia, Haora
Vicky Pal	12	M	Diyara, 24 Parganas South
Pradip Biswas	10	M	Katwa, Bardhaman
Raju Das	14	M	Delhi
Pradyut Ghatak	15	M	Bankura
Noton Mallick	14	M	Shaktigarh, Bardhaman
Shalauddin Gazi	16	M	Camac Stree, Kolkata
Ganesh Das	16	M	Kalyani, North 24 Parganas
Prasanta Bor	15	M	Bagnan, Haora
Bittu Kumar	10	M	Rajgir, Bihar
Sheikh Suraj	14	M	Haldia, West Bengal
RajuDebnath	13	M	Rishra, Hoogly
Md. Manwar	14	M	Kashipur, Kolkata
Dipak Das	12	M	Assam
Pintu Naskar	14	M	Garia, Kolkata
Sagar Sen	14	M	Konnagar, Hoogly
Kajal Pal	12	F	Uluberia, Haora
Biswanath Murmu	16	M	Pandua, Hoogly
Md. Salim	15	M	Bankra, Haora
Bablu Nyak	14	M	Hoogly
Amit Kumar	15	M	Patna, Bihar

Annex 8.2 : Respondents in Sealdah Railway Station Case Study

	Name	Age	Home town/village
1.	Laden Sheikh	11	Ghutiari Sharif
2.	Dipak Singh	12	Bogula, Nadia
3.	Hafizul Sheikh	13	Ghutiari Sharif
4.	Mannu Kumar	13	Sasaram, Bihar
5.	Liyaz Ali Sardar	13	Nishcintapur, Baraipur
6.	Raju Sheikh	13	Titagarh
7.	Abid Ali Mollah	12	Bhangorkhali, Canning
8.	Khokon Das	14	Katwa
9.	Raju Ghosh	13	Ichapur
10.	Khokon Mondol	12 +	Ghutiari Sharif
11.	Rohit Kumar	11+	Kanauj, UP
12.	Biswajit Biswas	12	Shantipur, Nadia
13.	Asrabi Ali	10 +	Phurphurasharif, Hoogly
14.	Sujan Ray	14	Thakurnagar, Bongaon
15.	Bhombol Mondol	10	Not known
16.	Gautam Ray	13	Balia, Garia
17.	Rakesh Majumdar	13	Habra
18.	Muhammad Habib	13	Dhaka, Bangladesh
19.	Imran Khan	12	Subhashgram
20.	Animesh Bera	13	Subhashgram
21.	Biswakarma Singh	12	Santoshpur
22.	Hriday Sheikh	12	Dhaka, Bangladesh



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Chapter 9

Summary of the Report and Policy Implications

The present report is the outcome of a study undertaken by the Institute of Social Sciences, Kolkata in collaboration with the UNICEF, West Bengal. The objective of the study is to assess the living condition of the poor migrants in Kolkata city with specific reference to the condition of the children of the migrant poor, The study is conducted through multi-pronged methodologies that include household survey among migrant and non-migrant households, focus group discussions, case studies and interview with the officials. This concluding chapter summarises the findings of the study and highlights the policy implications based on the findings.

1. Summary of the Report

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 highlights the migration scenario in India based on two sources- the Census of India 2001 and

64th Round Survey of NSSO in 2007-08. The chapter also reviews some recent literature on migration and related issues including migrant children. The major findings of the chapter are as follows:

- Migration contributes to urbanization in a big way- rural to urban migration is the prime trend in both Census 2001 and NSSO survey 2007-08.
- More women migrate than men
- The primary reason for more female migration is marriage
- Intra-state migration is much more than inter-state migration both in Census 2001 and NSSO Report.
- The review of Urban Poverty Report suggests that economically backward states keep losing people to developed states.
- There is increase of migration since 1991 to 2001 which is attributed to addition of new administrative boundaries in the decade along with increase in mobility of women and increased rural urban migration particularly in inter-state category.
- Ben Rogaly in his study points out the social dimension of seasonal migration in India and says that planning and development policies of India often excludes the seasonal migrants because of their absence.
- Rogaly argues that effective policy and practices need better understanding of the 'trend, causes, extent and consequences of seasonal migration'.
- This chapter reviews the causes and extent of child migration. Child migration is primarily related to migration of parents but NSSO survey reports that 0.4% of migrating children are migrating for work. Srivastava in his study points out that children also migrate alone and in most cases end up living on the streets.
- Many children who migrate alone for work are usually pledged against loan taken by their parents
- The children who work mostly have to face harshness and deprivation.
- Migration also hampers education for the children
- Smita discusses the impact of distress migration on children. She says these migrants face a peculiar situation as they neither belong to their village nor their destination place. As a result they do not get the government welfare facilities either in their villages or in the migration site.
- Ann Whitehead concentrates her research on the concept of independent child migrants. She says there is very less research on this issue, especially in India, though there are a number of studies on child labour, some of whom might have been migrants, but not all. She also says the policy interventions for the child migrants are the ones that are made for the child labours.
- The UNESCO/UNICEF report expresses concern about the health of migrant children since they lack immunization because of their parents' frequent shift from one place to other in search of job.

- The study also highlights that there is serious data gap in respect of seasonal and temporary migration category which eventually results in gaps in policy and programmes.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 discusses the migration scenario in West Bengal and Kolkata. The sources of data are the Census 2001 and NSSO 2007-08. The main findings are:

Migration in West Bengal

- 7% of total population in West Bengal in 2001 were migrants by place of birth
- In keeping with the all-India trend female migrants are more than the male migrants and that is due to marriage related migration
- The primary source of in-migration to West Bengal is Bihar from where 11.23 lakh population come to this state according to Census 2001.
- Bangladesh contributes the maximum number of migrants (25.29 lakh) to West Bengal in terms of international migration
- According to NSSO 2007-08 report migration for temporary duration is more male dominated and migration for permanent stay is primarily female dominated
- Also, females as migrants are more in number in case of relatively short distance migration, male migrants are more in long distance migration
- Employment is the pre-dominant reason for male migration in West Bengal
- NSSO report shows that in rural sector after migration more people are engaged as casual labour as they cannot manage to get regular wage/salaried jobs after migration
- In comparison to the rural sector the number of regular wage/salaried persons after migration in urban sector has increased more.
- Data on migration and children is scant except some information on child labour and crime against children which includes migrant children as well.
- According to Census 2001 about 8.57 lakh children in the age group of 5-14 are child labours
- The data provided by NSSO suggests 5.5 lakh child labour exist in West Bengal
- West Bengal accounts for 11% child labour in India which is quite alarming.
- Crime against children is also a matter of concern

Migration in Kolkata

- Kolkata was a melting pot of migrants from different parts of the country-far and near.

- The international migrants are predominantly from Bangladesh and Nepal.
- In 2001 almost 30% of city's population were migrants
- However, as industrial base of the city of Kolkata deteriorated over time, its attraction as a major migration destination has also come down in the last two Census decades.
- In comparison to other urban agglomerations like Delhi and Mumbai in the country attraction of Kolkata Urban Agglomeration (KUA) as preferred destination for migrants is the lowest
- The major part of migrant population (52%) is engaged in some kind of economic activities and maximum number (13.3% engaged in trade and commerce according to Census 2001.
- Vulnerability of migrant population in Kolkata is evident in every migrant dominated settlement which is usually slums and squatter settlement.
- They are deprived of basic civic facilities like shelter, water, sanitation, health and education.
- The Right Track survey of 2007 among squatter colonies in Kolkata which are predominantly inhabited by migrants, shows that majority of the dwellers do not have the basic entitlement documents like ration card, BPL card etc.
- 2001 Census estimates show that the number of migrant children in Kolkata is around 70 thousand of which the largest number falls in the age group of 10-14 and male children are more than the female children.
- Vulnerability of migrant children in Kolkata is not very well-documented. The 2004-05 study by Groupe Development on streets and railway stations in Kolkata shows that the children in the railway platforms collect different materials from trains and platforms and sell those to get money for their daily living
- Many of them are engaged in criminal activities
- Living condition of the children in railway platform is harsh
- Police abuse is also common
- They are often sexually abused
- Drug addiction is also common among these children
- But they are somehow hooked to this life; they would like to go to the night shelters run by CSOs for night stay but come back to the station during the day.

Chapter 4

This chapter focuses on the various activities and intervention areas of some of the Kolkata based NGOs which work for the poor children of the city including the migrant poor. The content of the chapter is based on the literature review and review of various project reports, annual reports etc and interview with the officials of the NGOs. The selected NGOs are Child in Need Institute (CINI), Don Bosco Ashalayam (DBA), Right Track, Garden Reach Slum Development (GRSD) and Vikramshila Education Resource Society.

- CINI works for the children and women of mainly poorer communities and aims at creating a friendly atmosphere for them where families, schools, police settings and other social and physical settings are committed to respect, protect and fulfill children's right to health, nutrition and education and protection from all forms of abuses and exploitations and violence.
- Its urban Unit named CINI ASHA formed in 1989 works with the poor children living in the slums of Kolkata and also migrant children living in and around Sealdah Railway Station. Its main target groups are children living on street, red light areas, and child laborers. To reach out those target groups it has adopted various strategies like drop in centre, night shelter, child help line etc.
- The main intervention areas include Health, Education and child protection. Some of their projects are Mid day meal, Towards Eliminating Child Labour in Kolkata (Under NCLP Scheme), Child Line-1098, The Railway Children project (for the migrant children found in and around Sealdah Station.)
- The focus on the migrant children by CINI started in 1989 with children living in and around Sealdah Railway Station. In the initial phase the project was funded by GOAL, Ireland and carried out by CINI. After 1993, the project came under the urban sector CINI ASHA.
- With the help of various stakeholders like DRM, RPF, Hawkers union and Eastern railway employee's wives association etc, CINI ASHA got a space, where the platform children started coming for taking shelter at night. In 1996 Railway Children became their key funding agency.
- CINI ASHA conducted various studies among the platform children to understand their categories and define different approaches to reach them.
- CINI ASHA approaches its activities on the platform children of Sealdah in two ways – (i) Center-based and (ii) out-reach based. It runs two transit homes, viz., Udaan and Uttaran within the Sealdah station compound itself. In Udaan it keeps about 25 runaway and abandoned children who are 10-16 years of age. Uttaran houses the children of the age of 5-9 years. The homes accommodate 25 children who are given coaching classes, vocational trainings and are involved in various activities like "Child Health Volunteers" and in various recreational programmes. The Outreach approach involve running child assistance booth, conducting workshop with various stakeholders, finding out native places of the transit home children so that they can return home etc.
- Several children living in and around Sealdah Station had come into contact with and received necessary support at the Sealdah programme of CINI ASHA since its inception.
- Don Bosco Ashalayam (DBA) is a non – government organization (NGO), working with the street and destitute children since 1985. The Vision of DBA is to build a child friendly society that owns up and offers sufficient possibilities for all its children to grow to full potential with rights and responsibilities and become agents of social harmony.
- DBA runs a project called Railway Children Project at Station in collaboration with Railway children in India (RCI) since 2009. The focus of the project is on early intervention to help these children for restoration and rehabilitation.

- Various facilities provided under the project for the children are drop in centres, night shelters, vocational training, foster care home, re-unification with family etc.
- The main stake holders of this project are the Ministry of Women and Child Development, government of India and Department of Women and Child Development, government of West Bengal and also the Ministry of Railway. Some others include various NGOs, Labour Unions, RPF and GRPs etc.
- The impact of this project on the children has been good so far. The children are taught good manners in the DIC and some of them are taking vocational training at foster care home. After training many students have been placed well in various sectors of job.
- DBA faced many problems from various corners of society for instance as it is not registered under Juvenile Justice (JJ) Act
- The lack of identity proof of the children also becomes a problem when the employer authorities ask for it during job interviews after completion of vocational trainings.
- Another important problem is the discontinuity in the teaching and activity courses as the children leave whenever they want because of no fixed rule of retaining them in the centre.
- Right Track is a community based development agency which works to improve the quality of life of the disadvantaged children in Kolkata and South 24 Parganas since 1988.
- The core intervention areas are education, health, child protection, women empowerment, right to livelihood and entitlement, vocational training, and environment consciousness.
- The ongoing projects in the KMC area (wards 78, 79, 80, 83, 95, 96, 97,102) are – street to school, creating opportunities for working children (child domestic labours both live-in and non live-in), Ensuring rights of Children and Women in urban areas.
- The Garden Reach Slum development is a non -profit and non government organization founded in the year 1989. It is working for the enhancement of the living condition of poor people through self help.
- The main components of their work are mainly education, health, and community empowerment of the economically weaker sections of the society residing in slums with special emphasis on pregnant women, street children, child labour, rag picker, destitute women and widow.
- Their project areas are urban poor population of Garden Reach, Matiabruz and Maheshtala in the south western part of Kolkata.
- Some of the activities of GRSD include mid day meal, NCLP Schools, Community health care programmes, remedial centres, alternative schools etc.
- Vikramshila Education Resource Society was founded in 1989 and since then it works for the children of under privileged and under resourced section of society and makes education accessible to them and make them aware of its importance in life. It has also been doing various works in action research and teacher-development programmes all over India.

- Nava Dishain one of its projects aims to mainstream the out of school children to formal school by giving them 3-4 years of alternate education coaching and also to work with formal schools for the improvement of their quality. Vikramshila started this project in the year 1999 with Kolkata police in the urban slums. It has 19 centres all over Kolkata and its suburban areas.

Chapter 5

In this chapter we discuss the programmes that are initiated by the government for serving the poor children and try to establish how far they are catering to the urban migrant children in the city of Kolkata. We discussed in this chapter the three important government programmes that are going on throughout India and also in the city for development of the children and how the migrant children are included in these programmes. The programmes discussed here, are ICDS, SSA and NCLP. The main observations are as follows:

- So far no separate programme has been taken up by the government to tackle the issue of migrant children. They are supposed to be covered under the general development programmes for the children.
- The processes of inclusion of migrant children are different in three different programmes.
- In ICDS, there are separate processes to include the children of seasonal migrant families and long term migrant families.
- Though the Anganwadi Workers face some difficulties to bring the target group families under the programme due to language and other problems, these families are not totally kept outside the programme.
- Regarding SSA, earlier the migrant children were mostly covered under the Shikshalaya Prkalpa of SSA which was implemented through NGOs. The NGOs were running AIE centres where deprived urban children used to get enrolled.
- However, after the enactment of RTE, the Shikshalaya Prkalpa has been eliminated from the programme as NGOs are no more allowed to run schools under Government programme. This has badly hit the education especially of migrant children. The students of these centres are supposed to get enrolled in the mainstream schools but how far that is happening is not yet known.
- Under the NCLP, child labours are covered and a substantial part of them belong to migrant families though the children are mostly born in the locality.
- The children get enrolled in these schools on the basis of the survey conducted by the NGOs and the process is same for all child labours.
- These children have not withdrawn themselves from work but continuing both work and study simultaneously.
- The NGOs are also facing difficulties to run the school due to inadequate and irregular disbursement of fund.
- As it is an important programme for the deprived urban children, more care should be taken by the government to implement the programme successfully.

Chapter 6

In this chapter the results of the household survey is presented. The data specifically focuses on the socio-economic background of the migrant households, their access to entitlement and basic civic amenities. A comparative assessment with non-migrant households brings forth the relatively better position of the non-migrants in terms of these basic parameters. As observed during the area survey by the research team the poor people migrating to the city in the last decade or so are usually living in squatter settlements rather than in notified slums where usually the non-migrant population live. The condition of the squatter settlements is unfit for human habitation where an entire family is squeezed inside a tiny, dimly-lit, make-shift room. There are risks of fire and disease. Sanitation facility is poor. The living condition of the non-migrant slum population is marginally better in terms of basic facilities. The children of the migrants grow up in such undesirable conditions. The main findings of the household survey are as follows:

Social Background of the Respondents

- Migrant slums have more backward population like scheduled castes and also more religious minorities like Muslims than in migrant slums even though Hindus are the largest religious group in both migrant and non-migrant slums.
- The average family size of the non-migrant slums is higher than that in the migrant slums (4.5).
- The sex ratio of the migrant families (968) is less than the non-migrant families (978).
- Child population (0 to 14 years) constituted a larger share among the migrant population than in the non-migrant group.

Reasons for Migration

- Job was the only reason for migrating to Kolkata in case of almost all the families.
- Natural calamities also worked indirectly as a reason for migration. It made the families jobless and forced them to shift to the city.

Economic Condition

- Both types of families mostly belong to lower income group with monthly income between Rs. 1501 and Rs. 7500.
- Majority of the migrant males work as daily labour while non-migrant males are mostly engaged either in self employment or as daily labour. Most of the females of both categories work as house maid.
- Household expenditure of migrant and non-migrant families are almost same i. e. Rs. 1501 to Rs. 7500 per month.
- Migrant families are more used to take loan than the non-migrant families. On the other hand, non-migrant families are more habituated to save money than the migrant families.

Access to Entitlement

- The entitlement scenario of non-migrant families is better than the migrant ones to some extent.
- Almost three-fourth of the migrant families do not possess any type of ration card.
- Majority of the families of both the categories have voter ID card and almost all of them cast vote.
- Three-fourth of the families of both categories have availed birth certificate.

Access to Basic Services and Amenities

- More migrant households live in their own houses than the non-migrant households.
- The majority of migrant households live in jhupris and in kuchha huts which are mostly dilapidated while most of the non-migrant households live in semi-pucca houses.
- KMC stand post is the primary source of water for both migrants and non-migrant households.
- Most of the households of both the categories have toilet facilities outside their premises. Majority of non-migrant households are using flush latrines and the pit latrines while migrant families mostly use insanitary latrines of hanging type.
- A significant percentage of migrant households do not have any drainage facility while as high as 74.4% households in the non-migrant category said they have closed drains.
- 92.2% non-migrant households are having electricity connection while only 53% of migrant households available this facility.
- 88.6% households in non-migrant slums and only 26% households in migrant slums enjoy the facility of concrete road respectively.
- Both the categories prefer government healthcare facility if available nearby
- Migrant category uses more of government facilities than private hospitals and private doctors.

Chapter 7

Chapter 7 continues the results of data analysis of household survey on specific issues relating to children of the migrant households. The data shows the following:

- Parents of the children of both migrant and non-migrant households have shown strong positive awareness regarding the need for immunization and the children are usually being immunized.
- There are several no-cost facilities provided by the government for the children regarding their health and education which provide some benefit to the children. For example the ICDS scheme provides free pre-school and nutrition for the children.
- However our field observations suggest the ICDS centres are often of poor standard and hardly ideal for the development of a child. There have been several complaints against the quality of food supplied

by the centres. In some cases the children of migrant families do not get the opportunity to avail ICDS facilities. On the positive the ICDS workers are usually committed and the study team has not found any complaint against them.

- The children in the age group of 06-14 usually go to various Government schools and enrollment is high. Their parents clearly want them to get education and also whenever possible arrange for private tutors for additional support although this is a drain on their income.
- The parents, being mostly uneducated, are not in a position to judge whether the children are getting quality education in the schools but the fact that they realize the need for private tuition show that they do not rely entirely on the government system.
- The children often fall ill and usually for minor medical cases the migrant population relies on private doctors rather than the government hospitals. For more serious cases they go to the various government hospitals in the city. Although children go to school, dropping out school is not uncommon.
- Some children end up working at home while a small percentage becomes child labour. They have also dropped out of schools meant for child labours.
- Child Marriage is quite common. There have been cases of children entering into amorous relationship at an early age and some even elope and get married before the age of 18.
- Some children pick up foul language from elders and indulge in various forms of substance abuse.
- In terms of their future aspirations the children of both migrant and non-migrant households, both boys and girls, hope to get some job that will help them earn their own money. They prefer to get jobs with steady income rather than becoming entrepreneurs.
- There is no evidence of children getting any vocational training and becoming skilled workers or entrepreneurs. After the age of 14 (and in some cases before that) the young boys and girls usually join the informal economy of the city which gives them very little opportunity of breaking out of the cycle of poverty.
- Within this overall grim situation the fact that the urban poor, migrant and non-migrant, formed Community Based Organisations of their own in some places, is a positive indication. The CBOs give the poor and their children a relative sense of security and togetherness and keeps the neighbourhood relatively free from the depredations of undesirable elements.

Chapter 8

In this chapter we present two case studies that we conducted on the non-family migrant children in two railway stations, Sealdah and under the two Railway Children projects conducted by CINI ASHA and Don Bosco Ashalayam. The daily activities of the children, their way of living and livelihood ventures, their aspirations for the future have been explored through intense discussions with the children by the research team. The case studies are summarized as below:

Railway Children in Station

This section gives information on the profile of children who are presently staying at station and visit DIC. Following is the outcome of the FGD we have conducted with the children there.

- Among 25 children 23 were boys and two were girls, ranged from 7 years to 18 years. Physical status of all was normal and not of handicapped category.
- Children have come here from within and outside the state. Out of 25 18 came from other parts of West Bengal, like Bankura, Birbhum, etc. They are mostly Bengalis.
- All of them are not living there for a fixed period. Three children couldn't say the duration properly as they visit frequently. Most of them left home on their own, due to various reasons, like broken family, lack of care at home etc.
- Educational status is obviously low. Some of them did go to the schools at their native places but up to primary standard only while others have never gone to school at all. At present, they are visiting DIC where some non – formal educational services like drawing, learning letters, numbers, tables etc. are provided and some are going to NGO centre named Hope Kolkata at Santragachhi.
- Children are engaged in different economic activities starting from begging to stealing articles from the train passengers, most common is collecting used water bottles. They earn Rs 100-200 per day by selling those. Five boys are van pullers, who earn more than Rs 100 per day at Rs 20 per trip while five work as porter and earn Rs 100-150 per day. All of them try to save money after meeting their daily need.
- 15 among 23 children stay inside the station at night. When pushed out by the RPF they spend night in the taxi stand. They use platform bathroom for bathing, and sometimes go to river Ganga. Long distance train's toilet is one of the most common lavatories for all of them.
- At first elder dwellers and railway staff harassed the children but now they got adjusted to it.
- Leftover food in Satabdi Express and Rajdhani Express is very much preferable to them. They take medicine from NGOs / pharmacy whenever needed. Hope Kolkata and Little Big Hope are two NGOs working in , provide medicine to them.
- Watching movies in cinema hall and playing with peers are two common recreations for all the children. Six of them mentioned about taking liquor and drugs in their leisure time.
- Addiction of adhesive is a common practice among the children in station and so they spend a lot for this.

Platform Children at Sealdah Station

- 19 among 23 children surveyed were above 12 years. Majority are Bengalis. Only 3 of them have some educational background.

- 21 out of 23 are of Indian origin, rest two from Bangladesh. They came from different districts like South 24 Parganas, North 24 Parganas, Nadia, Hugli etc.
- Lack of love, food and care are the major reasons behind migration of the children here. Broken family, remarriage of parents, abandoned by parents are also others reasons. Most of them were attracted by the city life which forced them to leave their home.
- CINI ASHA has child health volunteers who treat the children of station who are in bad condition and motivate them to come to the CINI ASHA centre.
- There are fixed bathroom and sanitation facility. So the children don't have to face acute problem for that. During illness medicine are also provided by CINI ASHA.
- Children in CINI have to maintain a discipline life. Where the timing of prayer, study, play, sleep, have meals are all fixed.
- Playing with the peers, watching T.V/ cinema are two major leisure activities.
- Children don't have to face any outsider's trouble as they are totally secured within the centre.
- CINI ASHA centre is full of fun for them, so majority of the children don't want to return back to their home. They also often go for excursion organized by CINI.

2. Policy Implications

The policy implications of the key findings of the study are highlighted in the following section.

1. Migration Data Gap

- The study shows that there is lack of data on child migrants, especially independent migrants in India as well as in West Bengal or Kolkata- intensive research is required for estimating the number of such migrants for planning policy and programme intervention specifically undertaken for this group
- Serious data gap also exists on seasonal and temporary migration of families with children. Studies are needed in this field to estimate such migration and the nature and peculiarities of such migrants so that policy and programmes for children of such families can be planned.
- One of the most important contributing factors to India's increasing urbanization is migration. The report prepared by the Mackinsay Global Institute in 2010, titled 'India's Urban Awakening: Building Inclusive Cities, Sustaining Economic Growth' states that "we will witness over the next 20 years an urban transformation the scale and speed of which has not happened anywhere in the world except in China". Urbanisation will automatically increase with increased migration. However, there are no specific programmes and plans for the migrants. They are denied the basic human rights. In big cities they take shelter in unauthorized encroachments which are devoid of minimum basic services. Therefore, migrants' needs and aspirations have to be dovetailed into the city planning process. The City Development Plan that the city governments prepare for their cities need to be more inclusive towards the migrants.

- The current slum rehabilitation programmes like Basic Services for the Urban Poor (BSUP) under JNNURM, and Rajiv Awas Yojana do not take cognizance of the migrants. In fact, rehabilitation policies often displace migrants. Therefore, the rehabilitation policies and programmes have to be designed such a way that they become more accommodative towards migrants.
- Our study also shows that lack of identity document like voter ID card, BPL card, ration card etc is a problem for these mobile households to get any entitlements like food, social security etc. There should be some structural changes in the protocol of such entitlements so that the poor migrants can have access to these services.

2. Health Care and Education of Migrant Children

- Governments of India's immunization programmes are clearly quite successful and in the study population there is no evidence of children not being immunized. However a census is required to confirm the finding of the sample survey.
- There is an urgent need to increase the number of ICDS centres as well as improve the quality of infrastructure. A detailed assessment is required of whether the children are getting quality education in the pre-schools or not, and appropriate actions need to be taken regarding this.
- In terms of provision of basic education the result is mixed. While enrollment and awareness regarding education is high, there is also evidence that children need private tutors and therefore the quality of the education provided in the government run schools is an issue that needs to be looked into and appropriate actions need to be taken.
- While mid-day meal is provided to most children there has to be greater quality check of the mid-day meals provided.
- In the study area the research team has not found any awareness regarding Right to Education. Appropriate measures need to be taken so that parents are made aware of their rights under RTE, 2009.
- It has been found that for minor medical cases the population prefers to go to private doctors even though it is a drain on household finance. Why the existing government run health care systems are not considered adequate is a matter that requires detailed investigation followed by appropriate actions.
- There is clear evidence that child labour exists among both boys and girls and the NCLP schools are not having the desired impact. Suitable options need to be created for the migrant urban poor so that child labour is eliminated. The infrastructure of NCLP schools (in the short run) needs to be revamped so that those who unfortunately do end up as child workers can nonetheless get adequate education.
- There is almost no provision for vocational training for the young adults who therefore do not get the opportunity to become skilled workers. This is an area that requires urgent policy level attention.

- In the study population child marriage is the norm rather than the exception. Greater awareness in this regard needs to be generated through appropriate communication strategies.
- There are several Community Based Organisations in both the migrant and non-migrant localities. These can be strengthened so that the children can get greater support in terms of opportunities for their development.

3. Child labour eradication

- Families should be sensitized to send their children to schools
- There is need to improve the family's socio economic conditions so that the children do not have to earn for family. Unlike rural areas there is not a special programme like NREGA for the urban areas. But the Kolkata Municipal Corporation on its own has introduced a similar programme as Hundred Days' Programme under which BPL persons are engaged for cleaning the city. However, this programme is not yet as widespread as it should have been. Awareness about the programme is also limited. Therefore the Hundred Days Work programme should be implemented more widely among the families with child labour so that the parents can earn and the children can go to school.
- Parents should be trained in income generating skills.
- Intensive awareness generation should be launched among the employers of child labour regarding the Acts relating to child labour prohibition.
- The prohibition of employment of child labour under Child Labour Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986 and Rules should be strictly enforced
- The NCLP initiatives initiated in 1988 as a part of Plan of Action as a component of National Child Labour Policy 1987 should be implemented with sincerity and care by the state government.
- Effective rehabilitation of the child labour along with strong enforcement mechanism of child labour laws could only stop entry of children into the workforce.

Appendix : Summary Reports of Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

A. Migrant Slums

Migration - Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>1. Majdoor Bustee (KMC ward No. 66) : Majdoor Bustee, a squatter settlement, is located in between two parallel running drainage canals just behind the Science City. The canals stretch from Uttar Panchanna Gram along EM bypass on the east to the terminal stand of private bus route no. 24 on the north-west. The huts are lined on both sides of the narrow dividing embankment in between. There are also a number of shops of Kachrawalas (purchasers and sellers of wastes like old paper, plastics, glass, iron rubber etc). Dwellers are mostly Bengali speaking Muslims. About 10-12 women (mothers) along with their toddlers had participated in the FGD.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Majority from different areas of South 24 Parganas (Kultali, Joynagar, Pathar Pratima, Canning CD blocks), few from North 24 Parganas and other states like Bihar: most came during the last 4-5 years; Loss of property (land etc.) & jobs during the cyclone Aila prime driving force behind migration. Husbands migrated early; separate establishments at Kolkata and native place expensive; this forced to bring families to Kolkata; Men were migrant labour in the city and known it for years, that is why they came to Kolkata. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Only the males earn; do Kachrar Kaj (rag picking). Women do housekeeping and child rearing. Steady income at city guarantees three square meals a day. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hutment built with the help of a NGO (World Vision) and Mr. Jawed Khan, Honorable Cabinet Minister of GoWB; 3 community toilets made by KMC; most erected 'own' toilets of bamboo and polythene over the canal; Only one stand post drinking water connection for the entire community; Most hutments have electricity connections shared from a common meter by the grace of Mr. Jawed Khan. The settlement has 4 ICDS centers and a NGO run pre-school; Prefer private clinic over hospital as the former is nearest and less time consuming. Government hospital (CNMCH) not nearby 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infested with alcoholics and drug addicts; Criminal activities very common; Domestic violence and eve teasing frequent. Social environment quarrelsome; Teenagers also involved in criminal activities and take drugs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 ICDS centers working; visited one in a very poor condition-no electricity, no windows, floor katcha & uneven with holes around; un-child friendly condition repels kids; pre-school attendance poor; Most children go to NGO School, very few attend government schools; Many children dropped out due to poverty and get engaged in jobs (as rag picker); Never-enrolled children present. Immunization of <6 children almost 100%; few lostn cards; for vaccination visit KMC health centre; Nursing mothers and toddlers get food supplement from the ICDS centers. Many children appear under-nourished. Many Children addicted to substances like fevicol and Ganja. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> About 90% have Aadhaar cards. None has a ration card (RC) at present address; most have RCs at their native addresses; do not want to transfer RCs at the present address which has no legal status; Voter photo ID cards are also at their native address; visit native villages to cast votes. Not aware of Government schemes and facilities, like, free school education etc; Only 1 out of 12 women participants received benefit of JSY. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Huts made of "darma" (split bamboo mat) highly combustible; livein fearof fire break out; want to rebuilt with tin. Formation of SHG and vocational training for women folks a felt need; these would enable women to pursue economic activities from within the domain of home. Few more drinking water stand post connections needed; ICDS centers should be child friendly.

Migration-Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>2. 4 No. RR Plot, Jhilpar (KMC ward No. 108) : The squatter called '4 No. RR colony' is comparatively new and is situated on the eastern side of EM bypass just opposite Abhishikta Housing. The hutments are erected on the Western bank of a fairly large sewage fed fishery. The huts are lined in a single row with a very narrow path-way in front of them. The huts were built on a split bamboo platform made over the water body in such a way that only a part of the roofs are visible from the EM bypass. This is to avoid the stigma of encroachers. The walls are made of bamboo, polythene etc; while the roofing materials include burnt earthen tiles, polythene sheets, and dried coconut leaves.. About 100 households reside here. All are Bengali speaking Hindus. Nearly 25 persons participated in the FGD (20 women and 5 men).</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Came to Kolkata during last 2-3 years • Native places include various areas of the South 24 Pargana's Sunder-bans, viz., Joynagar, Kultali, Raidighi etc.; • Cyclone Aila destroyed cultivable lands, homes and cattle and people became jobless. • Lack of income back home compelled them to come to Kolkata neighbours and relatives moving to the city for jobs and shelter also encouraged them to come to Kolkata to try to make a fortune here. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men mostly pull rickshaw or work in construction sites as unskilled labourers. • Over 90% of the women are engaged as domestic helps in nearby middle class households, they call 'Babu Bari'. • Better and regular income opportunities in Kolkata than village. • Both men and women can earn. • Some who still have parents/ children back at native places remit money to villages regularly. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack proper sanitation system. Have built their own arrangements over the water body by raising bamboo platforms. • No drinking water facility nearby. Have to fetch water from a distant place by cycle-van or cycle. • Using pond water for cooking, bathing, cleaning utensils and clothes. The sewage-fed pond water causes skin ailments. • No electric connection. • No ICDS centre. • No government school nearby; as a result most have left their school going children back at native places in custody of their grandparents and hopes to bring them here if schooling facilities are available here too. • No KMC health centre nearby. • Chittaranjan Hospital (CNMCH) is the nearest one. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initially the squatter settlement was ransacked and dwellers were threatened to vacate the place by goons; some social workers and Mr. Jawed Khan came to their rescue; • Dwellers formed a committee to organize the community Kali Puja; committee also looks after the day-to-day problems of the settlement; • No help from police in time of need; • Problem of alcohol & drug addiction nonexistent. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many left their children behind in native villages; • Some go to the government school. Many refused admission in schools at Kolkata for lack of documents like birth certificates; • No one heard of 'Right to Education Act'; • No ICDS centre. Nearest one doesn't allow their kids there; • No primary or pre- school nearby; • For vaccination they go to nearest KMC health centre. • Except few, almost all of them have immunization cards of their children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some have voter ID cards at their native places and most do not have it anywhere; • None have Aadhar cards; • Most of them have BPL cards in their native places but do not dare to transfer their RCs at their present addresses due to unstable nature of their life in the temporary settlements.; • Some do not have any RC anywhere; • None found aware of government schemes and facilities meant for the poor. • No mother has received the benefits of JSY even at their native places. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They want a ICDS centre; • They want community latrine; • They want electric connection; • They want drinking water stand-posts.

Migration-Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>3. Birjee (KMC ward No.110) : Situated on the south-eastern boundary of KMC ward no. 110, Birjee is bounded on the north by EM Bypass, on the east by Tolly's Nullah, on the south by Srirampur locality and on the west by Patuli area. Formerly a village, it is now inhabited by lower middle class and poor people. The Metro Station Shaheed Khudiram is situated on the north-eastern corner of Birjee. Being on the southern fringe of the metropolis bordering the district of South 24 Parganas it is almost at one of the major centers of construction activities of Kolkata and skilled and semi-skilled construction workers from comparatively distant rural locations of South 24 Parganas have chosen it as a temporary living place. About 100+ such construction workers are residing here as tenants along with their families. In all 15 mothers with children < 10 took part in the FGD.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Migrated during the last 2-3 years; About 80 % from different areas of South 24 Parganas (mainly from Sunderbans CD Blocks); rest from North 24 Parganas; very few from other states of Bihar and Orissa; Lack of regular and steady income in native places forced male members to seek employment at construction sites in Kolkata; for those from Sunderbans loss of property in cyclone Aila acted as added factor; Refusal of rental accommodation to single males compelled to bring wives and children; wives earning as house maids fattened family income; maintaining family and child education become easier. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In native places men working mostly as agricultural labourers and women keeping houses; employment mainly seasonal. In Kolkata men work as construction workers, driver, security workers etc.; regular and steady income guaranteed; except one or two most women participants work as domestic maids. Joint income enable to provide private tutors to children even after paying house rent and buying daily provisions; Only 2 out of 15 participating women of FGD reported of remitting money to native places. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Live in rented accommodations; Rented accommodations have proper sanitation arrangement and electricity connection; Drinking water stand posts situated nearby; Government FP schools and high schools also close by; Covered by ICDS facilities; Government hospitals like M. R. Bangur and Bagha Jatin State General nearby. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Locality safe for women and children; No cases of drug addiction or criminal activities reported in the locality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All children go to Government schools (FP and secondary); Have no complaint on the quality of teaching in schools; but as the children are mostly first generation learners parents recruit private tutors; Children of 3-6 years attend ICDS preschool classes regularly; No incidence of child labour reported; About 60% of the children born at native places not completely immunized due to migration & loss of documents in cyclone Aila; children born in Kolkata receive the immunization from the nearest KMC health centre; Only 2 of the participating women received benefits of JSY; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10 out of 15 participating women have BPL ration cards at native addresses; others do not possess RCs. None has voter photo ID card; those from Sunderbans lost them in the cyclone Aila; Difficult to procure any entitlement document here in Kolkata as Landlords do not give rent receipt; Women face difficulty in getting jobs of domestic helping hand without a proper entitlement document like voter ID card, ration cards etc.; Local clubs do not involve migrants in social and festive events in spite of taking subscriptions from them. Not aware of any rights, schemes and facilities provided by the Government for the poor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Want an organization that would explain them their rights and fight for them. Want rent receipt from the landlords so that they can produce those as their identity and address proofs at places of work.

Migration-Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>4. Nonadanga Lake Palli (KMC ward No. 108) : Nonadanga Lake Palli, a squatter settlement is situated on the bank of a fairly large sewage fed fish pond near the Nonadanga RR housings complex. The settlement is about 8 years old and inhabited by 230 households. The dwellers are mostly migrant poor who first settled at the squatter settlement on the banks of canal CC-1 (East) as tenants. During the rehabilitation programme of DWF and storm water canals by KEIP, only the original occupants ('owners) of the hutments there were allotted accommodation at RR housing complex while their tenants got evicted. Initially 10-12 such evicted tenant households occupied the northern bank of the fish pond. Many others with similar situation and also some fresh out migrants from South 24 Parganas joined them later. At present they do not allow any other 'outsider' to settle down there. They have formed a CBO named Nonadanga Lake Palli Welfare Committee. The population is mostly Bengali speaking Hindus with some Hindi speaking Hindu families. About 30 people joined the FGD out of which 20 were women.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Migrated during the last 8 years. ● Majority from different rural areas of South 24 Parganas (CD blocks of Bishnupur I & II, Canning I & II, Pathar Pratima etc.). ● Few interstate migrants from UP, Bihar and Orissa. ● Lack of job opportunity and irregular and poor income and food scarcity in native places main factors behind migration. ● were motivated by fellow out-migrant neighbours & relations to shift to Kolkata for better scope of earning in Kolkata. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Men work as rickshaw puller, mason and unskilled day labourer at construction sites, and also as tailors, drivers, electrician etc. ● 20 out of 30 women participants work as domestic helps; ● With both the spouses earning they are able to make both ends meet and provide education. to their children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A single line hutments; Huts separated from each other by partition made of split bamboo mat called Darma; Side walls are made of Darma and roofing materials include burnt earthen tiles and corrugated sheets; only 10-12 out of 230 huts have cemented floor; ● Majority have own toilet (Katcha well type); those without own one's use the 3 community toilets built by KMC; ● 132 out of 230 households have electricity connections sub-metered from two CESC meters. All the 132 households are legal users of the CESC two meters. ● One tube well for all 230 households; water not potable. ● No KMC health centre nearby; visit CNMCH in health emergency; ● Deliveries are institutional. ● Government Schools far off. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A safe place for women folk and children. ● No incidence of eve teasing occurred so far. ● Drug addicts and drunkenness are not tolerated in the locality; ● To redress any common problems approach own CBO Nonadanga Lake Pally Welfare Committee. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The children of all the participants attend either government school or private ones; ● There are many children of school going age who have never been to school or dropped out because of poverty; ● Children have to take bus ride to go to Government school which is not affordable for many causing drop outs; ● Private school is nearby but expensive; ● The quality of mid-day meal is poor according to some; ● No ICDS centre. Nearest one doesn't allow the squatters' children; ● All of them have immunization cards for their children and received vaccination from nearest Govt. hospital. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● All of them have Aadhaar card; ● Only few (5 out of 30) have Voter ID card at the present address; Rest have it at their native address; ● About 50 % of them have BPL ration cards at their native villages and haven't transferred it here. Only a few said to have one in the city while the rest do not have it at all; ● Not aware of Right to Education; ● Only two of the women participants received benefits of JSY; Many said they have appealed and roamed in various offices for getting the benefit of the scheme but didn't get it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● They want a ICDS centre near their locality; ● Want a Government primary school nearby; ● They want the quality of mid day meal to be good, hygienic and healthy.

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<p>5. Rajdanga Narkelbagan Vivekananda Palli (KMC Ward No. 107) : The squatter settlement is 15 years old and lined on the northern bank of the KMC storm water CC-1 (west) and just by the south of Kasba-Rajdanga RR housing complex. Approximately 80 migrant families, all Bengali speaking Hindus reside here. Around 40 persons, mostly women, took part in the FGD. About one-third of the participants migrated to Kolkata during last 10 years while the are in the city for more than 10 years.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Average period of stay in Kolkata ranges from 4 to 7 years. ● Poverty and increasing joblessness, perpetuated by the cyclone Aila, main reasons behind migration to Kolkata. ● Native villages located in various CD blocks of South 24 Parganas (Joynagar-I, Joynagar- II, Kultali, Mograhat, Mandirbazar, Pathar Pratima and Baruipur etc.). ● Not enough job opportunities even for men in native places; ample scope for both the spouses to earn in Kolkata. ● Kolkata not that far off a place and they knew about scopes from relatives and acquaintances who migrated to Kolkata earlier. ● Most of the recent arrivals living as tenants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 27 out of 30 women participants work as domestic helps while men work as rickshaw puller, skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled construction workers. ● Average monthly income of both the spouses per family ranges from Rs 3000-10000; easier to maintain household and rear children in Kolkata. ● Some remit money to old parents at native places; many save money at bank, post office and in L.I.C. policies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Two community latrines constructed by KMC; 3 community latrines constructed by the squatters themselves. ● KMC drinking water supply tanker visits only once a week; to fulfill the shortage some collect drinking water from far off locations and some buy canned drinking water from vendors; community bored two tube wells with own contribution to meet other water needs. ● About 38% have electricity connection taken on rental basis from other local residents. ● No government primary school nearby. Those who have enough money send their children to Private Montessori School. ● KMC health centre at Kasba New Market is very close by; For critical cases visit Chittaranjan Seva Sadan (Hazra), P.G. and Shishumangal hospitals etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● During initial phase members of political parties tried to drive them away. ● Alcoholism among men major problem; beating wife and kids by alcoholic is a common problem; children copy foul languages spoken by fathers. ● Both boys and girls marry at a very tender age often without consent of parents. ● Eve teasing regular affair and the young girls are habituated to it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Some mothers while going for work leave behind kids to be taken care of by neighbours. ● Not aware of RTE, health and other facilities provided by KMC, Government (both state & central). ● All children get universal vaccines at KMC clinic in Kasba New Market. ● No government FP school nearby, most of the children go to school; those having enough money send their children to Private Montessori School; some, particularly girls, dropped out and work as maids. ● No ICDS centre exists nearby. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● All have Aadhaar card. ● 40% never had any ration card; the rest have left the ration cards at their native places; tried in vain to procure ration cards: ● About 90% have Voter Photo ID cards; some in Kolkata address and some in native address (particularly the tenants among them). ● The enterprising dwellers formed CBO, Vivekananda Palli Boys Club (Rajdanga Purba Para) to solve their problems as far as possible; two tube wells and three community latrines constructed on its initiative. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A govt. FP school nearby needed. ● KMC stand post for drinking water a crying need. ● Formation of SHG for women will be great help.

Migration-Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>6. 46 Canal West Road–Khalidhar, Opposite Ultadanga Post Office (KMC Ward No. 12) : The squatter settlement is located on the edge of the west bank of Circular Canal opposite 46 Canal West Rd. and very close to Ultadanga Post Office. The place is mainly a goods disposal area, and trucks get loaded and unloaded here. Squatters have migrated from different parts of South Bengal and Orissa. There live about 300 households. Hutments, erected on the slope of the canal, are made of bamboo poles, plastic sheets (as wall and roofing materials) and split bamboo platform as floor. The environment is anything but hygienic. The dwellers raised a temple of goddess Kali. The temple serves as a community platform to address their common problems. About 20 persons, overwhelmingly women with kids, took part in the FGD.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Migrated from two WB districts: South 24 Parganas (Canning, Basanti, Gosaba etc.) and North 24 Parganas (Malancha, Hingal- gunj); few from Orissa. Food scarcity, jobless-ness and loss assets in cyclone Aila (2009) main reasons behind migration; only men get employment in farm lands at villages. Lure of ample job opportunities for both men and women in Kolkata led them to migrate. Child education easier in Kolkata; schools close by; schools in villages usually far off. Some migrated with children; some left elder children behind in custody of elderly parents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mostly both the spouses are earning; Men are cycle van pullers, porters of salt godown, workers of paper box making workshops etc. Women engaged as domestic helping hands. Some remit money regularly to old parents and school going children left behind at native place; All visit native place during local festive occasions. Among 20 participants 3 invest money in L.I.C. "We are far better off here compared to village. Both husband and wife earn and can spend as needed."- Declared a woman. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No separate basic civic amenities in the squatter settlement; Kids study under street light and in the light of kerosene lamp; Fetch drinking and cooking water from the public stand posts on the opposite side of the road; none objects. Men and teenagers defecate in the open beside the canal; women with their children use community latrine of KMC by paying Rs 3 both for bathing and relieving themselves. Fever, cough and cold and malaria are common ailments; visit RG Kar and B C Roy Child Hospitals; sometimes consult private doctors too. Health workers from KMC often visit. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Till now safe for women and children. A large section of men addicted to alcohol; beat wives and kids while drunken; Eave teasing a daily affair; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most of the <6 children attend ICDS centre situated opposite to the squatter settlement. Almost all 6+ children go to nearest KMC school & Ultadanga High School. All children received vaccination either in their village Health Sub-centers or in B C Roy Child Hospital at Kolkata; have immunization cards. Children get mid-day meals at schools; No complaint about quality of education in school; but need private tutor (Rs 200-300 per month) as children are first generation learners. Children get clothes from nearby club free of cost during Durga Puja every year. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Squatter settlement is illegal; both police and local councilor told them to vacate the canal bank; police frequently threatened them; but have no place to go to. Most have voter photo ID cards in native address; visit native place to cast vote (Panchayat and general elections); Same have Aadhaar cards in present address. None has ration card of any form here; some have it in native address. Among 16 women participants only 2 received JSY benefit. In absence of any local bona fide documents (ration cards/voter photo ID card) do not qualify for benefits of any urban poverty alleviation programmes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As the settlement has no sanction, legal or otherwise, police harassment common problem; this unstable situation hampering family life, particularly of children. The unauthorized squatter settlement is devoid of all civic amenities, water connection, sanitation, electricity etc.).

Migration-Motivation and Process	Economic Activities	Access to Amenities in the city	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Remarks and Recommendations
<p>7. Brace Bridge No. 1, 2 & 3 Jhuprir Hut & No. 4 Indira Palli (KMC Ward No. 80) : Jhuprir Hut and Indira Palli are about 4 squatters settlements spared over the eastern and western sides of Brace Bridge Railway Station on the Sealdah- Budge Budge railway line. These squatter settlements came up on the land of the Port Trust of India and Indian Railway about 35 years back. Some Banjara families used to set up their transit camp each year on vacant Port Trust land. One Mr. Swapan Ghosh (now in his mid 50s), a philanthropic trade unionist of INTUC (INC) fancied transforming the nomads into a settled community. The persistence of Mr. Ghosh bore fruits; the Banjaras are now an important component of the squatter population around Brace Bridge railway station. Mr. Ghosh is almost a demi-god among the poor there. Almost every other day uprooted people from rural hinterlands around Kolkata and other places, including outside West Bengal, come to Brace Bridge armed only with the name of Mr. Swapan Ghosh that "Dada will arrange something" for them! And their faith is not misplaced either. The Jhuprir Hut and Indira Palli are at present a mini India; both the Hindus and Muslims of West Bengal, Orissa, Bihar and UP live here side by side in harmony and peace. Now there live about 800 households. A significant section of the squatters, according to Mr. Swapan Ghosh, is floating in nature. This section represents mostly the Hindi speaking people who after a period of time (2-3 years) change their place of income generating activity and move their place of residence accordingly and place their 'Ristedars' and acquaintances in their huts at Brace Bridge.</p>						
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 30% entered Kolkata during last 10 years; earlier habitats in various locations of South 24 Parganas, including Sundarbans and other parts of India (Bihar, UP, Orissa etc.); perpetual poverty, lack of job opportunities and natural calamities prime driving factors behind migration. ● For a section it is 2nd or 3rd migration from native places but first to Kolkata; prior to coming to Brace Bridge living with relations and acquaintances in the vicinity (Howrah, Barac pur, DumDum, Baruipur, Sonarpur, Budge Budge etc.); they heard about Dada (Mr. Swapan Ghosh) and came here. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Pursue various menial jobs: rag picking, rickshaw pulling, showing road side trapeze tricks, making and selling of honey, selling vegetables, unskilled day labourer, loading-unloading of materials, domestic maids, cleaning utensils at eateries and begging etc.; in most cases both men and women earn. ● Savings difficult with so meager earning; yet Mr. Ghosh pursued a section to open bank savings accounts; account holders being illiterate and casual Mr. Ghosh maintains their pass-books. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Civic amenities conspicuous almost by their absence; neither the Port Trust nor the Indian Railway allows any construction for civic amenities by KMC. ● Fetch drinking water from taps of railway station. ● For dogged persistence of Mr. Ghosh Port Trust allowed KMC to construct only 2 community latrines for 800+households; open defecation common for men and children. ● No all season road; area get messy in monsoon months. ● For minor illness they do self-medication (taking medicines from local pharmacies); otherwise visit Vidyasagar Hospital (about 20 minute's distance) with a letter from Mr. Swapan Ghosh. ● No lawful electricity connection; some opted to hooking. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Most men alcoholic; previously about 27 Cholai Theks (illegal country liquor den) existed; now number comes down to 17; women and children suffer most. ● Earlier hoodlums from outside used to take away women of the squatter on their back; girl child trafficking was also there; for last 3-4 years situation has improved. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● No ICDS centre ever here. ● With the introduction of RTE school run by Right Track (NGO) under Shikhslaya Prokalpa closed. ● Children attend main-stream schools at Shanti Shangha (primary, private) and Goragachha Vidyalaya. ● Not aware of RTE but understand the need of study; incidence of child denied admission due to lack of birth certificate reported. ● Children are badly affected by their parents' rude and quarrelsome life. ● Girls get married at a very early age due to poverty. ● Immunization cards of most of the children are lost due to flood and breakout of fire; and are, thus, not receiving vaccine. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● For the persistence of Mr. Ghosh most of the squatters have ration cards (RC), Voter photo ID cards and Aadhaar cards; but some lost entitlement documents due to breakout of fire about 6 year ago; ● All RCs of APL variety; not aware of the benefit of BPL RCs and representative of KMC is trying hard for last 3 months to pursue the settlers to come to him to enlist names under BPL category. ● Thanks to Mr. Ghosh a significant section of senior citizen and widows receiving old age & widow pensions; last year Mr. Ghosh sent 500 applications for old age and widow pensions and 95 of those has been approved! 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Street light is the most important requirement. ● All season roads. ● A few more community latrines.

B. Non-Migrant Slums

Economic Activities	Access to basic amenities	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Recommendation
<p>1. Pagladanga No. 8 Slum (KMC Ward No. 57): It is located at about 2 km south-west of Chingrighata more on EM Bypass along south bank of Belegghata storm water-cum-drainage canal. It is a registered slum and about 60 years old. A fairly large slum, it is populated mostly by the members of low caste Hindus. Almost the entire present population is born and brought up here and none knows from where their parents and grandparents came from. The overwhelming majority of the residents who are sub-tenants of the holders of Thika tenancy, form the poorest economic strata of the city. The slum has a number of small leather hand gloves manufacturing units. Most adult men of the slum work in those glove manufacturing units, some work in hosiery factories nearby and some pursue cycle rickshaw pulling. Most of the adult and able bodied women cut the leather of the hand glove on piece rate sitting at their homes. About 15 women who were mothers of took part in the FGD.</p>					
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most of the women participants of the FGD are earners. They cut leather sheets into the shape of hand glove on piece rate basis sitting at their homes; leather and cutting tools supplied by factory owners; one such woman worker earns about Rs 50-90 a day; but work is available only for 3-4 days a week. Most of the husbands of the participants work in the local glove factories; some pull cycle rickshaw and some work in nearby hosiery factories. Wage is very poor; with joint income of both spouses they can barely make the both ends meet; most cannot save; almost all borrow from neighbours in time of extreme needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Latrines facility highly insufficient in every holding; open defecation not uncommon; one KMC made community latrine can be used by paying 50 paisa per use/per head; but it is a bit far from the slum. No public drinking water stand post exists; KMC tanker carrying potable drinking water visits slum every day. Most households do not have electricity connection. For minor illness do self medication; otherwise consult private practitioners; visit NRS hospital for ANC and deliveries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Slum secured though stealing a general problem here. Dwellers united; miscreants from outside dare not to do any nuisance. New Kadamtala Sangha a local club, renders help by giving monetary support space etc. in wedding ceremony. A sizeable section of men alcoholic; create public nuisance; male children around 15 years of age are getting influenced by violent behavior of elders. Underage girls fleeing and marrying. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One ICDS center runs from the club- New Kadamtala Sangha; provide supplementary nutrition to <6 kids and expecting and nursing mothers and pre-school education to 3-6 kids; atmosphere generally clean and child friendly; all children receive vaccines. Most of the children go to nearby government FP schools after ICDS and from there to high schools; children of extreme poor families dropped out and work in glove factories. Residents not aware of RTE. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most have voter ID cards; some do not possess Voter ID cards as they were not at home when enlisting was done; now agents demanding money. Ration cards of APL variety; some lost RCs and other documents in fire that broke out a few years ago; now agent demanding Rs 1000-3000 per card; quality of goods at ration shop very poor. Work of BPL ration cards and Aadhaar cards in progress. Police do not entertain dwellers complaint; only club comes to help. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pipeline facility of drinking water should be extended to slum.

Economic Activities	Access to basic amenities	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Recommendation
<p>2. Taltala Bustee (KMC Ward No. 28) : Taltala Bustee, on the Raja Dinendra Street in Garpar area is a registered slum and about 90 years old. It is located almost at an equidistance from Manicktala crossing and Rajabazar Science College. The slum is a 100% Hindu settlement and houses about 120 families in all. Among them only 6 are Hindi speaking and the rest are Bengalees. Only 10% of the households are Thika holders and the rest are their tenants. Both the Thika holders and their tenants, it appeared from the FGD, are poor and a close knit community. All the houses are semi Pucca with cemented floor, brick wall and burnt earthen tiles as roof and are very small in size. A total number of 22 women participated in the FGD.</p>					
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Men engaged as car driver, security guard, book binding worker, cook of road side eateries and restaurants. Most women engaged as own account binding workers, popularly known as Forma Bhaja (folding of large printed sheets into folds of 8,16,32 and 64 pages), some work as domestic maid, few as masseur and beautician. Average monthly income of a working woman ranges between Rs 1500-2000. Average income of male earner comes about to Rs 4500-5000 a month. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receive all facilities provided by KMC and government. All have access to latrine facilities connected to central sewerage; latrines shared and not adequate; ill maintained. Collect drinking water from public stand post. KMC sweeper clean lanes and vat daily. KMC health centre and B C Roy Shishu Haspatal nearby. Lady Abala, Victoria Institution, renowned schools close by. Baithak Khana Bazar very close. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area safe for women and children; no experience of threat from any quarter; in the summer nights women often sleep in the open. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All <6 children receive immunization from KMC Health center nearby. Two ICDS centers function close by; <6 slum children go there. Five reputed schools, viz., Brahma Girls, CNI, and Lady Abala etc nearby; slum children go to these schools. Literate parents try to give their children best education as far as possible; provide private tutors even. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All households have voter photo ID cards. Process of giving Aadhaar card not completed yet; some received cards. No without ration card household; All listed as BPL families; some already received BPL ration cards and some yet to receive it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A few more latrines needed.

Economic Activities	Access to basic amenities	Safety and Security	Condition of Children	Discrimination	Recommendation
<p>3. No. 4 Kripanath Dutta Lane Slum (KMC ward No. 6): The slum, adjacent to a big slum called Ghosh Para, falls within KMC Ward No. 6. It is an old and authorized slum settlement. It is located just on the west of the Tala Bridge near Shyambazar. The dwellers, mostly Bengali and Hindi speaking low caste Hindus, are living in the slum for generations. About 10% of the residents are original Thika lease-holders while the rest are their tenants. About 15 women of age group 18-45 participated in the FGD.</p>					
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Men pursue variety of occupations like car driving, tailoring etc. ● About 60% of the participants were working women; engaged as domestic maids, beautician, nurse and Ayah. ● Money earned not sufficient to pursue children's higher education. ● Seldom save money in bank although some have bank accounts. ● Few remit money back to native villages where some of their family members still reside. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● All residents of a Thika holding including both lease-holder and his/her tenants share common latrine connected to central sewerage system. ● One drinking water connection in one holding; water available for 24 hours in the tap. ● Government hospital (R G Kar Medical College and Hospital) nearby; also visit. KMC health centre of the locality. ● Both Hindi and Bengali medium primary and secondary government schools in near vicinity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Social environment peaceful; people live in harmony. ● Girls, women and children safe and secured. ● Seek Ward councilor's intervention to redress any civic problem; local club Pradeep Sangha also resolves problems and issues of the locality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ICDS center functions from the club room; provide supplementary nutrition to <6 children and expecting and nursing mothers; provide pre-school education to 3-6 kids; make them aware about immunization and ANC < PNC etc., have no complaint about supplementary nutrition. ● All children receive universal immunization from KMC health unit; all have immunization cards. ● Majority children attend school (FP & secondary); some school drop-outs (mostly of very poor families) exist; no complaint about the quality of education and mid-day meals. ● School drop outs engaged in various types of jobs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● All have voter ID card and Aadhaar card. ● All have APL ration cards not the BPL one; appealed to KMC many times to address the problem but nothing happened; KMC staff demanded money for ration cards. ● Only a few women got benefit of JSY. ● Not many are aware of government's pro poor schemes and facilities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Formation of SHG for women a felt need.

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