

[www.pesquisaonline.net](http://www.pesquisaonline.net)

**PESQUISA**  
RESEARCH JOURNAL

**PESQUISA**  
JOURNAL OF RESEARCH

Peer Reviewed Multi disciplinary & Multilingual International Research Journal  
Published from Western Ghats

PESQUISA

ISSN-2455-0736 (Print)  
ISSN-2456-4052 (Online)

**PESQUISA**  

---

**RESEARCH JOURNAL**

**Peer Reviewed Half Yearly Journal**

**PESQUISA**

Peer Reviewed Multi disciplinary & Multilingual International Research Journal  
Published from Western Ghats

Issue: Volume-2, Issue No-2, May 2017

© Exclusive publication, distribution and promotion rights reserved with the publishers.

ISSN : ISSN-2455-0736 (Print)  
: ISSN-2456-4052 (Online)  
Publisher : Pavanatma Publications, Kerala.

Price : This issue (Limited Copies) is sponsored by  
Labour and Migration Unit of Indian Social Institute, Bangalore.

Contact: \_\_\_\_\_

The Coordinator  
PESQUISA  
Pavanatma Publications  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
Idukki Dist., Kerala State - 685604  
www.pesquisaonline.net  
pesquisajournal@gmail.com  
09495394362, 09447526012

**From the Desk of the chief editor.**

Dear Readers/Authors,

Welcome to issue 2, volume 2 of the Journal *Pesquisa*, which is entering in its third year of circulation. Infact, it is a tremendous honour for me to be the Editor-in-Chief (EIC) of such a prestigious journal as *Pesquisa*. Our endeavour to start an international, online journal has seen the light of the day with the support, help and guidance of all our eminent research associates. Thanks to the valiant efforts of our esteemed editorial board members, it is now possible to publish the journal half yearly, which is available in electronic versions as well.

The International Journal *Pesquisa*, being multi disciplinary in approach, welcomes submissions that explore the possibility of a wide range of subjects. Appropriate submissions could include general survey research, attitudinal measures, investigations into broad societal issues, or any number of empirical approaches that fit within the general umbrella provided by the journal. Authors are invited to submit their work at any time throughout the year and should carefully review the submission criteria and requirements.

The current issue sets focus on interstate migrant workers in Kerala .This is a burning issue, the impact of which is increasingly felt far and wide .I am happy to present eight papers in this issue that share some aspects of the intricacies of interstate migrant workers in the state.

*Pesquisa*, a peer reviewed Multidisciplinary International Journal, maintains rigorous peer-review standards. If you have a submission that you believe meets our criteria, we encourage you to consider *Pesquisa* as an outlet for your academic research. Last, the success of any journal is built primarily on four groups of people: the contributors, the reviewers, the associate editors, and the publications staff. I would like to thank all of them and express my sincere appreciation for the support they have given to *Pesquisa* time and again.

With Regards,

Dr. Johnson V  
Chief Editor  
25<sup>th</sup> May 2017

'PESQUISA' the International Journal of Research is a peer-reviewed, multidisciplinary and multilingual international journal devoted to the promotion of theoretical, empirical and pragmatic research works. The international multidisciplinary journal of research was founded in 2015 through a joint effort of Dr. Johnson V, Prof. Sr. Anice KP, and Shri. Boby Thomas Athickal under the guidance of Rt. Rev. Dr. Mar. Mathew Anikuzhikattil, Rev. Msgr. James Mangalasseril and Rev. Fr. Jose Karuvelickal. We promote quality research articles done by scholars, students and teachers all over the world. Publication of quality article is free of cost. With this issue the periodicity of publication becomes half yearly.

Submission of a paper to this journal will be taken to imply that it represents original work not previously published, that it is not being considered elsewhere for publication and that if accepted for publication it will not be published elsewhere in the same form, in any language, without the consent of editor and publisher.

### **Peer Review Process.**

We believe in the quality of research articles. Therefore, 'PESQUISA' designed four steps in the peer review process, with a view to ensure quality. The process starts two months before the publication of articles through a 'call for research papers'. Articles received will be processed under four stages.

1. Selection of quality research articles through a blind peer review by a group of experts/ scholars and elimination of sub-standard articles.  
Selected articles will be published in the website for open peer review, on the next day of the closing date (generally one month). Any genuine readers can write their comments and suggestions on any articles published.
2. Authors are free to make modifications in the articles, within 15 days and the modified articles will be published in the website.
3. Modified articles will send to a selected group of editorial panel for the final and expert opinion. Authors will also get a chance for slight modification in their articles, only if the editorial board suggests it.
4. Final Publication of articles, selected by the editorial board, will be published both in 'PESQUISA (online) and PESQUISA (print).

**PATRON**

**Rt. Rev. Dr. Mar Mathew Anikkuzhikkattil**

Pavanatma College Murickassery  
The Bishop of Idukki Diocese.

**CHIEF EDITOR**

**Dr. Johnson V.**

Principal,  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
Idukki, Kerala, India.

**ADVISORS**

**Mgr. Jose Plachickal**

Manager, Pavanatma College.

**Rev. Fr. John Nellikunnel**

Cor. Edn. Sec., Idukki Diocese.

**Prof. Sr. Anice K.P.**

Former Principal, Pavanatma College.

**Rev. Dr. James Punnaplackal**

Bursar, Pavanatma College.

**EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD**

**Prof. Dr. James Mathew**

The Cultural Centre of Charlotte County Inc.  
Port Charlotte, Florida, USA.

**Dr. R. Vijayakumar**

Dean (Engg & Tech) & Syndicate Member  
Professor ( School Of Computer Sciences,  
D C D C (Former)  
Mahatma Gandhi University, Kottayam  
Kerala, India. 686560.

**Prof. Dr. V. Ambilikumar**

Dept. of Management Studies  
Kerala University of Fisheries and Ocean Studies,  
Kochi, Kerala, India.

**Dr. Nikhil K Sachan**

Education Officer  
University Grants Commission,  
New Delhi-1

**Dr. N. Ramalingam**

Associate Professor  
Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation,  
Govt. of Kerala.

**LEGAL ADVISORS**

**Adv. Joice George**

Advocate, High Court of Kerala,  
Member of Parliament,  
Idukki Parliament Constituency.

**Adv. Sijimon K. Augustine**

Advocate, Kattappana, Idukki  
Kerala, India.

**CO-ORDINATOR**

**Boby Thomas Athickal**

Assistant Professor  
PG Dept. Of Commerce  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery.

## CO-EDITORS

**Dr. R. Vijayakumar** Ph.D.  
Dean ( Engg & Tech) & Syndicate Member  
Professor ( School Of Computer Sciences,) Former DCDC  
Mahatma Gandhi University, Kottayam-686560  
vijayakumar@mgu.ac.in

**Dr. Javix Thomas** MSc, Ph.D.  
Post Doctoral Fellow, Department of chemistry  
University of Alberta ,  
Edmonton ,Canada, T6G 2G2  
javix@ualberta.ca.

**Dr. Bennichen Scaria** MA, Ph.D.  
HOD, PG Department of Malayalam  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
frbennop@gmail.com

**Dr. Robert Athickal SJ**  
Co-founder Tarumitra,  
Students' Forum for Environment  
Tarumitra Ashram, Digha ghat, Patna-11  
robertathickal@gmail.com

**Dr. Binoy Jacob** MSc, MA, Ph.D. (Maths), Ph.D. (Phil)  
Director, Loyola Institute of Peace and  
International Relations (LIPI), Kochi-17  
binosj@gmail.com

**Dr. Dayana M.K.** LLM, Ph.D.  
Govt. Law College, Ernakulam-682011  
dayanamaliyekkal@gmail.com

**Dr. Saji Joseph** MSc, Ph.D.  
HOD, Department of Physics  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
saji.joseph.pcm@gmail.com

**Dr. Laiju Varghese** MA, Ph.D.  
Faculty, Gandhian Studies  
St. George College, Aruvithura-686122  
lajuanavelil@gmail.com

**Shri. Gojy Augustine** FCA, FCCA, CMA  
Member – ACCA Members Advisory  
Committee (Qatar),  
Head of Management Accounts  
Qatar Electricity and Water Company Doha,  
gojyaugustine1@yahoo.com

**Dr. Nikhil K Sachan** Ph.D.  
Education Officer  
University Grants Commission,  
New Delhi-1  
nikhilsachan@gmail.com

**Dr Jojo K Joseph** M.Com, B.Ed., Ph.D.  
HOD, Research and PG Dept of Commerce  
Marian College Kuttikkanam  
jojo.joseph@mariancollege.org

**Dr. N. Nagaraja** MSc (Zoology), Ph.D.  
Assistant Director  
UGC-Human Resource Development Centre  
Jnana Bharathi Campus  
Bangalore-560 056  
nagaraja@bub.ernet.in

**Dr. Licy A.D.** MA, M.Phil., Ph.D.  
HOD, PG Department of Sociology  
Carmal College, Mala, Thrissur-680732  
adlicy@gmail.com

**Dr. Jobi John** MA, B.Ed, Ph.D.  
HOD, PG Department of History  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
frpjoby@gmail.com

**Dr. Beena Chettaniyil** MSc, Ph.D.  
Vice President, Asian Psychologists &  
educational Counselors- India  
Director, PIECE  
jbeenac@gmail.com

**Dr. Domini V.A.** MCom, Ph.D.  
HOD, PG Department of Commerce  
Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
antonydominic@gmail.com

**Dr Smitha V P** M.Sc (Chemistry), MSc  
(Psychology), M.Ed., Ph.D.  
Principal, Calicut University Teacher  
Education Centre, Calicut -1  
smitha1010@gmail.com

**Dr Binu George Varghese** MPed, Ph.D.  
Director & Head, School Of Physical  
Education & Sports Sciences  
MG University, Kottayam  
binugv123@yahoo.co.in

# CONTENTS

Sl. No.	Title and Name of Author(s)	Page No.
1.	A STUDY OF HUMAN RIGHTS VIOLATIONS OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN KERALA (2011-2014) <b>P.O. Martin</b> Research Scholar, CMR University, Bangalore.	1
2.	MULTIDIMENSIONAL IMPACT OF MIGRATION IN KERALA MIGRANT LABOURERS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF EXISTING ENACTMENTS <b>Shinsa P Mathew and Sweta Kumari</b> Assistant Professors, SRM School of Law, Chennai	8
3.	FACTORS OF VULNERABILITY AMONG THE INTERSTATE MIGRANTS IN KERALA <b>Dr. Sunish KK</b> Assi. Prof. on Contract, P.G. Dept. of History, Pavanatma College, Murickassery.	15
4.	PROACTIVE MEASURES TOWARDS THE MINIMIZATION OF DISTRESS MIGRATION AMONG THE TRIBAL GROUPS OF URIYAMPETTY TRIBAL VILLAGE <b>Balagopal. A and Nitheesh KV</b> Department of Social Work, Sree Narayana Guru College of Arts and Science Paingottoor.	21
5.	MIGRANT CHILD LABOUR IN KERALA (WITH REFERENCE TO IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON RIGHTS OF CHILD) <b>A.Anitha</b> Assistant Professor, SRM School of Law, SRM University, Chennai.	35
6.	MIGRANT LABOUR IN KERALA: A STUDY ON INTERSTATE MIGRANT WORKERS <b>Arun P A and Ajay P A</b> Research Scholar, Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay	45
7.	CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE MIGRANTS OF KERALA <b>Shyla Hameed</b> Assistant Professor, Department Of Economics, MES College, Nedumkadam.	54

# CONTENTS

Sl. No.	Title and Name of Author(s)	Page No.
8.	A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS IN KERALA <b>Indira Aiyavoo</b> Assistant Professor, SRM University, Chennai.	62
9.	AUTOMATION OF ENGINEERING COLLEGE LIBRARIES IN KALABURAGI AND BIDAR DISTRICTS OF KARNATAKA STATE. <b>Basawaraj Malipatil, Nagaraj J</b> Librarian, Dr Ambedkar First Grade College Rangampet, Karnataka	77
10.	THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE: MALABAR 'CONNECTION' IN CULINARY WAYS <b>Dr. Deepa G.</b> Contract Teacher in History, Sreesankaracharya University of Sanskrit Kalady	87
11.	ECO CRITICAL READING OF GIEVE PATEL'S " ON KILLING A TREE." (English Lit.) <b>Jolly K V</b> Assistant Professor in English, Pavanatma College, Murickassery, Idukki	92
12.	NEW MEDIA TRENDS IN AARACHAR (Malayalam Lit.) <b>Dr. Anila C.S.</b> Assistant Professor on contract, Pavanatma College, Murickassery, Idukki	96
13.	VISUAL CULTURE AND THE CHANGING LIFESTYLE OF MALAYALEE (Malayalam Lit.) <b>Nimmi Kurian</b> Assistant Professor on contract, Pavanatma College, Murickassery, Idukki	98

## **A Study of Human Rights Violations of Migrant Workers in Kerala (2011-2014)**

**P.O. Martin**

*Research Scholar, CMR University, Bangalore  
martinpuhussery@gmail.com*

### **Abstract**

**Migrant workers find works but not rights in Kerala. There are over four lakh migrant workers, mostly from northern and eastern states involved practically in all sectors in Kerala. They are the latest ‘other’ in Kerala society. The Paper explains how their basic human rights are often violated through narrating concrete examples from the field experience of the researcher during the period 2011-14. Despite constitutional provisions, these migrant workers face exclusion and xenophobia. These workers are excluded from trade union memberships, voting rights and from Public Distribution System in Kerala. They face prejudiced police surveillance. Accidents and deaths are very frequently reported among these workers. They are forced to work in hazardous situations and live in deplorable conditions. As they are considered outsiders, there are several instances where these migrant workers faced discrimination, deprivation and violence from the locals. Sometimes their wages are either not paid or withheld by the employers. Therefore, such human rights violations of migrant workers in Kerala are aberrations of the Constitution of India.**

**Keywords: Migrant workers, human rights violations, exclusion, xenophobia, police surveillance, discrimination, hazardous situations and deplorable conditions.**

### **Introduction**

The Constitution of India [Art.19] (1) (d) and (e) states “all citizens shall have the right ... to move freely throughout the territory of India; to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India” (Bakshi, 2015). Thus, all the citizens of India have the fundamental right to migrate and settle in any part of the country. As such internal migrants are not required to be registered in India either at the place of origin or at the place of destination (Bhagat, 2005).

According to Mathrubhumi report (Unnithan, 2016) there were over 40 lakh migrant workers in Kerala and at least 1500 migrants reaching Kerala every week in 2016. Kerala received more migrant labour than any of the other Indian states. Of this, Ernakulam district tallies at the maximum with eight lakhs migrants. Kozhikode, Palakkad and Thiruvananthapuram had over four lakh migrant workers each.

According to the study (Narayanan and Venkiteswaran, 2013) conducted by Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation in 2013, there were 25 lakh migrant workers in Kerala. They were mostly young able-bodied males belonging to the age group of 18 to 30 years. They were mostly long distance migrants without family from rural areas of eastern Indian States such as West Bengal, Assam, Odisha and Bihar and were distress migrants belonging to SCs, STs or OBCs. These migrant workers were there in all sectors and professions. They had a

visible and considerable presence even in the small towns in Kerala, and it is a common sight during early morning for these workers in great numbers congregating in town centres waiting for prospective job offers. Local employers prefer them over local workers as they were single, less expensive, more sub-servient, hard working and mostly available throughout the year.

Migrant workers find work but not rights in Kerala. C.N. Ramachandran Nair, former judge of the Kerala High Court observed that there are many instances of human rights violations against migrant labourers in Kerala (*New Indian Express*, 2012, December 10) It may be stated that the human rights violations of migrant labourers is a blot on the collective conscience of Malayalees. In fact, it is paradoxical that migrant workers' rights are violated and are treated with much suspicion and mistrust in Kerala which is heavily dependent on the remittances to the State by Keralites working in other Indian States and abroad. Malayalees have been going to other States for employment for decades. Therefore, protection of the human rights of these migrant labourers is of utmost importance.

The study found the major human rights violations of migrant workers in Kerala under six categories and they are listed as follows:

1. Exclusion and Xenophobia
2. Prejudiced Police Surveillance
3. Alarming Number of Accidents and Deaths
4. Appalling Working and Living Conditions
5. Discrimination, Deprivation and Violence
6. Non Payment and Withholding of Wages

### **1. Exclusion and Xenophobia**

Exclusion is a process in which individuals and an entire group of people are segregated from the mainstream social, cultural, political and economic life of the society in which they live (IOM, 2011). It is also a process by which certain groups are denied equal opportunities.

It is a kind of segregation and isolation of a group of people from social, political, economic and cultural domains of societal life creating a system of domination and subjugation by the dominant group. It is also a process involving systematic denial of entitlements to resources and services, and the denial of the right to participate on equal terms in social relationships in economic, social, cultural or political arenas.

According to Arjan de Haan (1999) the concept social exclusion has two main defining characteristics. First, it is a multi-dimensional concept and it focuses on the multidimensionality of deprivation, on the fact that people are often deprived of different things at the same time. It refers to exclusion (deprivation) in the economic, social and political sphere. Second, social exclusion implies a focus on the relations and processes that cause deprivation.

The distress migrant workers face total exclusion from Kerala culture and society. They are often kept excluded in order to ensure their social insularity and to disempower them from asserting their rights as citizens and labourers. This systematic exclusion worked to the

advantage of the Kerala society to keep the wage levels low, rent levels high, services cheap, and to maintain a labour force that is at their beck and call, and one that can be absorbed and driven out at will. In fact, the Kerala society and government officials are not willing to accept these migrants as equal citizens with all democratic rights. As a result, they are excluded from the legal provisions and social security schemes. They are called '*anya samsthana thozhilalikal*' which literally mean 'workers from other States', but denotes workers from an alien State or simply alien workers (Narayanan and Venkiteswaran, 2013).

There is hardly any cordial relationship between local people and distress migrants in Kerala. The local population view migrants as aliens or outsiders and interact in a minimum possible way with them. Due to language barrier and inferiority complex migrants also keep aloof from the local population. As most of these migrants are from socially and economically lower strata of Indian society, the local public has a very low opinion about them and see them as a threat to public hygiene, security and law and order. Their presence in public places often seems to irritate local people and there were instances where migrants had been driven out of parks by police on the demands of the locals. Their participation in local festivals and celebrations are minimal and the locals do not join in their celebrations. There are also instances where migrants became victims of xenophobia, racism and other forms of hostility (Narayanan and Venkiteswaran, 2013). In fact, while migrants from Kerala who live outside the State lead a cordial relationship with people of those States, the migrant workers from other States in Kerala have been by and large kept isolated by the local population.

In Kerala, local employers use exclusive strategy to restrict migrants' entrance to social protection and unionisation. Thus, migrant workers are left on their own to deal with local employers. Further, migrants are kept physically isolated from the surrounding community making more difficult for them to find out local wage, rights, and support systems available to them (Moses and Rajan, 2012).

Xenophobia can be described as attitudes, prejudices and behaviour that reject, exclude and often vilify persons, based on the perception that they are outsiders or foreigners to the community, society or national identity. There is a close link between racism and xenophobia, two terms that can be hard to differentiate from each other (International Organisation for Migration, 2011).

Migrants often become victims of xenophobia in Kerala. For instance, over 60 migrant workers from West Bengal were beaten up by the local people on 25 September 2011, near Kayamkulam on the suspicion that one of them had stolen a mobile phone of a shop-owner in the area. Twenty-five migrant workers suffered injuries in the attack and five of them had to be admitted in the Medical College Hospital, Alappuzha with serious injuries and fractured bones.

## **2. Prejudiced Police Surveillance**

The number of crimes in which migrant labour is involved is much less in proportion when compared to the corresponding figures for the general population. However, a few of the crimes in which they are involved get high degree of publicity and adds to the perception

that most of the migrants are criminals. This adds to the fear psychosis and strengthens suspicion and distrust.

In some areas, these migrant workers are routinely rounded up by the Police who cannot make them understand due to language barrier, summoned and harassed at the Police Stations, and often severely beaten up and even put behind bars for the crimes committed not by them.

For instance, Dipen Konra, a 30 year old tribal from a remote village in the Burdwan district of West Bengal, was travelling in a suffocated general compartment of the Shalimar-Trivandrum Express on 7 June 2011 to toil at the construction sites in Kerala. At the Aluva railway station, Dipen got down to fetch water and could not get back into the over-crowded general boggy to reach Kollam, his destination. Not knowing what to do and how to ask in Malayalam, the partly and poorly dressed Dipen began to walk. In the late evening, as the strangely appeared Dipen could not answer the Police in Malayalam, he was taken to the Nedumbassery Police Station. In the early hours of 8 June, with a mere desire of escaping, he ran away and without knowing entered the adjacent air port compound. Suspecting Dipen to be a Maoist or a terrorist, he was beaten up so brutally that his legs and hands were broken and he became unconscious. The critical Dipen was sent to Viyyur central jail in Thrissur. After nine months of the assault, with the intervention of State Human Rights Commission, Dipen was released from the jail and returned home, but with one leg and one hand dysfunctional.

Migrant workers in Kerala are very vulnerable to police harassment demanding police clearance certificates from their native States, police surveillance and threat to citizenship. They are often called to police stations for questioning in the context of theft or murder or ethnic tension in the locality or for even protests by migrants for their rights (Prasad-Aleyamma, 2014). For instance, Promod Kumar Lima, a 24 year old migrant worker from Odisha was beaten up by the police on 23 October, 2011 for not having the Identity Card and then by the locals near Aluva and was admitted to the General Hospital, Ernakulam with both the legs broken and a fractured back bone. In the hospital, he found his mobile phone and Rs. 2000 missing. When the police was contacted, they informed that some cash was handed over to the ward nurse in the Government hospital, Aluva, but only to be denied by the nurse.

### **3. Alarming Number of Accidents and Deaths**

Minimum 50 dead bodies of inter-state migrant workers reach the hospitals for post mortem every month in Kerala and in some cases the dead bodies of migrants are sold for lakhs of rupees to private medical colleges by the employers (*Malayala Manorama*, 2013, November 28). In most of the cases, no compensation is reached to the dependents of the diseased.

Deaths of migrant workers are “Unrecorded Deaths” in God’s own country (*Mathrubhumi*, 2012, April 9). In cases of accidental fallings, what happens to these migrant workers in their promise land? Why do so many migrant workers frequently die in Kerala? What happens to their dead bodies? Does the State have any provision to reach the dead bodies in their native villages and to provide financial assistance to the poor families of the diseased? There are several unanswered questions remain pricking the conscience of the Malayalees.

According to Mathrubhumi (Somen, 2014) most of the deaths of migrant workers in Kerala happen at work places, especially by fall from high rise building under construction due to absence of safety measures. However, the kith and kin of these migrant workers are denied any compensation as they are not members of Inter State Migrant Workers' Welfare Scheme, 2010 or in any trade unions.

For instance, Madhu Naik, a 40 year old worker from Gajapathi district in Odisha died at the Ernakulam General hospital on 11 June, 2012 in circumstances typical of many inter-state migrant labourers in Kerala – accidental fallings, uncared for, totally helpless. Madhu had suffered the injuries falling from the building under construction near Edappally. His death was an evidence of the predicament of the poor migrant workers whose sufferings are unspeakable and who languish in inhuman conditions.

#### **4. Appalling Working and Living Conditions**

Migrants live in crowded and unhygienic conditions and work in inadequate provisions for safety at the worksites (Kumar, 2012). The vast majority of migrant workers in Kerala are forced to work in hazardous situations with minimum or no safety measures. They also live in work sites or in tin-roofed huts rented by contactors or local individuals. Roughly 10 to 20 workers cook and sleep in a room with only one toilet and no proper water supply. Further, according to a *Malayala Manorama* report (2013, November 28) migrant workers in Kerala are vulnerable to infectious diseases as their working and living conditions are very deplorable.

#### **5. Discrimination, Deprivation and Violence**

Migrants are very vulnerable to exploitative conditions at work sites including discriminatory wages, long working hours, cheating by contractor regarding wages and lack of safety measures (Moses and Rajan, 2012). Migrant workers are not given equal wages compared to local workers and are forced to work long hours without appropriate over time payment.

Most of the migrant workers are kept away from the social security schemes and are deprived of various benefits available to the workers. They are deprived of ration cards, BPL cards, health cards, residential documents and membership in trade unions. Voting right is a far cry for migrant workers in Kerala (*New Indian Express*, 2015, October 5)). Migrants are denied residential certificates, access to Public Distribution System (PDS), Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY) and Comprehensive Health Insurance Scheme (CHIS) in Kerala (Kumar, 2012).

Seetu Bismaji, a 18 year old migrant worker from Odisha died in the Medical College Hospital, Kottayam on September 8, 2011 due to the callousness of the hospital authorities after he was admitted with injuries suffered during a road accident. The employer as well as the owner of the car which knocked him down disappeared leaving the seriously injured Seetu at the mercy of the hospital authorities. Rather than admitting him to the ICU and providing the ventilator, Seetu was left in the general ward where he was found being administered artificial respiration using the equipment by a by-stander of the patient. Seetu was the only bread- earner of the family consisting of his widowed mother and younger

siblings. It is just an example for the criminal negligence of the hospital authorities, the employer and the owner of the vehicle towards one of the “bhais” in Kerala.

Migrants often become victims of violence and exploitation by the locals. For instance, Basid Khan aged 20 and Sabir Khan aged 20 from West Bengal were thrashed thoroughly by a hotel owner in Ernakulam for not joining the work on the day they arrived on 4 August 2012.

A 14 year old Bengali girl was gang-raped and abandoned naked on the road on the Christmas night in 2011 in Kerala. On December 24th while the girl along with the other two men were waiting at the bus-stop, the three accused offered them lifts in a mini lorry. Instead of taking them to Iritty, in Kannur district, the crew of the lorry took them to a river-bank at Vayathur and after tying the two men with her to the lorry, they raped her. The gang who raped the girl also invited another youth to join their nefarious deed. The crew continued the journey in the same lorry with the girl and the other two men from Bengal. Before reaching Perumparamb, the crew of the lorry took away the mobile from the men and made them get down on the road. Later at midnight the girl was dumped alone on the street at Perumparamb. The people returning after the midnight church service helped this helpless teenager with a dress to cover her nakedness and informed the police.

## **6. Non Payment and Withholding of Wages**

There are several instances reported where migrant workers were not paid wages in different parts of Kerala state. Further, withholding of wages to migrant workers is a commonly used cunning tact by the construction companies and the other local employers. Some of these cases were brought to the notice of the researcher and the researcher tried to intervene in some cases with the help of his colleagues. For instance, when the researcher contacted with a complaint of withholding of wages to Dulal Burman and a group of migrant workers from West Bengal, the cashier of a famous construction company in Ernakulam replied that such practice was part of their company’s policy towards migrant workers.

## **Conclusion**

The Constitution of India has solemnly promised to all her citizens justice - social, economic and political. Article 15(1) prohibits discrimination on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, or place of birth. Article 19 (1) (d) and (e) guarantee freedom of movement and freedom to settle in any part of the territory of India as a fundamental right of the citizens of India. In reality, migrants’ labour is extracted, but they are not valued and are not allowed to live and work with dignity. Therefore, exclusion, xenophobia, prejudiced police surveillance, discrimination, deprivation and violence towards migrant workers in Kerala are serious human rights violations and aberrations of the Constitution of India. Thus, any discourse on human rights in Kerala would be inadequate if it is unwilling to address the rights of the migrant workers.

## **References and Citation**

1. Bakshi, P.M. 2015. *The constitution of India*. Gurgaon: LexisNexis.

2. Bhagat, R. R. 2005, July 18-23. *Conceptual issues in measurement of internal migration in India*. Paper presented at XXVth IUSSP International Conference, Tours, France. Retrieved from <http://iussp2005.princeton.edu/papers/50276>
3. Haan, A.D. 1999. *Social exclusion: Towards a holistic understanding of deprivation*. Retrieved from <http://www.dfid.gov.uk/pubs/files/sdd9socex.pdf>
4. International Organisation for Migration. 2011. *Key Migration Terms*. Retrieved from <http://www.iom.int/key-migration-terms>
5. Kumar, A. N. 2011. Vulnerability of migrants and responsiveness of the State: The Case of unskilled migrant worker in Kerala, India. *Labour & Development*, 19(1), 19-50.
6. Malayala Manorama. 2013, November 28. Ernakulam edition.
7. Mathrubhumi. 2012, April 9. Kochi edition.
8. Migrant labourers victims of rights violation. 2012, December 10. *Express News Service*. Retrieved from <http://newindianexpress.com/cities/kochi/article1373246.ece>
9. Narayana, D. and Venkiteswara, C.S. 2013. *Domestic Migration Labour in Kerala*. Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala: Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation.
10. Prasad-Aleyamma, M. 2014. A market place for migrants: Mobility, settlement and social protection in Kerala. *Rethinking International Development series*, 164-182. Retrieved from [http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230306554\\_7#page-1](http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230306554_7#page-1)
11. Rajan, S. I. and Moses, J. W. 2012. Labour migration and integration in Kerala. *Labour & Development*, 19(1), 1-18.
12. Somen, T. 2014, August 30. For them, it is the promised land. *Mathrubhumi*. Retrieved from [www.mathrubhumi.com/english/article/for-them-it-is-the-promised-land-151194.html](http://www.mathrubhumi.com/english/article/for-them-it-is-the-promised-land-151194.html)
13. Unnithan, V.B. 2016, March 30. 40 lakh migrant workers –Rs 25K cr flowing out of economy every year. *Mathrubhumi*. Retrieved from <http://english.mathrubhumi.com/news/kerala/40-lakh-migrant-workers-rs-25k-cr-flowing-out-of-economy-every-year-english-news-1.960675>
14. Voting right a far cry for migrant workers in Kerala. 2015, October 5. *New Indian Express*. Retrieved from <http://m.dailyhunt.in/news/india/english/the+new+indian+express+epaper+newexpress/voting+right+a+far+cry+for+migrant+workers+in+kerala+newsid-44861358>

## **Multidimensional Impact of Migration in Kerala Migrant Labourers And Effectiveness of Existing Enactments**

**Shinsa P Mathew and Sweta Kumari**

*Assistant Professors, SRM School of Law, Chennai*  
*[shinsapm@gmail.com](mailto:shinsapm@gmail.com), [swetadasdu@gmail.com](mailto:swetadasdu@gmail.com)*

### **Abstract**

It is of no doubt that Migration has potentially profound socio-economic impact on Migrants. Migration has been issue in existence for so many years but it became a debatable topic in the recent years, in the state of Kerala, especially on account of large scale of influx of Migrant workers from other states. The core area of this study is mainly intended to examine multifaceted social problems and the psychological effects associated with Migration on Migrants in Kerala. The social problem that form part of our research includes social problems in the nature of poor accommodation, health and sanitation, inadequate education and language problems resultant they feel ignored and alienated. This paper also provides a critical analysis on real life issues faced by the Migrant workers in Kerala such as large uncertainties in the job market- accelerating job search cost, irregular payments, longer working hours and poor working conditions. The Article also throws light on the conditions of Migrant workers in the state of Kerala from a legal vantage point wherein the legal regulations and safeguards of the rights of the Migrant workers in the Kerala are thoroughly studied. Major emphasis is given to the Inter- State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979 and the paper looks for the need and possibility of a State Legislation.

### **Key Words:**

### **Introduction**

India has a long history of labour mobility. In fact, there are parts of India where 3 out of 4 households includes a migrant<sup>i</sup>. Despite this huge number of people involved, migration was rarely studied properly. Needless to say, this phenomenon of cross- state border mobilization- internal as well as external have drawn greater attention in the state of Kerala today. It is witnessed that the state located in India's deep south have experienced large inflow of non- Keralite people from different walks of life ranging from educated, skilled, well-off family to less educated, unskilled, hailing from northern hemisphere of Indian road map.

According to the research study conducted by Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation for the Kerala Government (2013), there are over 25 lakhs domestic migrant labourers in Kerala today with an annual arrival rate of 2.35 lakhs. Most of them are from West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, U.P., and Odisha. Many of them are mobile, single male aged between 18- 35 years old<sup>ii</sup>.

The theme on Kerala Migration bisects into two subject areas diagnosing the social curtailments and economic retrenchments resultant in the agony of the jobseekers

especially labourers who are positioned in the lowest rung in the hierarchy of migrants, from the other parts of India. The other segment of this paper involves in the analysis of the efficiency of the existing enactments with regard to the assured safety of these unsecured migrants. The study gives a reality check on the social and economic plights of the unsettled and lost migrants and their tragic experiences has a devastating psychological effect on them. On the other hand, the focus is on the laws regulation and government launched yojanas and schemes with effect to improvising the lives of poor migrants.

### **I. Inter-Play of Pull and Push Factor.**

Undoubtedly, there is complementary relations that exist between the pull – push factors in the notion of migration, where migration happens only if reason to migrate is achieved by pull from an attractive location. This pull factor finds its reflection from the fact that the destination state offers greater job opportunities, Income sufficiency; on the parallel side, the origin state which is responsible for push factor is evident from the following reasons like lack of opportunities, low wages etc in these backward states.

It would not be wrong to state Kerala responsible for pull factor, attracting the mobility of labour from other Southern and Northern Indian states. According to the data for the month of April 2015, Kerala paid the highest wages to labourer in almost all daily wages jobs in agricultural and non- agricultural sector. Kerala average wage is nearly double the average wage of the country. The pattern of wages for the same work culture will differ in Kerala and states like Bihar, U.P, for instances: Agricultural works like ploughing and tilling, the average daily wage in Kerala was more than Rs. 713, whereas Bihar and U.P, paid wages is in the denomination of Rs.200.

### **II. Social Constrain on Migrants And Its Psychological Effect.**

Migration is the movement of a person from one location to another either within same nation (Internal) or between different Nations (International). Migrants are inherently vulnerable as subjects of human rights from the time they leave home to initiate their migration<sup>iii</sup>. In other words, any human being is less vulnerable at home than right after he leaves it to become a migrant. The whole process of migration leads to a big social modulation. This sea change is seen with respect to change of residence, shift in work, altogether an alien place, working in new environment with strange people.

Half of the Migrant population suffering with lot of social issues related to poor accommodation. Their complaints are about the inadequate residential amenities provided to them as they do not have proper roof, all that they manage is to live in a poorly constructed less than 200 square feet room or in most cases make shift hutments in the vicinity if their work place, mostly near construction sites with materials supplied by contractors, one can barely stand full height and space is hardly sufficient for bedding, kitchen setup. The fact is that most of the migrant workers are unaware about the facilities to be extended by the contractor to them with regard to the living conditions.

Secondly, the most important and inevitable factor is related to health and sanitation which is managed inefficiently, resultant in migrants especially female migrants suffer with illness and disease. Also, these migrants have limited knowledge in understanding good hygiene practices that reduces the health risks from poor sanitation. Labour and health officials have shut down several labour camps in Ernakulum district for lacking proper

sanitation facility. There are little or no social security laws protecting them with hundreds of people sharing slums like homes that grossly eludes sanitary and health conditions.

Living in host states where they (migrants) may not master the official language of Kerala, which brings us to the third social distress i.e. language problem because of which they feel alienated, unwelcomed. Like it can be said that wherever they go, the incompetency in speaking regional language, they are unable to communicate with their contractor, health provider, neighbours and policemen. They are targeted, looked down upon and first one to be suspected in any unlawful or anti social events. The worst part is that these uneducated and helpless migrants remain suppressed as they are compelled to stay here for survival. Perhaps the reason being these northern and eastern migrants speak the languages belong to Indo – Aryan language family (Hindi speaking) while Malayalam is Dravidian language. Being unable to speak the local language makes them vulnerable on many occasions other than which is discussed above are: detachment from traditional support and family networks, difficult to cope with the working of the legal system and administration.

Yet another factor in the row of social issue is Identity crisis, corollary to it is limited access to entitlements, especially affected are the categories of street hawkers, daily wage earners, pedestrian petty mercantilists. It is visible that these lost migrants fear with identity threat because, they have no registration, no licence and this deficiency pushes them away from the access to entitlements. For instances, most of the migrant workers do not have a ration card, restricting them to reap the benefit of Public distributing system (PDS). The state has also been providing essential consumption items at subsidized rates through its outlets managed by the Kerala state civil supplies corporation, an apex federation of cooperation for which also a ration card is necessary<sup>iv</sup>. Thus, the migrants have to depend solely on the open markets and become more vulnerable. Another illustration: Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY), a health Insurance for BPL. To cater to the needs of the workers belonging to BPL families who migrate, there is a facility to split the card which is given to RSBY beneficiary families. But the families of migrant workers appear to be not making use of this facility<sup>v</sup> so was the case on the Taluk level government, hospital in Perumbaroor, a town in central Kerala well known for very high presence of migrant labourers. Thus, in practice, the accessibility of benefits of RSBY scheme remains an Issue.

Beyond a shadow of doubt that all these above disserted unfortunate social situations experienced by the migrants shall definitely not only handicapped them but have had a strong psychological effect on them. At first, they began to experience a sense of loss, dislocation, alienation and isolation, especially due to separation from kin and kith in the native place, fear about work related accidents, uncertainties arising of fear of loss of jobs, emotional deprivation which lead to process of acculturation<sup>vi</sup>. In other words, it can be perceived as the psychological effect in their mindset is that they see possible threat of assimilation which by and large jeopardising their deep-rooted culture, language, living style.

### **III. Distress of Migrants: Economic Dimension.**

Domestic Migrant Labourers (DML) is wealth creators, also on the other hand the host state Kerala is a path breaking gateway for the migrants with main purpose of mobility i.e. to earn better livelihood. On flipping the side, it helps to have a crystal-clear vision of the dark side of the philosophy of migration. Migration having cross benefit gains in the market

as migrants provide cheap and readily accessible labour force and in return receives job and monetary satisfaction in comparisons to their native homes. Evidently, the total remittances to home states channelized is around 17,000 crores as over 70 percent of them earn above Rs. 300 a day as wages. Yet there are stocks of economic shortages and restraints like: migrants often get lower wages than local labourers, apparently, they even work at odd and for longer hours. Also, these outsiders (labourers) are exposed to large uncertainties in the potential job market. First to begin with- job hunt cost and migrants are burdened with this unexpected ascending nature of cost of living in relation to the distance to their homes. The farther they live the higher is the job search risk.

Secondly employers often prefer migrant labourers to local labourers, as they are cheaper and do not develop social relationships with the place of destination which very naturally makes them easily available and dispensable. According to anecdotal evidences and newspaper reports, the workers from the state of Tamil Nadu are relatively paid higher wages and with better living and working conditions compared to workers who have migrated recently from the other states in the country. Some of the contractors and employers opine that workers from north and east are more tolerant to poorer working condition and it is easier to extract labour from them. This is nothing but the sheer exploitation of these helpless poor ignorant migrant labourers.

The whole migrant labour force have penetrated almost all sectors such as agriculture, Industry, business, marketing spread all over Kerala, nevertheless they suffer from acute socio economic problems as a good majority of them are unskilled workers. Therefore, this dimension helps to comprehend the socio- economic related problems faced by them as they are adverse working conditions, hard physical labour, poor living conditions, lack of basic amenities etc.

#### **IV. Legal Facet**

Here, the words of great philosopher ‘Aristotle’, that “poverty is the parent of revolution and crime” are so relevant. The need of law is to regulate the society, protect people, to enforce rights and to solve conflicts. Even in the middle of numerous laws and legislations regarding numerous subjects, truancy of State legislation on inter-state migration is a burning issue up to the minute.

While coming across the necessity for legislations with respect to the inter-state migrant labourers in Kerala, a glance at international juncture and national phase on the same is ineluctable. The reasons and concerns behind the emergence of International Conventions and National Enactment coincide the present-day situation in Kerala.

#### **International Standards**

The international community recognized the need for a new instrument for protecting the migrant labourers in 1970s. It was perceived that the number of international migrants is between 185-192 million, ie. around 3-4 percentage of world population<sup>vii</sup> and it was wistfully identified that the majority were subjected to vulnerabilities. The first attempt to address these specific issues was International Labour Organisation(ILO) Convention N 143<sup>viii</sup> of 1975 and it contains provisions on the prevention of irregular migration and clandestine movements, as well as rights aimed at protecting migrant workers from exploitation at work<sup>ix</sup>.

Afterwards in 1980 a working group was created under the auspicious of United Nation and they drafted International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, which was adopted unanimously at the 69<sup>th</sup> plenary session of the UN General Assembly on 18<sup>th</sup> December 1990. For the campaign of the same a Steering committee consisting of fourteen organisations exists, namely, UN Agencies, Trade Unions, NGOs and other International Organisations<sup>x</sup>(it includes UN High Commissioner of Human Rights (UNHCHR), International Labour Organisation(ILO), and United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)).

The dilemmas and problems identified were gathered together in the Convention for equality of treatment of migrant labourers. The term ‘migrant worker’ is defined as, it refers to a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he\she is not a national<sup>xi</sup>. To sum up, the Convention appears for the prevention of inhumane living and working conditions, sexual abuse and degrading treatment<sup>xii</sup>, freedom of thought expression and religion<sup>xiii</sup>, access to information on their rights<sup>xiv</sup>, equality<sup>xv</sup>, access to educational and social service<sup>xvi</sup>, right to participate in trade unions<sup>xvii</sup>, are the relevant and preminent realm of rights covered by the convention. All Human Right Conventions can be read together with this Convention. Around 46 nations ratified the Convention and thereby became legally bound to it.

### **National Phase**

India is not a ratifying party to UN Convention on Migrant Rights. Here, the nation faced issues and concerns regarding inter-state migration. It paved the way to The Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act,1979<sup>xviii</sup>,<sup>xix</sup> was passed by the Parliament. By a deep analysis of the Act, the solutions for major socio-economic problems faced by inter-state migrants can be chalked out.

The Act applies to all establishments and contractors who engage five or more migrant labourers<sup>xx</sup>. The Act defines inter-state migrant workman as “any person who is recruited by or through a contractor in one state under an agreement for employment in an establishment in another state, whether with or without the knowledge of principal employer in relation to such establishment”<sup>xxi</sup>. The Act also authorises the appropriate governments (state governments) to appoint registering officer for the purpose of registration of such establishments which employ migrant workmen<sup>xxii</sup>.

The Act also prescribes duties of the contractors who hire migrant labourers<sup>xxiii</sup>. It mandates a passbook with photograph for every migrant worker, with his particulars, employer’s details and wage particulars, in Hindi and English. The Minimum Wages Act 1948 applies to inter-state migrant labourers as well. The Act elaborates almost all the solutions for the socio-economic problems run into by the migrant workers. Section 16 of the Act provides with the facilities to be provided for a migrant worker. It includes regular payments, equal pay, suitable conditions of work and residential accommodation, free medical aid, protective clothing at the time of work etc... The employer is obliged to report to specified authorities in both states as well as to next of kin.

The Act also specifies the enforcement mechanisms, dispute resolution through Industrial Disputes Act and punishments for its violations<sup>xxiv</sup>. The state governments can make rules for carrying out the purpose of the Act<sup>xxv</sup>.

## Dilemma in Kerala

The Central Legislation specifically laid down that the appropriate government can make rules for carrying the purpose of the Act<sup>xxvi</sup>. There are many policies and schemes in state of Kerala with regard to the welfare of the with regard to the welfare of inter-state migrants. Even though its implementation is in question. As the Central Act provides for, in the year 2015, a draft of the Kerala Migrant Workers Social Security Bill was ready, but not yet finalised and passed by the legislature.

The influx of the migrant labourers is increasing day by day in Kerala. It's time to be more vigilant and ensure the implementation of the existing legislation as well as policies and schemes. Even the registration of migrant labourers are not fully implemented and it is evidenced by the increasing number of illegal migrants. As a host, State Kerala is obliged to ensure and provide healthy and hygienic atmosphere to work as well as to live, for the migrant workers.

A very word spelt out that, 'we know little about them, we do little for them', come up with a powerful message that the poor living conditions of the migrants were never given prior requisite attention. The study reveals and helps to penetrate our sight through the real picture of a State which offers not only higher paid jobs than their mother State, but also a favourable and peaceful environment, to a reality of their sad, untold stories. The wide held alien feeling among the local community add to their vulnerabilities. At this moment, the State initiative for the upliftment and welfare of inter-state migrants is inevitable. Instead of State level implementations, grass root level schemes and policies might be more effective. Apart from NGOs, government appointed counsellors at Panchayats where migrant population is high can study their problems and grievances. The counsellors should be persons with psychological knowledge as well as well versed with Hindi.

For the implementation of the policies, schemes or the provisions of the Act, identification of the core issues and problems faced by the migrants are essential. An effective method for it is to conduct monthly or weekly meetings of the migrants under the auspicious of ward members or counsellors. It will also give them an opportunity to mingle with the natives. Even it can control the crimes done by migrants and identify the criminal natured among them is a vantage. Small scale housing schemes for migrants can bring them out of the health issues due to unhygienic accommodations sometimes resembles concentration camps. So, it's time to know more about them and do more for them, on humanitarian considerations.

## REFERENCES & CITATION

---

<sup>i</sup> Ravi Srivastava, S K Sasikumar, *An Overview of Migration in India, its Impacts and Key Issues*(2003).

<sup>ii</sup> Domestic Migrant Labour in Kerala 2013/14, Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation, Researches and projects.

<sup>iii</sup> N Ajith Kumar, *Vulnerabilities of Migrants and Responsiveness of the State: The Case of Unskilled Migrant Workers in Kerala, India*,(2011).

- 
- <sup>iv</sup> Dr. Lizy James, Dominic Mathew, *Social Integration of Migrant Workers in Kerala: Problems and Prospects*, (2016).
- <sup>v</sup> Ibid
- <sup>vi</sup> Dr. Sunil Kumar P, Dr. Pramod S K, *Psychological Problems of Migrant Labourers in Kerala: A Study in Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam Districts*, (2016)
- <sup>vii</sup> United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, *United Nations Convention on Migrant rights*, (2005).
- <sup>viii</sup> ILO, *Migrant Workers Supplementary Provisions Convention*.
- <sup>ix</sup> Cholewinski *International Labour Migration*, in FOUNDATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION LAW, 288 (Opeskin, R Perruchoud, J Redpath ed., 2012).
- <sup>x</sup> United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, *United Nations Convention on Migrant rights*, (2005).
- <sup>xi</sup> Article 2(1), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families.
- <sup>xii</sup> Ibid, Articles 10, 11, 24, 25.
- <sup>xiii</sup> Ibid, Articles 12, 13.
- <sup>xiv</sup> Ibid, Articles 33, 37.
- <sup>xv</sup> Ibid, Articles 16 to 20, 22.
- <sup>xvi</sup> Ibid, Articles 27, 28, 30, 43 to 45, 54.
- <sup>xvii</sup> Ibid, Articles 26, 40.
- <sup>xviii</sup> 1<sup>st</sup> June, 1987, vide S.O.630(E), published in the Gazette of India, Extraordinary, pt.11.
- <sup>xix</sup> Herein after referred as 'Act'.
- <sup>xx</sup> Section 1(4) of The Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979
- <sup>xxi</sup> Section 2(e) of The Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979.
- <sup>xxii</sup> Ibid, sections 3 to 6.
- <sup>xxiii</sup> Ibid, Chapter IV, Section 12.
- <sup>xxiv</sup> Ibid, Sections 20 to 30.
- <sup>xxv</sup> Ibid, Section 35.
- <sup>xxvi</sup> Ibid .

## **FACTORS OF VULNERABILITY AMONG THE INTERSTATE MIGRANTS IN KERALA**

**Dr. Suneesh K. K.**

*Assi. Prof. on Contract P.G. Dept. of History Pavanatma College Murickassery  
suneesh427@gmail.com*

### **Abstract**

The study examines the factors of vulnerability of migrant labourers in Kerala state. The state has been witnessing extensive inflow of migrant labourers not only from the neighbouring states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka but also from states in East India (West Bengal and Orissa), North India (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand) and Northeast (Assam, Manipur). Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, extensive opportunities for employment and deficiency of local labour, paradoxically despite the high unemployment rate in the state, prompted the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. The paper examines the corroborative factors of the vulnerabilities of the interstate migrants in Kerala.

**Key Words:** internal migration, interstate migration, vulnerability

### **Introduction**

The state, situated in the south-western tip of the Indian Peninsula, has been witnessing extensive inflow of migrant labourers not only from the neighbouring state of Tamil Nadu<sup>i</sup> and Karnataka (in South India) but also from states in East India (West Bengal and Orissa), North India (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand) and North-east (Assam, Manipur). There is also migrant flow to Kerala from Nepal. This has counterbalanced the shortage of labour caused partly because of the out-migration to different states and emigration to other countries.<sup>ii</sup> Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment and lack of local labour provided necessary pull. The migrant labourers coming to Kerala were pushed out of their native place as a result of low wages and unemployment or underemployment in farming and different areas.<sup>iii</sup> With the indications of rapid growth of Kerala economy and the expansion in activities especially in infrastructure and construction sectors, the in-migration is expected to become faster in the coming years. Apart from its significance in the economic development of the state, interstate migrant flow facilitate retaining the demographic balance in a state which has the highest proportion of aged population and where a good proportion of population in the working age group have migrated out of the state.

### **Inter-state Migrants in Kerala**

In-migration of labourers to Kerala has a long history. But the recent migration is diverse in terms of the profile of the migrant labourers, the occupation they are engaged in and the extent of inflow. The migration in the 1990s was particularly from the neighbouring state of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka.<sup>iv</sup> Workers from states similar to West Bengal, Orissa, Bihar, Assam, Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand now rush to Kerala. The activities they are engaged in also got much more diversified than before. The migrant workers are now engaged in the works like construction works, casual labours, agricultural and plantation works, domestic works, masons, plywood factory works, quarries etc. Usually there is a tendency to allocate the more difficult, hazardous and menial jobs to migrant workers.

The linguistic, social and cultural differences between the states of origin and Kerala and long distance migrants have to travel to reach Kerala makes the inter-state migration.<sup>v</sup> Certainly, there exist differences between international migration and inter-state migration in terms of visa requirements and restrictions on mobility imposed in some countries. The point emerging is that the interstate migration in a large country like India is different from the internal migration within a state in the country.

### **Vulnerability of Migrant Workers**

Bustamante points out that ‘migrants are inherently vulnerable as subjects of human rights from the time they leave home to initiate their migration. In other words, any human being is less vulnerable at home than right after he leaves it to become a migrant. The same applies to the sociological extension of the notion of home to a community of origin. The same person that migrates had more resources, both material and human, to defend and or protect, himself, when he was at home, prior to moving elsewhere, than after the outward movement had taken place.’ According to Derose *et al*, vulnerability is shaped by many factors, including political and social marginalization and a lack of socio economic and societal resources.<sup>vi</sup> Varennes states that ‘living in host states where they (migrants) may not master the official language(s), are unfamiliar with the workings of the legal system and administration, detached from traditional support and family networks, exposed to a society with ways of life or cultures which they may find at times alien, they may face trials that can leave them disoriented and disturbed.’<sup>vii</sup> Thus, vulnerability of the migrants emerge on account of living in a place which is diverse in culture, dialect, social settings, legal protection, qualifications and utilization propensities from their native place and the loss of the traditionally supportive network they enjoyed in before migration. Despite the fact that these viewpoints are generally talked about with regards to international migration, the circumstance is more or less same when migrants cross borders of states within large country like India. In perspective of the host state’s inability to recognize their presence, interstate migrants are scarcely considered in policy making in the state where they live. It is likewise conceivable that their voices may not be heard in the state of their origin. The widely held feeling among local community that they are ‘outsiders’ adds to their vulnerability. As voiced by a migrant worker ‘Here wherever we go, people start telling -“bhaimaar” have come-such as when we go in bus. We do call each other bhai-bhai, that is ok. But when we go outside and Malayalees see us they say-there, bhaimaar have come. That we don’t like.’<sup>viii</sup>

### Limited Access to Rights/Privileges

Movement of people from one state then onto the next can prompt loss of specific rights and privileges they enjoyed in the state where they lived before migration. In the Indian federal system, individuals determine their privileges through the fundamental rights conferred on them by the Indian Constitution and the different laws authorized by the Union government and the state governments. Most of the central government plans are applicable throughout the nation. Indeed, even in central government schemes, the advantages reach the general population through the state or local government. Unless and otherwise specified, such benefits are available only to the permanent residents of the respective state. In such a circumstance, the interstate migrants lose their privileges when they cross borders of their native state. For example, a migrant worker from states like Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal or Assam who has been profiting rice or wheat and other arrangements at subsidized cost through the Public Distribution System (PDS) in the native state is probably not going to benefit by the PDS in Kerala. In spite of the fact that Kerala is known to have an elaborate public distribution system in the country, none of the migrant workers have ration card<sup>ix</sup> in Kerala which is the document required for availing the advantages under the subsidized PDS as they don't have the residential status necessary for getting the advantages.<sup>x</sup> The state has additionally been giving basic utilization things at subsidized rates through its outlets managed by the Kerala State Civil Supplies Corporation, for which also ration card is necessary. In this manner, the migrants need to depend exclusively on the open market and turn out to be more vulnerable against the price difference in the open market compared to the local community. In the open market, a few examples where migrants were made a request to pay more than what is requested from the local populace were also reported.<sup>xi</sup>

A similar situation exists in accessing the benefits of Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY), a health insurance scheme for the poor<sup>xii</sup> families executed all through the nation by the Central government. At an annual charge of Rs. 30, the plan provides annual coverage for inpatient care of up to Rs. 30,000 to five members of a family. To take into account the necessities of the labourers belonging to BPL families who migrate, there is a facility to split the card which is given to RSBY recipient families. The smart card issued under the RSBY can be split at the time of first issue or subsequently at a district level office. But, the families of migrant workers have appeared to be not making utilization of these benefits and hence can't avail the advantages of the plan. In a taluk level government hospital in Perumbavoor, a town in Central Kerala well known for high concentration of migrant workers, there was not even an enquiry by the migrant workers to avail the facility. In such a way, practically speaking, the portability of benefits of RSBY scheme remains an issue.<sup>xiii</sup>

Generally, advantages of the schemes run by individual state governments are accessible to people having resident status in the respective state. Migrants, in general, do not have resident status in the destination state. Comprehensive Health Insurance Scheme (CHIS) is a scheme started by the Government of Kerala to stretch out coverage of medical insurance to families which are not covered by the RSBY. The plan benefits the 'additional poor', identified by the Kerala government who are ready to pay Rs. 30 and to non-poor if they are willing to pay the full premium of Rs. 778. Migrant workers are not covered by this plan also as they are not eligible for state specific plans. It is certain that a significant number

rights and privileges in the home state are not accessible when the workers crossed the borders of the state of the same country.<sup>xiv</sup>This is regardless of the way that the Indian federal system envisages full portability of the benefits at least for the central government schemes. It gives the idea that there is a requirement for better coordination between the governments in the host state, state of origin and the central government to ensure that the rights of the interstate migrants are not lost on account of migration. The initiative to issue unique identity to citizens in India may help to address the issue by synergizing it with rights of citizens so that migrant labourers can enjoy their rights wherever they are.

### **Language Barriers**

One of the significant issues that migrant labourers confront when they reach Kerala is related to the distinctions in the language spoken by the migrant workers and that of the host society. As stated elsewhere, though migration is between regions within the same nation, language spoken by the migrants and the local people are distinctive. Even though the migrant labours from Tamil Nadu managed to coup up with the situation.<sup>xv</sup>The official language of the nation is Hindi and English. But Keralites speak Malayalam. This is different from the language spoken by people in West Bengal (Bengali), Orissa (Oriya), Bihar (Hindi) or Assam (Assamese). All these languages belong to the Indo-Aryan language family while Malayalam is a Dravidian dialect. Being unable to speak to the local community of the service providers in their language makes them vulnerable on many occasions.

### **Health and Safety Risks**

Migrants are vulnerable because of unhygienic living conditions and insufficient arrangements for their safety at the worksite. The limitation to access health care due to language barriers, lack of time, lack of knowledge about the public provisioning of health care etc. further increases their vulnerability. However, one advantage the migrants in Kerala is that they may be able to benefit from the relatively better health system and health care seeking practices in the state.

### **Limitation to Access Education**

The children of migrant workers generally remain back in their home villages. The majority of the migrant workers in Kerala are unmarried. Of the kids remaining in Kerala, language barriers pose the problem in attending schools run by the state which is in Malayalam or English language. A couple single teacher schools have been begun under the national school training program viz., Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The difficulty to get instructors with knowledge in languages such as, Oriya, Bengali or Assamese is one of the issues related to the education of migrant's children. A migrant worker from Uttarakhand who sends his four year old child in a private pre-school in Kerala disclosed to the researcher that he will leave Kerala when the child attains the age of six. He feels that the language (Malayalam) and educational curriculum the child learns in Kerala may not be beneficial for her future as she has to live rest of her life in Uttarakhand.<sup>xvi</sup>

### **Unequal Wages**

Unskilled migrant workers get Rs. 300-350 for a day's work. If accommodation and food are given, usually there is cut in their salary and limits to Rs. 100. These wages are lower than the wages for local labour by about Rs. 100. But in large scale construction and

infrastructure work, migrant workers are recruited through contractors who set the wages. These contractors or agents will take their intermediary charges which is usually 20 – 30 per person. Regardless of the possibility that they don't come through contractor or agents, some of them pay cash to the workers who have come to Kerala from the same state earlier to find jobs and provide necessary support.<sup>xvii</sup>

The earnings of the labourers after migration is around 3-4 times their earlier income in home state. It is likewise substantially higher than the minimum wages fixed by the state government for unskilled workers. While there is significant distinction between the monetary wages for casual work in Kerala and in their home villages, it is important to note that the difference in real wage rates to the migrant workers may not be as high, as they have to incur much higher costs for living in Kerala than in their native places.

### **Conclusion**

Due to the limitations in portability of rights and privileges, the migrants are not able to avail the privileges offered by the central government they had enjoyed before migration. Subsequently, even when the migrant workers are from a same nation, the host state neglects to amplify them all the assurance that is accessible to the local labour. This being a national level issue, it has to be addressed for the country as a whole. The benefits in the Kerala state are not given to migrants as permanent resident status is necessary to become recipients. Even if the state is relatively better off in relation to legal and social protection, the benefits are not automatically transferred to the migrant workers. The state has to take initiatives to incorporate the demands of the migrant as well as the NGOs in relation to the effective implementation of the policy of the state and the central government.

It is likely that the factors that led to the vulnerability of migrant workers in Kerala may not be as strong as in many other parts of the country. Regardless of all these, they are not able to enjoy tolerable working and living conditions they are entitled to though they earn much more than that of their native places. The article analysed a couple of factors that pushed and pulled the migrant labourers to confront vulnerability in most of the spheres of life. Many of the factors are worth exploring further and there are many others too. Hence, to understand the vulnerability of the interstate migrants in Kerala in a comprehensive manner, a multi-dimensional study has to be initiated where NGOs and the Media can also be a part of it.

### **REFERENCES & CITATION**

---

<sup>i</sup>When the plantation sector was established during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century large scale migration took place from present day Tamil Nadu.

<sup>ii</sup>K. Ravi Raman, *Global Capital and Peripheral Labour: The history and political economy of plantation workers in India*, Routledge, London, pp. 126-127.

<sup>iii</sup>Joseph K.V., *Migration and Economic Development of Kerala*, Delhi, 1998, p.67.

<sup>iv</sup>Suneesh K.K., *The Marginalised in Revolt: Capital, Migration and Tenurial Rights in Idukki 1961-72*, Un Published Ph.D. Thesis to Sree Sankaracharya University of Sanskrit, 2016, p. 73

<sup>v</sup> Ibid., 74

---

<sup>vi</sup>Derose Kathryn Pitkin, Jose J. Escareet.al., Immigrants and Health Care: Sources of Vulnerability, Health Affairs, 26, No. 5, pp. 1258-1268.

<sup>vii</sup>Radha Devi D. and Ajith Kumar N., Population Pressure on Land in Kerala, Working Paper No. 24, Centre for Socio- Economic and Environmental Studues, Kochi.

<sup>viii</sup>Personal Interview with Gurung M.K., on 12.10.2016.

<sup>ix</sup>Ration card is the document issued by the government making families to make use of Public Distribution System.

<sup>x</sup>Michael Tharakan, Kerala Model Development Revisited: New Problems, Fresh Challenges, Working Paper No.15, Centre for Socio Economic and Environmental Studies, 2006.

<sup>xi</sup>Personal Interview with Bikram Misra on 18 12.2016.

<sup>xii</sup>Defined as those living below a poverty line fixed by the Planning Commission of India

<sup>xiii</sup>Biswas J et.al., Seasonal Migration, Social Change and Migrant's Rights: Lessons from West Bengal, Econic and Political Weekly, 36.

<sup>xiv</sup>From Personal Interview the scholar came to know that the supplementary food distributed through Anganvadis meant for pre- School children dose not deliver to the migrants because of the temporary residential status.

<sup>xv</sup>The language barriers are not much affected to the Tamil migrants as the Malayalam and Tamil belongs to Dravidian language.

<sup>xvi</sup>Personal Interview with Ad. K. Rainge on 22.11.2016.

<sup>xvii</sup> Radha Devi D. and Ajith Kumar N., Op.Cit., p. 12.

## **Proactive Measures towards the Minimization of Distress Migration among the Tribal Groups of Uriyampetty Tribal Village**

**Balagopal. A<sup>1</sup> and Nitheesh KV<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>MG University/ Sree Narayana Guru College of Arts and Science Paingottoor/ Department of Social Work,

<sup>2</sup>MG University/ Sree Narayana Guru College of Arts and Science Paingottoor/ Department of Social Work,

[balagopal.asokan@gmail.com](mailto:balagopal.asokan@gmail.com), [nitheeshkv55@gmail.com](mailto:nitheeshkv55@gmail.com)

### **Abstract**

The official statistics shows that tribal communities have been getting scattered, moving away from their native places and groups. At the same time, remarkable growth has not been observed in their tentative fields of employment and earnings figures. According to the government data, majority of the tribal groups are engaged in low wage and daily wage works in comparatively unskilled fields. Sevakiran charitable trust focused on the Mannan tribal village of Uriyampetty village located in kothamangalam Taluk and conducted a survey and series of FGDs in the community. In response to the findings of the study; after analyzing the data sets, Sevakiran identified the need of drinking water among the priority needs of the community and arranged provision for supplying drinking water on a voluntary basis. Water tanks were installed and connected to the adjacent stream through pipe lines and the community was trained to maintain the system and utilize it wisely. Community participation was ensured from the first step onwards to ensure sustainability. Periodic evaluations were conducted to monitor the programme. This has opened a two way channel of communication between the organization and the service users, providing room for discussing and planning towards the fulfillment of further unmet needs.

**Keywords:** Tribal community, distress migration, monitoring, service users, communication channel, unmet needs

### **Introduction**

Distress migration is seen to be evident in tribal communities and various research works are seen to approach it with a problem focused view; discussing its dimensions. A solution focused approach is discussed in this paper; viewing distress migration in light of theories to understand it in an unbiased manner and thereby; planning and implementing sustainable solution in collaboration with the community. This paper; being a reflection of field experience, do not stick on to the strict adherence to procedures; but is built upon its underlying pragmatic paradigm and resultant quest for proactive solutions which could immediately benefit the community.

### **Research questions**

- 1 What theories explain the characteristics of tribal communities?
- 2 What are the characteristics of tribal communities that differentiate them from the external world?

- 3 Does distress migration influence the wellbeing of tribal communities?
- 4 What distress factors are being faced by tribal community of Uriyampetty??
- 5 How far are they able to identify distress factors?
- 6 What are the practical solutions towards distress minimization that could be initiated in collaboration with the community?
- 7 In what aspects of implementations can the community collaborate?

Questions 1 to 3 are answered in the literature review part and is planned to be verified during the course of study, through observation, which is stated in the discussion part.

Questions 4 to 7 are planned to be answered with the research and stated duly in the results part.

Questions 1 to 3 is verified comprehensively with questions 4 to 7 in the discussion chapter and summarized in the findings chapter with points of observation made during the study.

#### **Aims of the study**

1. To identify a solution for the present problems faced by the villagers of Uriyampetty in collaboration with the residents
2. To conceptualize and prepare an implementation plan and action strategy in collaboration with the community towards a sustainable solution for the identified problems

#### **Review of literature**

Distress migration has been observed to be high among various tribal groups of Kerala. (Nithya, 2013)The causative factors have been found to be diverse in nature. (Castles, 2015)Various researches focusing on separate tribal groups have found out various reasons; which no significant relationship could be drawn in common. (Haseena, 2014)Combined to this, tribal groups are found to be most affected by development induced displacement. (Guide, 2005)Their wandering habit, changing habitats with respect to climate and availability of resources is found to have role in putting them always on the wedge of displacement.(Pathways & Access, 2008) Factors of distress migration, wandering and development induced displacement are found to have equal significance in the lives of tribal communities of India.(Srivastava, 2003) Out of these varying reasons, this study focuses on the distress migration among tribal and factors leading to distress, compelling them to move; with focus on practical remedial measures.

It is difficult to draw some generalizations regarding tribes. Though many tribal groups resemble in many aspects, all of them are marked for distinct features and socio-cultural dimensions.(Ghurye, n.d.) The degree of relationship with outside world differs between tribal groups of India and other continents. Major occupations of Indian tribes are hunting, fishing and collection of forest produces or a combination of these. (Rao, 2012)There are about 461 different tribal groups living in various parts of India. Some remain original, isolated and alienated while many others live amalgamated with the adjacent societies. The word 'tribe' is generally used for a "socially cohesive unit, associated with a territory, the members of which regard them as politically autonomous". Often a tribe possesses a distinct dialect and distinct cultural traits. (Srivastava, 2003)The Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1911, defines a tribe as a "collection of families bearing a common name, speaking a common dialect, occupying or professing to occupy a common territory and is not usually endogamous though originally it might have been so".(Rao, 2012)

### **Indian context**

Forest has been central to the tribal life and the tribal have been marginalised by various power groups for their vested interests and profit motives. (Skeldon, 1986) Combined to this, the need of land for development has been always pushing them out of their habitats. (Rao, 2012) According to the 2011 census, tribal constitute 8.2% of the total population of the country. (Weekly, 2012) The tribal people of India are called "Scheduled Tribes" in the Indian Constitution. In India, 461 ethnic groups are recognized as Scheduled Tribes, and these are considered to be India's indigenous peoples. There are, many more ethnic groups that would qualify for Scheduled Tribe status but which are not officially recognized. Estimates of the total number of tribal groups are as high as 635. According to the Anthropological Survey a total of 4,635 communities are now to be found in India. (Rao, 2012)

Tribal women have been worst affected by gender discrimination and violence. More than half of the tribal people don't have land and those who have land, have only marginal amounts; that too, in worst of locations. (Nithya, 2014) Poverty, deprivation and the reduction of government expenditure on basic medical health facilities is reflected in the absolutely poor health condition of tribal women and children. (Barbora, Thieme, Siegmann, Menon, & Gurung, 2008) India has several laws and constitutional provisions, such as the Fifth Schedule for mainland India and the Sixth Schedule for certain areas of north-east India, which recognize indigenous peoples' rights to land and self-governance. There are shortcomings that restrict the effectiveness of the laws to put tribal people at loss. (Rao, 2012)

According to the National Crime Records Bureau's report (NCRB), a total of 5,885 cases of atrocities against indigenous peoples/tribal were reported in the country during 2011, as compared to 5,425 cases in 2010, showing an increase of 8.5% over the year. (Nithya, 2014) Indigenous women and children continue to suffer from various forms of violence, including killing, rape and torture by non-tribal, security forces and members of the armed opposition groups in armed conflict situations. (Nithya, 2014)

Since the adoption of New Economic Policy (NEP) in 1991 the control of World Bank in many of the projects and schemes concerning forests is very obvious. (Barbora et al., 2008) These have the sole aim of gaining unrestrained access to the natural resources though it is disguised under attractive names like Joint Forest Management (JFM), restoring forests, preserving bio diversity etc. (Nithya, 2014) The forest 'Protection Committees' to be formed under JFM are in effect controlled by the forest department for their secretaries have to be forest rangers. Moreover forests are being opened to private entrepreneurs in the name of promoting tourism. Eco tourism is promoted in the tribal areas by the state governments. This is not only posing threats to ecology and destroying indigenous cultures but is also increasing the danger of sex tourism. Tourism too plays a role in alienating tribal from their lands. (Nithya, 2014)

### **Kerala context**

The tribal communities in Kerala have been historically marginalized and oppressed by various development factors and forces. (Haseena, 2014) The policies and schemes implemented by successive governments at the Centre and the state have further worsened the situation. The challenges to their rights have been critical today, leading to extreme form of deprivation in many ways. (Rao, 2012) Their customary rights over natural resources such

as forests, cultural identity and traditional knowledge including intellectual property rights, cultural heritage and traditional wisdom have been continuously at stake.(Rao, 2012)

**Table 1 Details of Primitive Tribal Groups**

Name of PTG	Total population	Number of families
Kattunaikan	18576	5055
Cholanaikan	363	82
Kadar	1695	486
Koragas	1572	422
Kurumbas	2079	478
Total	24285	6523

(Rao, 2012)

**Table 2 Percentage of population below poverty line**

Sl.No	NSSO Rounds	India		Kerala	
		Total	ST	Total	ST
1	38thRound(1983)	45.6	63.8	39.1	NA
2	50thRound(1993-94)	37.1	52.2	25.5	37.3
3	55thRound (1999-2000)	27.1	45.8	9.4	24.2

(Rao, 2012)

The Planning Commission of India in its ‘Kerala Development Report (2008)’ states that:

... rural poverty among adivasis in Kerala persists and comes to more than two-and-half times that of the rural population of Kerala in general. Adivasis constitute only around one per cent of the state’s population, nearly one-fourth of them still live below the official poverty line; the actual incidence of poverty among them could be even higher, this high incidence of poverty among adivasis points to the various dimensions of social inequalities prevalent in the state ....(Nithya, 2013)

A study by the Health Department as well as AIIMS, New Delhi, shows the pressing poverty among the tribal in the state, about 2402 families take meal one time in a day and amongst them half are agricultural laborers and 34,092 families only have two meals a day and the number of family members who are having malnutrition is 13,960.(Nithya, 2013)

### **Employment/Category of Workers**

The highest proportion of tribal workers in the state is that of ‘ agricultural labourers’ (47.1 percent) as against the national average of 36.4 percent; ‘other workers’ form 38.6 percent, and this proportion is also significantly higher than that recorded among the total STs at the national level (16.3 percent). According to the 2001 Census, 25.87 percent of the total population was under the category of ‘main workers’ and the percentage of females in the category of ‘main workers’ among STs is almost 20 percent. (Rao, 2012) The decline of ‘main workers’, both male and female from 1991 to 2001 is substantial among the STs, which is an indication of growing unemployment, underemployment and deprivation among the ST communities. There is an excessive dependence of STs on agriculture for their

livelihood. It is revealed that 54.79 percent of the ST population depends on agriculture whereas in the case of general population, the corresponding figure was only 19.52 percent. Hence, it is observed that the ST population lags far behind in the changing occupational structure of the Kerala economy.(Rao, 2012) Again in Kerala, as per Rule 14(a) of the Kerala State Subordinate Service Rules 1958, two percent reservation in public service is provided to the STs, but this has not yet been achieved. However, as regards the STs, the number of Government employees in gazetted posts, non-gazetted posts and last grades is more than their population percentage. (Rao, 2012)

### **Poverty Ratio**

In Kerala poverty is more concentrated in certain segments of the population mainly belonging to the Scheduled Tribes and other marginal communities (Aiyer, 2006) Increase in wages of rural labourers, a range of anti-poverty measures undertaken by the Central, State and Local Governments, and the growth of the general economy are the major factors that brought about a decline in poverty among the tribal population. However, rural poverty among the STs remains more than two and a half times that of all of Kerala's rural population living below poverty line, which stands at 9.4 percent. The overrepresentation of STs in the population below poverty line in the state is a matter of serious concern which needs special targeted attention.(Rao, 2012)

### **Deprivation Index**

Deprivation index can be used as a tool to capture the shortfall in the quality of life. UNDP's deprivation index measures the shortfall based on four deprivation criteria in: the quality of housing, access to water, good sanitation, and electrification. The relative asset deprivation is also co-related to the housing conditions and lack of facilities in the households among all districts, though there is a wide disparity in the 'unmet basic needs' across the districts. (Rao, 2012)

### **Vulnerabilities in the Tribal Community**

A quick analysis of the tribal situation by the State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, has identified 17 alarming issues in the tribal community. They are : (i) Extreme levels of poverty, deprivation and vulnerability; (ii) High levels of exclusion both developmental and social; (iii) Extremely low levels of empowerment (political, social and economic); (iv) Rapid marginalization due to unfair, unequal and exploitative relations of production and exchange between tribal communities and others; (v) Low level of access to entitlements; (vi) Practically zero participation in development matters with no autonomy in any form of decision making; (vii) Abnormally huge siphoning of developmental resources and benefits meant for tribal people by middlemen; (viii) Poor human development with low levels of literacy and access to health care; (ix) Rapid alienation of assets like land; (x) Alarming depletion of social capital especially traditional forms of organization and leadership; (xi) Quick deterioration of traditional knowledge systems and cultural attainments; (xii) Fast increasing tendency to use tribal people as cat's paws in criminal activities such as illicit distillation, cultivation of narcotic plants, stealing of forest wealth, etc.; (xiii) High levels of exploitation of women by outsiders; (xiv) Weak delivery system of public services; (xv) Dependency-inducing developmental programmes relying on distribution of benefits rather than building up capabilities; (xvi) Implementation of ad hoc and stereo-typed developmental programmes in the absence of proper planning; (xvii) Very weak monitoring systems.(Rao, 2012)

### **Main approaches used to understand tribes in India.**

These are **Isolation approach** of Verrier Elwin, **Assimilation approach** of G.S Ghurye and **Integration approach** of Jawaharlal Nehru.(Ghurye, n.d.)

Theory of isolation states that; national parks must be established and its authority must be handed over to tribes with no external interventions. Their culture must not be destroyed or modified and they must enjoy full autonomy over their lives. Indian tribes are in various stages of development of their culture. Verrier Elwin has classified it in to four distinct groups. Anthropologists have supported this theory widely. Though it has not been practiced anywhere in fullest of its sense, it is commonly agreed that tribes must not be forced with external intrusions which could destroy their culture. (Ghurye, n.d.)

### **Theory of Integration**

This concept is mainly influenced and drawn from *Panchsheel* principle. Nehru rejected both isolation and assimilation approach of tribe. Instead of other approaches, Nehru favoured policy of integrating tribal people in Indian society to make them an integral part of Indian nation without hampering their distinct identity and culture. (Ghurye, n.d.)Integration consisted of two types of measures for tribal development. These are Protective measure and Promotional measure. After independence, he laid down a Panchsheel principle for tribal development in India, which held five fundamental principles for tribal development. For ensuring overall development there should be proper communication, medical facility, education and better agriculture. These avenues should, be pursued within broad framework of following five principles.(Ghurye, n.d.)

1. People should develop a long line of their own genius and nothing should be imposed on them. Their own traditional art and culture must be encouraged.
2. Tribal rights in land and forests should be respected.
3. Tribal teams must be developed to do works of administration and development with limited external help in the beginning.
4. Their areas should not be over administered or overwhelmed with a multiplicity of schemes; but should be developed through their own social system.
5. Judge result, not by statistics of amount of money spent, but by quality of human character evolved.(Ghurye, n.d.)

### **Distress migration: effects**

**Loss of human capital**, highly skilled workers and agricultural labour may affect crop production and food availability.(Srivastava, 2003)

**Migration of young men** may cause ageing and feminization of rural populations and increased work burdens on those left behind.(Srivastava, 2003)

**Remittances may be used towards consumption** rather than productive investments.

**Remittances may lead to changes in land use and titling.** Conversion of agricultural land to land for housing may lead to rising land prices and falling agricultural production, which may affect food security.(Srivastava, 2003)

**Irregular or distress migration may be dangerous for the migrants themselves.** Low skilled migrants are more vulnerable to precarious jobs, unsafe working conditions, and weak access to social protection.(Srivastava, 2003)

Though extensive skimming was carried out to find leads to the causative factors that lead to distress migration among tribes in Kerala, no specific reason was found unfortunately. It was observed that every research was trying to draw generalisations that are applicable to the maximum majority of people, not going in to details of any particular tribes or their communities. Since a wide data set and theories is available on the tribes of India, this study was planned to be focussed towards describing the significance of theory of isolation and theory of integration with special reference to the tribes of Uriyampetty.

### **Procedures**

This study was planned to be conducted in qualitative method since distress is more viable for qualitative form of enquiry; which could vary from person to person, though for the same situation. (Creswell, 2013)A “pragmatic world view” has been underpinned with this research that arises and changes out of situations, actions and consequences rather than antecedent conditions. “What works” policy, not stipulating to proven tracks; but, following the identified needs of the service users is followed in course of action. (Creswell, 2013)

This study describes the significance of isolation theory and integration theory regarding Indian tribes with reference to the tribes of Uriyampetty.

### **Qualitative research approach**

Qualitative method of enquiry was used for this research for this research. Observation schedule was used parallel to the data collection exercises and outcome of observation is used to describe the learning points from review of literature. Further to this, FGDs were conducted to collect data on the distress faced by the service users and checked for patterns during data analysis and reported duly.

### **Use of theories**

Theories were used to understand the context and community to the best possible level since none of the researchers belonged to the community; leaving the gap of lack of essentialism and due level of understanding. This was planned to be crossed with including the aboriginals in course of the research. The study in return to the use of theories; tried to describe the level of applicability of the theories in the specific research context in the broadest sense.

### **Role of the researcher**

Researcher was an outsider in the beginning phase. In course of time, researcher got amalgamated with the community by actively participating in their discussions and thus, establishing good rapport with the community. A researcher-subject relationship was thus, brought down to the level of a good friend and advocate and the tasks of setting venues for FGDs and participating actively in the discussion was handed over to the service user population.

### **Data collection procedures**

**Type of research:** descriptive (describing the theories focused in the research context)

**Universe of the study:** Uriyampetty tribal village (72 households)

**Sample size:** 72 households

**Sampling plan:** focused group discussions including all the samples. Five FGDs are planned for groups as follows

- 1) Youngsters (up to 40)
- 2) Elders (41 and above)

- 3) Joint group (for the entire village)
- 4) Women
- 5) Men

**Sampling method:** participatory method of FGDs, covering all the households

**Tool of data collection:** semi-structured FGD guide, consisting of questions in connection with the research questions, supported by unplanned probing questions to facilitate discussion.

**Data analysis:** using qualitative method, setting themes and explaining it, and using it to describe the theories focused.

**Reporting:** using computer, typed and printed and referencing with Mendeley, in APA format.

Collecting the data was planned to be completed with the support of the people. In this phase, the community was given full freedom in planning questions for the discussion, in moderating the discussion and in recording the process. This system was adopted from the basics of action research. It was found effective since all were free and less reluctant to express their views during the discussion. The discussion was recorded and drafted later in the form of narrative.

Data analysis consisted of finding patterns in the drafted narratives and then, compiling these patterns with quotes from the narrative. Though full recorded narrative was wrote down, only patterns were chosen from it towards the final report. Each pattern was directly cross checked with the theory statements to describe the significance of the quoted theory in the research context. Combined to this, observations made in course of the research also was reported and used during the analysis to establish meaningful relationship between theories and its level of significance in the research setting.

### **Ethical considerations**

Confidentiality was guaranteed and informed consent was sought well in advance to the research. The community was given freedom to participate or abstain from the data collection procedures. Working with tribal communities was a volatile field since negative outcomes could destroy their air of freedom. This was planned to be crossed by ensuring their participation in all stages of the study, from conceptualising up to the stage of data collection so that, the process would not harm their preferences and choices. After analysis, the findings of the study was shared to them and cross checked for disparities. Similar strategy was used in the stage of project implementation as well.

### **Justification**

The significance of this study, using qualitative method, conducted in a closed group is made evident through the literature review since the problems faced by different groups are totally different from others and unique in features with specific reference to their geographical location, cultural patterns as well as pattern of life. However, distress migration is found to be evident in all the groups though in diverse in rates. This signifies the fact that distress factors vary from group to group and how they perceive and react to it is still diverse. Since distress migration is not highly desirable for the group (though it could bring individual benefits at times), this study is significant in knowing in detail; the distress factors that compel the mannan community of Uriyampetty to move to the downtown, leaving their habitats and culture towards a practical solution.

### **Pilot findings**

Observing the movements of people and patterns of their life and work, basing on kuttampuzha, it was found that working men and women of tribal villages around the place had been coming down to work in farms and daily wage jobs. Their wages are similar to that of native workers, which come about rupees 500 plus meals per day for males and rupees 300 plus meals for the females for farm and daily wages jobs. This amount combined with the plush availability of tobacco and liquors makes these workers spend all their income over liquor and tobacco. External intrusions from the downtown to the accessible tribal villages for buying their products for cheapest prices makes them at loss and starving for majority of the seasons, compelling them to come down to engage in daily waged jobs. These situations discarded the existence of both the theories summarily in practice. It was yet to be found out how these theories would work if practiced with some tribes in their natural environment. This study was conducted, observing all the points specified in the theories and carefully documented to measure the applicability of these theories in the universe of the research. The theories were found be ideal for the universe and was immediately brought in to the best practices of the organization (Sevakiran)

### **Results**

Isolated location was found to be desirable for the protection and enrichment of indigenous culture, traditions and pattern of life regarding the residents of Uriyampetty, since the influence of external culture was found to be affecting their indigenous ways adversely. This was signified during a FGD, by the elderly groups of the community. This is contrary to their movement initiated during early 2000's, trying to give back their lands, ready to move over to the down towns. At the same time; movement of people towards the down town in a huge rate (95% of the productive youth) was observed. Though the protest of 2000's towards availing land in the downtown didn't work, they started moving towards the down towns. This; when pointed out during an FGD and personalized interview; was mentioned to be for reasons as follows

*X/male/youngster:*

*‘‘Though we wished to move to the lower planes, the places suggested for our re village was too bad and neglected. One of it was in a teak plantation and the other places were not good enough for living’’.*

*A/female/youngster:*

*‘‘we happen to walk half day long way to collect water. This is not resolved by anyone in any manner. This becomes difficult when we are not well. There will be wandering wild animals during summer; near all streams which makes our journey still difficult’’.*

*B/male/elder:*

*‘‘we have been engaged in collecting forest products for a lifetime. We have never received amounts sufficient to purchase supplies for even a week with what we get on selling the entire collection of a season’’.*

*D/Female/elder:*

*‘we have daily wage jobs in the valley villages. It needs a walk of half day one side or we happen to pay huge amount for jeep fare. This makes our effort worthless since we happen to return home empty handed’.*

*E/female/elder:*

*‘men who are working in the valleys do not bring any money or supplies back home. All of them are eating drinking and enjoying and returning empty handed. We happen to walk long distance for drinking water in a dangerous environment. Attack from wild animals can happen even in the glimpse of eyes. Thus, we also get forced to move to the valley with the males for the protection of our lives’.*

- a. Lack of drinking water (which was restated to be seasonal on discussion) and
- b. Lack of income generation scope in the community (which was re-stated to be lack of getting paid for indigenous products on discussion) were the major patterns drawn from the narratives of FGDs.

Another significant fact that evolved during both FGD and interviews were the high rate of prevalence of substance use among the male population and a remarkable percentage among the female population as well. It was reconfirmed to be a result of being in contact with the downtown for jobs, trades as well as for other purposes for long.

Point that precipitated during all FGDs was that, the community is not able to identify distress factors on their own, and hence, the solutions. They; due to the wandering habit formed through generations, choose to move from one place to the other when they find it difficult to continue in one place. Mannans are originally from Tamilnadu and their main settlement in kerala is Kozhimala. If this group travelled about 120 kms through the dense forest; changing habitats and occupations within a course of less than 100 years, that itself shows their lack of resistance to distress.

Uriyampetty; being situated in dense forest, cannot be networked with the downtown easily for practical solutions for their day to day life issues. The solution that could be identified by the groups during FGDs included scarcity of drinking water and an urge for the provision of water on a priority basis. The indigenous way of highlanders to store and utilize water is to dig ponds or use large storage tanks and connect it with the adjacent stream with pipeline. This has been found effective throughout the eastern ghats of kerala. When they were asked of such a provision; they expressed their helplessness in investing money for the erection. At the same time; they were willing to help through manual labour that might involve in the process.

In this juncture, Sevakiran decided to help the community on a voluntary basis and included the scheme in the annual budget as approved in the executive committee. The community helped in the erection works and implementation process by handling the management and maintenance of the water supply system. Thus, with a cost of 1,10,000/- to the agency and manual labour worth 40,000/- to the community and a recurring cost estimated per maintenance labour worth 10,000/- per year, the community got a permanent solution for their long persisted drinking water shortage. Workers were paid a groceries kit worth 1200

for voluntary work; which all households received in return to their volunteering in some form for the erection work.

### **Discussion**

The research questions focused were as follows

- What theories explain the characteristics of tribal communities?
- What are the characteristics of tribal communities that differentiate them from the external world?
- Does distress migration influence the wellbeing of tribal communities?
- What distress factors are being faced by tribal community of Uriyampetty??
- How far are they able to identify distress factors?
- What are the practical solutions towards distress minimization that could be initiated in collaboration with the community?
- In what aspects of implementations can the community collaborate?

### **Theories and its significance in the research population**

The theories being focused were theory of isolation and theory of integration. Theory of isolation proves true with the evil effects of external intrusions listed by the community as substance use, exploitation by not paying enough for their products and lack of supply of drinking water. If the community was left with full autonomy over their location with no external intrusions, they could have gained better scope for their skills and products.

Theory of integration also is proved. The tribal community is not given with dignity as specified in the Panchasheel principles of the theory. If they were treated with due dignity, they would not have been exploited and subjected to the social evils by the world outside. By introducing water supply system with minimum external help and maximum community participation; it was observed that the community is able to take ownership and responsibility on its own.

Both the theories stand relevant for the community. The only variation observed is that, both are clearly being violated by the world outside.

There are contradicting views between the proponents of these theories. But; in a pragmatic point of view, it was observed that both theories are complementary to each other. In the present day context; isolation is relevant since the community is getting polluted with persistent interaction with the world outside since they lack discretion to choose between desirable and undesirable choices. Minimum interventions at the same time; helps them in making choices. This signifies the acceptance of both the theories in this specific context.

### **Characteristics of the community that differentiates them from the external world**

Similar to the other tribe groups, this community also is keeping a wandering habit that makes them move when subjected to distress out of their level of tolerance. This solution method has kept them moving far away from their motherland, which is at Kozhimala; approximately 120 kms from their present location. This habit of wandering has kept them out of the need for a permanent solution for their problems.

### **Effects of distress migration on the community**

They are unaware of the fact that a good portion of productive youth have fallen apart; leaving the parent community once and forever in this course of migration. Thus, they are deserted of the fruits of efforts and earnings made by their productive youth and still remain completely dependent on the down valley for their day-to-day existence.

### **Distress factors faced by the villagers of Uriyampetty**

Lack of drinking water and lack of good prices for their products combined with substance use and related issues subsequent to the process of being in constant touch with the downtown were stressed by the villagers among their evident distress factors.

Theory of isolation and theory of integration are clearly violated regarding the residents of Uriyampetty. At the same time, sustainable solution for their long persistent problems lies directly in the immediate introduction and invariable practice of these theories only.

### **Aspects of solutions that the community can collaborate**

The community is flexible, anxious, timid and at the same time; open towards the external world. They, though not aware; are willing to work towards practical solutions for their problems. Being people living close to the nature; they have high levels of flexibility and adaptability to change. At the same time, they are unaware of the losses being faced by generations long constant outflow or migration that has been happening with their community. Drinking water; being one of the basic needs of existence, was targeted for the primary intervention. The community remained helpful throughout the planning and implementation steps. They were unable to find monetary resources on their own. They do not have sufficient modesty on spends and savings or money management skills if they were handed over with funds necessary for the implementation of the project. So, Sevakiran bought the necessary items and transported it to their place. The community helped in manual labour; for which food and ration of groceries was provided for the community in return. Thus, the project got rolled out with an initial 50:50 ratio of agency: community participation. This has been raised up to 40: 60 on completion of the first year.

### **Findings**

The major findings of the study are as follows

- a. The theories of isolation and integration are violated. But, these theories can provide sustainable solutions for the problems faced by the community.
- b. The downtown business focus largely upon the tribes; availing all tobacco products and liquor without any restriction.
- c. The local vendors purchase forest produces from the tribes at cheapest prices and make them at loss for continuing in their traditional way of earning. In return, the downtown landlords offer farm and agricultural jobs on daily wage and exploit their helplessness in a deeper manner.
- d. For engaging in downtown jobs, they happen to travel pretty long way, leaving behind their elderly parents, women and children in the mercy of god. This compels women and even elderly persons to join the groups moving to the downtown.
- e. The jeep services and shop owners empty their pockets with pretty high charges and quiet unwanted products like tobacco and alcohol. Even hotels provide meat and chicken meals only, making them spend remarkable part of their income on daily meals.
- f. Eat, drink, enjoy and return empty handed is the only possible way for them to push on with their highly uncertain lives.
- g. Though they could choose to live in the same place if basic infrastructure is provided; there are no active provisions for minding these aspects of their life.
- h. The community needs to master money management skills and earning habits to sustain in the contemporary world.

- i. The community is not aware of their losses on being constantly in migration. They are ignorant of the developments; the migrated persons could have brought to them if remained in contact with the parent community.

### **Planned and implemented course of action**

Sevakiran Charitable trust is a Non-profit Organization; working in Ernakulam Dt, specifically; at Kothamangalam Taluk conducted a research among the Tribal Group of Uriyampetty village and initiated a project entitled VAIBHAV towards the empowerment of the residents and to prevent distress migration thereby.

**Location:** Uriyampetty village of kuttampuzha Panchayat, KOTHAMANGALAM Taluk  
**Service user group:** Mannan Tribal, 72 households

**Service selection:** through research, as initiated and conducted by the group with minimum external help

**Service provided:** sustainable drinking water supply by erecting pipeline and storage tank to store water from the adjacent stream

**Service user involvement:** in planning, they helped in conducting the feasibility study. In implementation, they helped with voluntary labour and Cooperation. In continuing with the project, they volunteered to take necessary training to maintain the pipeline and trained to protect and use the system so as to benefit all.

VAIBHAV focus on non-monetary provisions mainly. It supplies drinking water by erecting storage and piping facilities in the community itself. Regarding the readdressal of other precipitating problems, it provides training to the youngsters in various areas like healthcare, legal awareness, agriculture and marketing of products. It has been evaluated to be 95% successful on first year of evaluation. The project is currently handled by the community by maintaining the infrastructure by themselves and distributing the supply for everyone in the community.

The specific objective of the programme was to minimize distress migration and help the community to continue in the same place so that they could be motivated towards self-dependent life style as well as to practice self-managed levels of health and hygiene. On evaluation, the project is planned to be extended with livelihood support by helping them find better markets and prices for their indigenous products and also through supporting them to keep up their traditional agriculture, medicines and art forms.(Lund & Stolen, 2015)By helping them to settle in their habitat, external intrusions which pollute their lifestyles and culture is expected to be brought down to a minimal level, helping them to stand on their feet.

**Future plan:** the tribal group has been residing in the same location for the past two years. Now, livelihood support and support to preserve their native art, culture and heritage are being planned.

### **Limitations of the study**

1. The study was limited to only one tribal village of kothamangalam Taluk.
2. The study happened to restrict to the level of a feasibility study since this was not externally funded or towards the publication of scholarly papers.

3. No strict compliance to methodological aspects was kept for the reason of being conducted on the basis of “pragmatic” world view.

### Suggestions

1. Research in practice and practice in research is the best bilateral way to enrich both knowledge domains and practice.
2. The colonial way of finding deficits in the culture of aboriginals must not be practiced when working with tribal groups and researchers must come out of the view that development is the stage that the researcher is in and others are underdeveloped.
3. Future research on the aboriginals must focus on micro level groups towards sustainable solutions for their development.

### Bibliography

1. Aiyer, A. (2006). THE ALLURE OF THE TRANSNATIONAL: Notes on Some Aspects of the Political Economy of Water in India, 22(4), 640–658. <http://doi.org/10.1525/can.2007.22.4.640>. ALLURE
2. Barbora, S., Thieme, S., Siegmann, K. A., Menon, V., & Gurung, G. (2008). Migration Matters in South Asia: Commonalities and Critiques. *Economic & Political Weekly*, 43(24), 57–65.
3. Castles, S. (2015). Towards a Sociology of Forced Migration and Social Transformation Author ( s ): Stephen Castles Stable URL : <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42856491> ., 37(1), 13–34.
4. Creswell, J. (2013). Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. *Research Design*, 1–26. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3152153>
5. Ghurye, G. (n.d.). Concept and theory of tribal in India. In 1993 (pp. 1–28). Popular Prakashan Pvt. Ltd.
6. Guide, H. M. (2005). What is Human Migration ? *National Geographic*.
7. Haseena, V. A. (2014). Land Alienation and Livelihood Problems of Scheduled Tribes in Kerala, 4(10), 76–82.
8. Lund, R., & Stolen, K. A. (2015). Giving to the Voice Displaced, 39(5), 471–473.
9. Nithya, N. R. (2013). Land Question And The Tribal Of Kerala, 2(9), 102–105.
10. Nithya, N. R. (2014). GLOBALIZATION AND THE PLIGHT OF TRIBAL : THE CASE OF KERALA , INDIA, 3(1), 727–758.
11. Pathways, C., & Access, T. O. (2008). *Consortium for Research on Educational Access , Transitions and Equity Distress Seasonal Migration and its Impact on Children ’ s Education Smita Research Monograph No 28*.
12. Rao, P. T. (2012). *An Assessment and Analysis of Tribal Sub-Plan ( TSP ) in Kerala*.
13. Skeldon, R. (1986). On Migration Patterns in India during the 1970s. *Population and Development Review*, 12(4), 759–779. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1973434> <http://www.jstor.org/stable/pdfplus/1973434.pdf?acceptTC=true>
14. Srivastava, R. (2003). in India , its impacts and. In *An overview of migration in India, its impacts and key issues*. <http://doi.org/2003>
15. Weekly, P. (2012). Status Migration , Employment Analysis, 42(4), 299–306.

## **MIGRANT CHILD LABOUR IN KERALA – (WITH REFERENCE TO IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON RIGHTS OF CHILD)**

**A.Anitha**

*Assistant Professor, SRM School of Law, SRM University.  
anibalaadv@gmail.com*

### **Abstract**

**Child Labour is a social evil which has to be eradicated. The volume of child labour in a country is the index of the extent of poverty on the one hand and an index of apathy and defective legislation to deal with the problem of child labour on the other hand. Socially, it is a disgrace for the society to exploit its children in utter disregard of moral and social values that any civilized society may be expected to maintain. From economic point of view it is wastage of a productive resource and a criminal misuse of the potentialities that could serve the future much more productivity than what they might be contributing at present.**

**The problem of child labour is a global phenomenon, though it might be more severe in the developing countries. Though the state of kerala is widely acknowledged for its remarkable achievements in the socio-economic scenario it has not able to keep its children away from labour force. That too migrant child labour is the most visible form of child labour in the state. Most of the working children are found in the unorganized sector and in marginal occupations on the streets including suffering from isolation, violence, sub standard working conditions, non-payment of wages, and the threat of being reported to the authorities. Further that amongst child labourers it is migrant children who receive less pay, work longer hours, less often attend school, and face higher death rates at work in comparison to local children.**

**This paper will discuss about the living and working conditions of the migrant child labour and the measures to solve the problems with reference to The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).**

**Key Words: Child labour – problem- working conditions- unorganized sectors- measures – international conventions.**

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Child Labour is a social evil which has to be eradicated. The volume of child labour in a country is the index of the extent of poverty on the one hand and an index of apathy and defective legislation to deal with the problem of child labour on the other hand. Socially, it is a disgrace for the society to exploit its children in utter disregard of moral and social values that any civilized society may be expected to maintain. From economic point of view it is a wastage of a productive resource and a criminal misuse of the potentialities that could serve the future much more productivity than what they might be contributing at present.

The problem of child labour is a global phenomenon, though it might be more severe in the developing countries. We have indications that the child labour is on an increase in India

which may be partly due to increased demographic pressures and partly due to perpetual problem of poverty in our country. Whatever might be the reasons for the existence of child labour and whatever may be the pattern of its distribution it is the problem facing the world community and demands that it (world community) rise to the occasion and resolve to take effective steps to eradicate this ugly blot on the face of human society.

In order to recognise the importance of children in the society the United Nations rightly decided to observe the year 1979 as the International Year of the Child. Such a decision has focused world attention on the problem of child labour and several programme have been chalked out under the auspices of I.L.O. to study the problem of child labour.

Besides low wages, child labour is also characterised by uncertainty of employment, shifting employers and jobs, lack of trade unionism and casualism. Child labour, perhaps presents one of the best examples of an information sector of a labour market. Several considerations enter into the fixation of wages, through bargaining power and the extent of economic compulsions that decide the wage to be paid by an employer.

Though the state of Kerala is widely acknowledged for its remarkable achievements in the socio-economic scenario it has not able to keep its children away from labour force. That too migrant child labour is the most visible form of child labour in the state. Most of the working children are found in the unorganized sector and in marginal occupations on the streets including suffering from isolation, violence, sub standard working conditions, non-payment of wages, and the threat of being reported to the authorities. Further that *amongst child labourers it is migrant children who receive less pay, work longer hours, less often attend school, and face higher death rates at work in comparison to local children.*

## **2. MIGRATION – AN IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR CHILD LABOUR:**

Migration is one of the most important factor for child labour. In article 32 of the Convention on Child Right says that ‘Government should consider ways to address the potential vulnerability of children to , in particular the worst forms of child labour. There are various types of migration which leads to child labour, they are the following family migration, independent child migration, and children left behind by migrant parents.

### **2. 1. Family Migration:**

Generally, most of the children move with their families. It serves as a common economic coping or survival strategy of households in many parts of the world and can provide families and their children with their opportunity on the other hand it also make them more vulnerable.

### **2.2. Independent Child migration:**

Although the majority of child migration moves with their families, significant number of children also moves independently. And also the study reveals that the girls are migrating more than the boys.

### **2.3. Children left behind by migrant parents:**

Comparing to family migration and individual child migration it is for the welfare of the children the study reveals that the left behind children has more emotional problems and other report reveals that they were more to abandon the school and most of them turn to drug

addiction on the other hand where parents have migrated, children must take over the domestic chores instead of education.

### **3. EXTENT OF CHILD LABOUR**

According to 1980 Report of the Bureau of Statistics and Special studies of the ILO, more than 52 million children were employed in a variety of occupations. Of these, South East Asia accounted for 29 million followed by 10 million in Africa, 9.1 million in West Asia,<sup>i</sup> 3.1 million in Latin America, 700,000 in Europe, 3,00,000 in North America and 10,00,000 in Oceania.<sup>ii</sup> India is one of the major countries of the world to have employed a good percentage of child labour. According to 1971 census there are 10.74 million child workers in the country of whom nearly 10 million that is 93.6% are employed in rural areas. Out of these about 78.7% are employed as cultivators and agricultural labourers. Of the remaining, 8.2% are engaged in livestock, fishing, plantation and orchards, about 6.0% in household industries. The rest are employed in trade, commerce, transportation and storage.<sup>iii</sup> However, according to the National Sample Survey estimate the country's child labour force in 1978 reached at 16.25 million.<sup>iv</sup> Be it as it may, a State-wise survey reveals that "Andhra Pradesh has the largest child labour force of 9.0% of the total of country, followed in Karnataka with 7.9%. The number of child workers in West Bengal is estimated at 5.11 lakhs. Most of the children are employed in hotels, restaurants, sweet shops, small engineering, foundries, and automobile repair shops and as cleaners for buses and taxis. Rag pickers are also generally the children below the age of 14. They generally work for private contractors and are made to work between 12 to 16 hours. They are also employed in book publishing concerns and binding shops."<sup>v</sup> From this it is evident that a considerable number of child workers are employed in agricultural and few in industrial sector.

The evil of employment of children in agriculture and industrial sectors in India is a product of economic, social and, among others, inadequate legislative measures. Social evil involved in the employment of children are widespread illiteracy resulting in lack of development of child's personality (which may continue even in his adult life), negligence and indifference of the society towards the question of child labour.<sup>vi</sup> There is also lack of proper appreciation on the part of parents as to how continuance of children in education would benefit their employment prospects and improve their standard of living.<sup>vii</sup> The economic problems involved in the employment of children are in no way less significant. The poverty resulting in inadequate family income and the desire to supplement compelled children to work. Indeed, the parents of low income group like artisans cannot afford to educate their wards even if education is free. For them an uneducated child is an asset; desire to be educated becomes a double liability because of:

- (a) loss of earning if the child did not work, and
- (b) expenditure on education howsoever small.<sup>viii</sup>

Thus the economic evils have not only deprived children at work from education but also led to high infant mortality, morbidity and malnutrition, particularly, in weaker sections of the society in urban area.<sup>ix</sup> The indifference of the legislator to provide adequate legislation to regulate the employment of children has failed to minimise the growth of child labour.

### **4. ABOLITION OF CHILD LABOUR: NOT PRACTICABLE**

Can the child labour be abolished? This issue may be answered in the negative, particularly in the present state of affairs where millions of families are below the poverty line and they have to deploy their children in the labour market in order to eke out a bare subsistence. In view of this the National Seminar on Employment of Children concluded.

Any legislation totally prohibiting child labour would virtually amount to inflicting on these children an unbearable suffering. Moreover, in the absence of possible alternatives, such a measure is likely to aggravate rather than mitigate their misery and hardships.<sup>x</sup> Thus the total eradication of child labour is neither feasible nor desirable in the foreseeable future unless basic human needs which includes food, shelter; clothing and educational facilities are provided to all people.

In order to meet the aforesaid situation policy should be framed both for the long run and short run. In the long term policy it is necessary to create conditions by providing proper climate and social security, educational training and other facilities in order to gradually eradicate child labour. In the short run it is necessary to eliminate and minimize the impact of adverse conditions<sup>xi</sup> affecting child labour, and to improve working condition of children. This can be done by regulating (i) hours of work, (ii) weekly holidays, (iii) leave, (iv) health, (v) safety, (vi) welfare and (vii) among others, social security.

## **5. SCOPE OF LEGISLATIVE PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILD LABOUR LIMITED**

In order to regulate the minimum age and working conditions of child labor the following legislations have been framed:

- (i) Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933;
- (ii) Employment of Children Act, 1938;
- (iii) Factories Act, 1948;
- (iv) Mines Act, 1952;
- (v) Plantation Labour Act, 1951;
- (vi) Merchant Shipping Act, 1961;
- (vii) Apprentices Act, 1961;
- (viii) Motor Transport Workers' Act, 1961;
- (ix) Atomic Energy Act, 1962;
- (x) Beedi and Cigar Workers' (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966;
- (xi) State Shops and Establishments Acts.

Quite apart from the aforesaid legislation the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 regulates the minimum wages of workers (including child labour).

However, the aforesaid legislation covers a very limited section of child labour. Thus the Factories Act, 1948 covers only the premises where manufacturing process is carried on and employing 10 or more workers where power is used and 20 or more workers where power is not used. Like the Factories Act, the scope of the Mines Act is also limited. Similarly, the Plantation Labour Act does not apply to plantations measuring less than 10.117 hectares. Likewise the Employment of Children Act does not apply in several establishments, Viz., building construction. But the Supreme Court in Peoples Union for Democratic Rights v. Union of India<sup>xiii</sup> found that it was hazardous work and it should be included under the Act. In response to the Supreme Court decision the Central Government issued a direction to the States to include building construction industry within its fold. Further, Merchant Shipping

Act does not bar employment of children (except trimmers and stokers) in home trade, ships of less than 200 ton gross, or in any other ship when the child is employed on nominal wages and in charge of his father or other adult make relatives.<sup>xiii</sup> Moreover, there is no law regulating employment of children in air transport, in land vessels and fishing vessels.<sup>xiv</sup>

However, there is no legislation (except those covered by the Plantation Labour Act and the Minimum Wages Act, 1948) which is applicable to child labour in agricultural and unorganized sectors which employ about 10 million i.e. 93% of the total child labour in terms of 1971 Census. Thus it is high time to have some legislation dealing with the child labour in such employment.

## **6. Problems of Child Labour**

### **6.1 Low Wages**

The main problem of child labour is that they are paid extremely low wages. These range from 0.50 paise to Rs.2.00 per day. Even judging by poorest standards of living, the wage is just not enough to provide even the subsistence living to the child. It, therefore, results in malnutrition on the one hand and hard physical labour on the other which subjects the child work to constant deterioration in terms of health and medical care and shortens his life span in the long run. It has a social dimension as well. Inadequate wages compel him to resort to social evil such as stealing, snatching and pick pocketing.

### **6.2. Long Working Hours**

The working hours of the child worker are unbelievably too long. He works for 12 to 16 hours a day. Before the affluent children are awake, the unfortunate child is at the workshop, sweeping, dusting and cleaning the shelves of his owner. He is to collect water for drinking, get cigarettes for his boss and obey all odd orders from his superior counterparts in the workshop. He is not even permitted a breathing space. He has no time to relax and replenish his energies or to have some recreation. He does not know the world beyond his routine.

### **6.3. Insecurity**

He is under constant threat and depression to lose his job. There is no law to protect him. There is no insurance, no provident fund and no pension for him. He is at the mercy of the unscrupulous master. He stays or goes according to whims and ways of his superior.

### **6.4. Loss of Talent:**

The more serious problem, in fact, is that child labour results in a considerable waste of national talent. Given the proper rear and care, education and training, who knows the child working in a workshop may have turned to be a great scientist, physician or a philosopher. Larger the extent of child labour, greater is the waste of national talents.

The other problem is with regard to the fixation of the minimum age of the child. Article 24 of the constitution prohibits the employment of children below the age of fourteen years in any factory, mine or in any other hazardous employment. "This is a constitutional prohibition which, even if not followed up by the appropriate legislation, must operate proprio vigore".<sup>xv</sup> Further, Article 24 is plainly and indubitably enforceable against everyone

and by reason of its compulsive mandate, no one can employ -a child below the age of 14 years in a hazardous employment.<sup>xvi</sup>

In order to fix the minimum age for employment of children different statutes prescribed different age. For instance, the Factories Act, 1948 prohibits the employment of children below fourteen years of age in factories.<sup>xvii</sup> The Mines Act prohibits not only the employment of any "child",<sup>xviii</sup> but even the presence of a child in any part of the mine which is below ground or in any open cast working in which any mining operation is carried on.<sup>xix</sup> The Plantation Labour Act prohibits the employment of children below twelve years of age in any plantation. Under Apprentices Act, 1961 no person shall be qualified for being engaged as an apprentice to undergo apprenticeship training in any designated trade unless he has completed fourteen years of age. Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966 prohibits employment of children below 14 years of age in any industrial premises. The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961 prohibits the employment of children in the motor transport undertakings, The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933 declares void en agreement to pledge the labour of children below 15 years by the parent or guardian of a child in return for any payment or bone fit. The Employment of Children Act, 1938 also prohibits the employment of children below the age of 14 in workshops. Thus, there is a variation in regard to the minimum age for employment of children.

#### **6.5. WORKING HOURS FOR CHILD LABOUR:**

A few surveys which have been undertaken to assess the working conditions of child labour reveal that the working hours of child labour are beyond human expectation. It is hard, cruel and inhuman even to hear of children working for sixteen hours in eighties in twentieth century. However, a recent I. L. O. Report submitted to the United Nations Sub-Commission for fight against discriminatory measures and the protection of minorities,<sup>xx</sup> has highlighted that "about 28,000 children, some of them only five years old, were working in match factories in India for 16 hours a day from three in the morning."<sup>xxi</sup> Similarly, NIPCCD study reveals that (i) "children worked for long hours of work and average was 8.86 hours per day."<sup>xxii</sup> Likewise, a survey of child labour in Bombay shows that "the restaurant children would wake up nearly 2 hours before sunrise, put fire to the oven, wash the utensils, cups and plates, sweep the floor and arrange the furniture. They would then associate themselves with the preparation of tea, snacks and other breakfast items. They would serve the customers and perform varieties of chores till 11.00 p.m."<sup>xxiii</sup> this is true in many other parts of India. Under the circumstances, State cannot remain a mere helpless spectator in this state of affairs.

In order to meet the aforesaid situation the Factories Act prescribed four and a half hours of work per day for children. The Mines Act also prescribed the same working hours for an adolescent who does not possess a certificate from a certifying surgeon. The Shops and Commercial Establishment Acts of various provinces also provide for different daily hours of work for young persons. The Plantation Labour Act, 1951 does not, however, prescribe any limitation on daily hours of work. While the Factories Act, 1948, the Mines Act, 1952, the Plantation Labour Act, 1951, the Employment of Children Act, 1938, the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1951, Beedi & Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966, and the States Shops & Commercial Establishments Acts prohibit the employment of

children and in some cases even of young persons, but the provisions vary in respect to age and the duration of night.<sup>xxiv</sup>

### **6.6. HOLIDAYS AND LEAVE :**

Every child worker is allowed a weekly holiday under the Factories Act,<sup>xxv</sup> Weekly Holidays Act,<sup>xxvi</sup> Mines Act, Motor Transport Workers Act,<sup>xxvii</sup> and Beedi Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act.<sup>xxviii</sup>

Most of the labour legislations provide for annual leave with wages for children. Under the Factories Act, 1948,<sup>xxix</sup> Plantation Labour Act, 1951,<sup>xxx</sup> the Motor Transport Workers' Act, 1961<sup>xxxi</sup> and the Beedi & Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966,<sup>xxxii</sup> a child worker who works for more than 240 days or more during a calendar year is entitled during the subsequent calendar year for leave with wages at the rate of one day for every fifteen days of work performed by him during the previous calendar year. The Shops and Commercial Establishments Act of various provinces also provide for different periods of earned leave in different States. The Mines Act does not make separate provisions for annual leave with wages for children. The reason is obvious. Only adolescents are allowed to work in mines and for the purpose of the Act they are deemed to be adults for which annual leave with wages have been provided in the Act.

### **6.7. HEALTH, SAFETY AND WELFARE:**

The Factories Act disallows the young person to clean, lubricate or adjust any "part of a prime-mover or of any transmission machinery while the prime-mover or transmission machinery is in motion or to clean, lubricate or adjust any part of any machine if it is likely to expose her or him to risk or injury from the part".<sup>xxxiii</sup> The Act further prohibits the employment of children in any part of a factory for pressing cotton where the cotton opener is at work. But, if the feed end of the cotton opener is in a room separated from the delivery and by a partition extending to the roof or to such a height as the inspector may in any particular case specify in writing, children may be employed on the side of the partition where feed end is situated.<sup>xxxiv</sup>

### **7. CONCLUSIONS & SUGGESTIONS:**

The problem of migrant child labour can hardly be solved by implementing the provision of The Convention of Child Rights and the Kerala State has to concentrate more on the incorporation of existing laws by raising the minimum age of child to 15 as suggested by Committee on Child Welfare. It is submitted that unless basic human needs are provided to all people which includes food, shelter, clothing, educational facilities, the root evil cannot be eradicated only by prohibiting employment of children raising minimum age of employment.

There is no uniformity in the labour legislation in regard to minimum age, working hours, holidays, leave and health, safety and welfare to child labour. They vary from Act to Act. Further, small industries do not have any provision to regulate working conditions and welfare of child labour. Furthermore, the definition of "Child" and "Young Person" is also not uniform in different legislations. Moreover, barring some provisions in Plantation Labour Act and the Minimum Wages Act, agricultural and unorganised sectors are without

any protection. Further, there is no labour legislation which seeks to regulate working hours or prohibition of work during night in domestic services, unorganised sectors and to casual labourers. In such employments working children must be prevented from exploitation, unregulated working hours and hazardous conditions of work. Under the circumstances it is suggested that there should be a comprehensive legislation including legislation for child labour employed in rural and unorganised sectors. However, in making such legislation it is necessary to keep in mind the practical difficulties and problems of enforcement.

Access to education and training is not only a basic human right, recognised in international instruments but is also a key factor for social progress .and in reducing a gap, between socio-economic groups. Denial of opportunity to the children which may be due to economic difficulties is of serious concern, and a way has to be found to. give the child the necessary education in his more receptive years.<sup>xxxv</sup> It is, therefore, necessary to implement the recommendations of the National Commission on Labour, namely, (i) that hours of work of child labour be fixed in a manner so as to enable them to attend to schooling<sup>xxxvi</sup> and (ii) where the number of children is adequate, the employers, with the assistance of State Governments, should make arrangements to combine work with education.<sup>xxxvii</sup>

The scope and coverage of the Factories Act is limited. It is, therefore, suggested that the Act should be amended to extend the provisions of the Factories. Act in all manufacturing processes which is incidental to or connected with a factory irrespective of the number of persons employed in regard to the employment of child labour.

The Mines Act unlike the Factories Act does not specifically provide for certificate of fitness in case of employment on the surface or above the ground for adolescent, i.e. person who has completed his 15 years. Thus, it impliedly permits employment of child, on the, surface of the mine, who has completed his fifteen but not, completed sixteen years without any medical certificate of fitness. It is suggested that Section 44 of the Mines Act should be amended so that adolescent is not employed unless he has been certified fit as an adult by certifying surgeon and carries a token to that effect while at work. Further, the scope of the Act should be widened.

The present penal provision in labour legislation relating to the violation of the provision of the Act including those relating to child is insufficient to deter the employer. In order to create a deterrent effect, it is desirable to prescribe severe penalties under the Factories Act, 1948, Plantation Labour Act, 1951 and Shops and Commercial Establishment Acts. Furthermore, deterrent punishment should be prescribed when the commission of the same offence is repeated.

Steps should be taken to strengthen the welfare measures, at least in organized sectors. There is a wide gap in the field of child welfare which has not been covered by legislative and administrative action. Welfare provisions for children should specifically be provided under labour legislation permitting the employment of children.

## **REFERENCES & CITATIONS:**

- 
- <sup>i</sup> Rupa Kaul: “Millions for Arms but Pittance for Children”, *Economic Times*, January 6, 1980, p.4. See also “World’s Working children need protection against Exploitation”, *Concern*, December, 1978.
- <sup>ii</sup> *The Statesman*, January 28, 1980, p.6
- <sup>iii</sup> *Economic Times*, November 23, 1975, 3.
- <sup>iv</sup> Sevanti Ninan: *Child Labour in India* (minmeographed), 1978-79, submitted to ILO, p.7.
- <sup>v</sup> See Rupa Kaul, op. cit., supra, note .1, pg.7.
- <sup>vi</sup> See *Child Labour in India* (Ed. M.K. Pandia), 1979, p.54.
- <sup>vii</sup> *Ibid*
- <sup>viii</sup> See the *Report of the National Commission on Labour*, 1969, p.386.
- <sup>ix</sup> See *Hindustan Times* dated 24.10.1980
- <sup>x</sup> *Supra*, note 3.
- <sup>xi</sup> See the recommendations of the National Seminar on Employment of Children (25-28 November, 1975, Delhi) quoted in *Child and the Law* (Ed. Pande), 1979, p.37
- <sup>xii</sup> (1982) 3 SCC 235.
- <sup>xiii</sup> S.N. Jain : “Preventive Legal Measures in the area of Child Labour”, *National Seminar of Child & Law*, National Institute of Public Cooperation, 1982, p.118.
- <sup>xiv</sup> *Ibid*.
- <sup>xv</sup> *People’s Union for Democratic Rights v. Union of India*, (1982) 3 SC 235.
- <sup>xvi</sup> *People’s Union for Democratic Rights v. Union of India*, (1982) 3 SCC 325, p. 463
- <sup>xvii</sup> S. 67
- <sup>xviii</sup> “Child” means a person who has not completed fifteen years.
- <sup>xix</sup> S. 45
- <sup>xx</sup> See Jain. S.N.: “Child Labour”, *JILI 1 et. Seq.* (1981)
- <sup>xxi</sup> *Ibid*
- <sup>xxii</sup> *Ibid*
- <sup>xxiii</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 127
- <sup>xxiv</sup> The prohibition in factories is from 10-00 p.m. to 6 a.m. for child between 14 & 17 years of age, in mines from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. both for adolescent. i.e. 15 years of age and also for persons between 16 and 18 years of age; in plantations between 6 p.m. to 7 a.m. for a person who has not completed 14 years, under the *Employment of Children Act*, from 10 p.m. to 7 a.m. for persons between 15 and 17 years; under the *Motor Transport Act*, between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. for persons who have completed 15 years but not 18 years; under *Reedi and Cigars Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act* from 7 p.m. to 6 a.m. to persons between 14 and 18 years and in *States Shops and Commercial Establishment* varying from 6 p.m. to 8 a.m.
- <sup>xxv</sup> S.71(3)
- <sup>xxvi</sup> S.4.
- <sup>xxvii</sup> S.19, 20
- <sup>xxviii</sup> S.21
- <sup>xxix</sup> S.79(1)

xxx S.30

xxxi S.27

xxxi S.26

xxxi S.22(2).

xxxi S. 27

xxxi Report of the National Commission of Labour, 1969, p. 387

xxxi Ibid

xxxi Ibid

## **BOOKS**

1. Awasthi.S.K.Dr, and Kataria.R.P., Law Relating to Human Rights, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edt , Orient Publishing Co, Reprint 2008.
2. Bhargava, “Guide to child Laws”, 3rd Edt, kamal publishers, 2013.
3. Child Laws containing Acts, Rules, Charter, Conventions & policies for Children & Juvenile Justice, Universal Law Publishing Co. Pvt.Ltd.
4. Kumar.H.L., labour Problems And Remedies, 12th Edt Universal Law publication, 2014.

## **Migrant Labour in Kerala: A Study on Interstate Migrant Workers**

**Mr. Arun P A<sup>1</sup> and Mr. Ajay P A<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Research Scholar, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay.

<sup>2</sup>Student at Faculty of Law, University of Delhi.

*arunpa061@gmail.com, athulyabharat@gmail.com*

### **Abstract**

**Kerala, a state of southern India is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in the recent years. Though initially the migrants were largely from the neighbouring states and mostly seasonal and short-duration migration, at a later period the state started getting migrants from far distant states. Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment, the reluctance on the part of Kerala workers to do menial and hard physical work, and shortage of local labour led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. This study takes a multi-dimensional overview of migrant labour in Kerala by encompassing the factors like channels of migration, reasons for migration, nature of employment contracts entered into and the corresponding wages and benefits obtained by them. The study is largely based on the empirical findings obtained as a result of the primary interviews conducted on migrant workers in the different districts of Kerala.**

**The study concludes by saying that the State will inevitably have to depend on migrant labour and is likely to experience heavy in-migration of labour in future, provided that if the existing socio-economic and demographic situation persists. Therefore, the best way before the state is to prepare well in advance to welcome and receive the migrant labour in a hassle free environment, so that it would definitely play a vital role in further strengthening and sustaining the growth trajectory of not only Kerala's economy but also of the states of origin of migrants.**

**Keywords: Labour, in-migration, migrant workers, employment, replacement migration, Kerala.**

### **Introduction**

An absolute static population exists nowhere in this world. The movement of people in search of better living conditions and a more secure environment is as old as human civilization. Such movements not only transform the lives of the migrants profoundly, but also lead to significant economic and social changes in the regions of origin and destination of the migrants. The expansion and developments in transport and communication along with industrialisation have paved way for large-scale movement of people from villages to towns, from towns to other towns and from one country to another country in search of new job opportunities and avenues. Industrialisation has widened the gap between rural and urban areas, inducing a shift of the workforce towards the industrializing areas.

In the past few decades, the world has witnessed an alarming increase in the number of migrants. Globalization has led to a significant increase in human mobility within and across the countries (IOM, 2013). As per the latest WHO reports it has been estimated that about 1

billion people of the world’s population are constituted by migrants, of which 214 million are international migrants and the remaining 740 million constituted by internal migrants<sup>1</sup>. Being a complex phenomenon, migration not only influences the size, composition and distribution of the population but more importantly impacts the social, cultural, political and economic life of the people and outcomes can be vastly different for men and women, for different groups and different locations (de Haan and Rogaly, 2002). So thus migration, be it internal or international in nature to some extent can solve issues related to work force deficiency or of problems related to population decline and ageing.

**Internal Migration in India**

Internal migration is considered as an important element of population redistribution and equilibrium. In developing countries, migration mostly takes place not due to the so called pull forces of the destination place as usually happens in the case of developed countries, but because of poverty, unemployment, natural calamities and underdevelopment at the origin place. According to Deshingkar and Anderson (2004), in countries like India migration is adopted as a routine livelihood strategy and not simply as a mere response to the shocks. Poverty and prosperity both are responsible for inducing migration. While the former is mostly true in developing countries, whereas the latter kind of migration is found in developed countries.

Migration in India is primarily of two types: (a) Long-term migration, resulting in the relocation of an individual or household and (b) short term or seasonal and circular migration, which is a peculiar feature of Indian labour migration which involves back and forth movement of between the source and destination. As pointed out by Srivastava & Sasikumar (2003), migration in India is predominantly short distance with around 60 per cent of migrants changing their residence within the district of enumeration and over 20 per cent within the state of enumeration, while the rest moves across the state boundaries. Estimates of short-term migrants vary from 15 million (NSSO 2007-08) to 100 million. Furthermore, studies have pointed that seasonal and circular migration is widespread especially among the socio-economically deprived groups such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other Backward Castes (OBCs), who are asset-poor and face resource and livelihood deficits (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009).

The data from the recently released provisional D5 table shows that in India the proportion of the migrant population has increased from 9.56 per cent in 2001 to 13.33 percent, which can be attributed to the increase in the female migration from 6.3 percent of 2001 to 8.64 per cent of 2011. During the same period, the proportion of male migrants witnessed a growth of 1.19 percentage i.e., from 3.2 per cent of 2001 to 4.69 per cent in 2011.

**Reasons for migration with duration 0-9 years, India 2011.**

Reasons for migration	Number of migrants (in millions)			Percentage to total migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Work/Employment	18.70	15.48	3.22	11.58	27.28	3.07
Business	13.14	9.55	3.58	0.81	1.68	0.34

Education	5.15	3.00	2.15	3.20	5.29	2.05
Marriage	60.18	1.49	58.69	37.28	2.63	56.07
Moved after birth	20.94	10.99	9.95	12.97	19.36	9.50
Moved with household	3.55	1.53	2.03	22.01	26.87	19.38
Other	1.96	0.96	1.00	12.15	16.89	9.59
Total migrants	<b>161.43</b>	<b>56.80</b>	<b>104.67</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: Provisional D5 Tables, Census of India, 2011.

On a careful analysis of the reasons for migration based on Provisional D5 tables of Census 2011, it is interesting to note that marriage continues to be the predominant reason for migration in India, constituting about 37.28 per cent of the total spectrum. When it comes to males, work/employment was quoted as the main reason for migration constituting about 27.28 per cent of the total and among females marriage was reported as the major reason, constituting about 56 per cent of the total. It is interesting to note the percentage of females migrating for educational purposes have increased from 1.3 percent (in 2001) to 2.05 per cent.

It can be seen that over past few decades, the migration patterns of the country has underwent rapid transformations along with the developments in transportation and telecommunication systems resulting in the formation of new migration corridors, areas of origin, destination etc.

In our country, the state of Kerala holds a unique place when it comes matters related to migration as Malayalees are known for their mobility nature not only within the country, but also across the borders. But the situations were much different about a century ago, when most of the Malayalees lead a contented life within state boundaries (Joseph V. K., 2001). But with the independence and due to the oil boom in the 1970s, Keralites started venturing out of the state boundaries in large numbers in search of better opportunities and livelihood options. The continuous emigration of labour culminated in the scarcity of labour, which was followed inevitably by increase in the wage rate. These developments received the attention of workers from other states and they started flocking Kerala in large numbers. This has opened a new era of replacement migration to Kerala as the state once again becoming a fertile ground for migrating population after a break of about 60 years since the 1960s. Though initially the migrants were primarily from the neighbouring state of Tamil Nadu and that mostly characterised seasonal and short-duration migration, at a later period the state started getting migrants from far distant states like Bihar, Assam and Bengal.

### **Objectives and Methodology**

The major objective of this study is to understand the circumstances that led to the large scale influx of migrants from the distant states of India. It also makes an attempt to examine in detail, the varying dimensions of living and working environment of migrants employed in Kerala. Thus, the stated objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To analyse the underlying factors responsible for the huge influx of migrants to Kerala.
2. To understand the channels of migration of the migrant labour to the state of Kerala.
3. To understand the nature of employment contracts entered into by the migrants and the corresponding remuneration/wages and benefits obtained by them.
4. To assess the living and working environment (conditions) of migrant workers.

The study is an exploratory attempt to understand the trends and patterns of in-migration taking place in the state of Kerala. This study is based on the empirical findings obtained through a primary survey conducted on migrant workers in Kerala. As a part of the study, 50 migrant workers were interviewed from the states of West Bengal, Assam, Odisha, Jharkhand, Manipur and Uttar Pradesh, employed in the districts of Palakkad, Malappuram and Ernakulam. The samples were selected on the basis of purposive sampling method, a type of non-probabilistic sampling technique which focuses on particular characteristics of a population that are of interest. Selection of samples was made in such a way that it may encompass maximum heterogeneity in terms of the socio-economic parameters, demographic features, the state of origin, nature of jobs, etc. Moreover, in order to make the extent of the study much wider and comprehensive, a series of interviews were conducted with key informants (individuals who work in tandem with migrant workers) such as labour contractors/ employers, head of the financial institutions like banks and local trade union leader in order to gather additional information about the migrants.

### **Findings based on Case Studies of Migrant Workers and Key Informant Interviews**

#### **1. Socio-Economic & Demographic Characteristics of Migrant Labour**

The study revealed that most of the migrant labour were from agrarian joint families owning considerable area of land under cultivation. Since, the margin of profitability from agriculture has declined over the years, hence the size of family engaged in such activities also got diminished, and that in fact triggered migration to other states in search of better employment prospects. All the migrant workers interviewed were males and have belonged to the productive age group of 18-35 years. The educational profile of the respondents ranged from individuals having no formal education to the highest qualification of class twelfth.

#### **2. Factors Responsible for Migration to Kerala**

Economic reasons were identified to be the main factors for their migration towards Kerala. Almost all cited the factors like comparatively low level of wages, lack of employment opportunities (or to a great extent, the erratic nature of employment), the increasing unviability and uncertainty of the agriculture sector coupled with its seasonal nature, prompted them to take the decision of migration to seek employment elsewhere. BA, a migrant worker from West Bengal while comparing his home state with Kerala, has full praise for the latter especially when it comes to wages. Working as a helper in the construction work, he earns ₹400- ₹450 per day which is much more than the erratic and less hours of labour available in his home state. Another labourer from Dibrugarh district of Assam cited that the cost of production in agriculture has gone up in recent years and according to him, because of this reason, agriculture is no longer a profitable source of

livelihood; these are stated to be one among several underlying factors that would have forced them to migrate to Kerala.

### **3. Channels of Migration**

There was a complete unanimity among the migrant workers while answering the question on channels of migration. All of them opined the role of either their friends or relatives or colleagues in bringing them to Kerala for employment. Many of these friends and relatives were already employed in Kerala and were highly aware of the existing opportunities and its associated benefits and privileges. In some cases, the indirect role of contractors/employers can also be taken into consideration, as they demand the migrant workers to bring their relatives and friends, whoever is willing in order to compensate the shortage of labour that keeps on fluctuating as per market conditions. This was quite evident at the time of investigation, as the migrant workers living in the same room were predominantly found to be hailing from the same state, district as well as same village. So, the role of friends and relatives are very much instrumental in directing a sizeable number of labour to the area of study in particular and to the state of Kerala in general.

### **4. Nature of Employment Contracts and Ensuring Identity of Migrants**

Most of the migrant workers employed in the construction sector were identified to be working under contractors. This is equally true, irrespective of whether they were engaged in skilled or unskilled labour. The advantage of working under the contractual system lies in the assurance of getting regular employment, so that the problem of unemployment doesn't arise. As a consequence, such labourers are able to get work throughout the week, or in some cases, if the worker is willing, they could get a day off. But the irony is that, no kind of formal (written) contract had been negotiated in between two parties as some of the workers were found to be working under the same contractor for a long time.

The study also made an attempt to understand how concerned are the contractors/employers in ensuring the identity of the migrant labours. In order to get rid of future mishappenings and unfortunate incidents (arising due to anonymity), the employers used to ensure the identity of the workers before employing them. In the words of Manager of a quarry, *“Since the number of migrant workers employed here are much larger, we are bound to ensure the identity of the migrants, as anonymity becomes a big factor in causing several problems. So, we follow the system of maintaining a register exclusively for recording the identification details of these people. It is mainly done through the verification of various identity cards issued by concerned authorities. As per my knowledge, this is of great use especially at the time of police verification”*.

### **5. Sectors of Employment and Associated Issues**

The study examined the sectors in which the migrant workers were employed and were found to be employed mainly as a manual labour in diverse sectors of construction, quarry, hotels and restaurants. There is no exaggeration in saying that the migrant labour has almost forayed into all sections of Kerala's economy. Construction sector, which is booming at its peak was identified to be the principle sector in which a major chunk of migrant population was employed.

There always prevails a sense of scepticism over the work efficiency and culture of migrant workers as compared to the local counterparts. For ascertaining the reality, I posed the same question to the Manager of the quarry. He replied *“It’s like the two sides of a coin – has both advantages and disadvantages. But the positives outscore the negatives while employing migrant workers and that’s why they are here……. ready to do work at cheap wages, easily available, flexibility in timings – even willing to work beyond conventional hours and also regularity in working. The biggest difficulty of employing local labour lies in their availability and once they are available, saying excuses for not attending the job is also so prevalent. In case of work efficiency, migrants are observed to be not at par with the local labourers as their work lacks quality and perfection. Only through regular training, we can make them highly efficient ………”*

When asked about in what way their advent affected the labour dynamics of the region, the trade union leader said that *“……. to a small extent, it made the local population unemployed as the employers were no longer willing to pay higher wages to the latter”*. The migrant labour was always subjected to some discrimination and exploitation especially in terms of wages. For the same kind and nature of work, the migrants were generally offered lower wages in comparison to local counterparts. Asked whether the migrants are aware of labour laws and rights, the answer came suddenly in the form of *“No……. not at all. They are not even united to redress their grievances and rights……”* They were also found to be completely oblivious of labour laws and privileges.

## **6. Wages, Remuneration and Other Benefits**

The study examined the wages, remuneration and other benefits earned by the migrant labourers in detail. This factor proved to be a major determinant in deciding the flow of these workers to Kerala. The wages are generally determined on the basis of nature and pattern of the work that the migrant workers are subjected to - a skilled labour is able to receive much higher wages than its unskilled counterpart. Among the workers we surveyed, the minimum and maximum daily wage offered were ₹300 and ₹800 respectively. Apart from wages, other benefits and emoluments include – in some cases, the rent of the accommodation as well as the expenditure towards food or the food itself was provided by the employer/contractor.

All the migrant workers who were interviewed is of the same opinion that the wage level in Kerala is quite higher than what they earn in their state of origin or expect to get anywhere else, even though it is lesser than what the local labourers get. GP, a quarry worker from Barpeta district of Assam is highly contented with what he earns now (of about ₹700 per day) and the happiness was truly reflected on his face at the time of interview.

## **7. Remittances by Migrant Workers – Amount, Mode and Periodicity**

The remittances sent by the migrant labour plays an inevitable role in determining the economic stability and in sustaining a better life of their family members. An analysis of information gathered from migrant workers revealed the universal acceptability of banking services among them in undertaking financial transactions. Banks are emerged to be the principle mode of sending their remittances back home. The Manager of the bank which I interviewed reiterated the role played by the banks in accommodating and meeting the financial needs of the migrant workers. Even though most of the surveyed workers still do

not have their own accounts, they used to deposit money in accounts of either their family members or friends. In order to avoid the loss of one day wage, there is a practice among the migrant workers to send one person, preferably their roommate to the bank for cash remittance by sharing wage compensation and other expenses. SN, a migrant labour hailing from the Murshidabad district of West Bengal expressed his disenchantment over the practice of depositing money in the bank – *“it’s a tedious task to stand in the queue and wait for a long time to pay the cash .....almost take one full day of us, loosing wages ..... Nowadays we assign one person for this, preferably one of our roommates to go to bank”*.

SM, 21 years old belonging to the Goalpara district of Assam became very excited when he talked about the new mode of cash remittance. According to him–*“ Now we are using the Green Remit Card of State Bank of India for sending our money back home ..... this makes the transaction much more easier and comfortable”*.

The periodicity of remittances varies from one worker to another, but usually it ranges from once in a week to twice in a month to monthly. Based on the frequency of cash deposit, the average amount deposited at a time also varies from ₹3000-₹3500 per week to ₹8000 in a month. Some of the migrants held the practice of sending money as per the requirements and needs of the family; any way it never exceeds the timeframe of a month. The Manager held the view that most of the remittances deposited in the account are not meant for saving, instead it was withdrawn at the earliest, say within a week, for meeting the family expenses. After a week, nothing was observed to be left in the account. *“Out of 10 migrants, to a maximum of 3 would have something left in their accounts as savings”*- says the Manager. This amply shows the pathetic financial condition of migrant workers coming from other states.

## **8. Living and Working Environment of Migrant Workers**

Most of the migrant workers being interviewed are staying in small rooms which are highly congested. A single room is usually shared by 5 to 6 persons and in some cases more individuals are accommodated. Most of the dwelling places didn’t have enough provisions for meeting the basic necessities of such a large number of residents such as separate kitchens, toilets etc. Toilets are common in nature and that seemed to be quite insufficient for the existing large number of migrant labourers staying in a single building. Predominantly, the food was prepared within the room itself, whereas during the working days, the employer used to provide food twice a day at the work site. The rooms were not having any furnitures like cots, chairs etc. and the migrants normally sleep on the floor. The hygiene around some settlements were pathetic and the premises were visibly littered with waste. In one case, we found the cooking being done in the open, as the building in which the migrants lived was in total dilapidated condition with no electricity, water and toilet facilities.

## **9. The Migrants and the Local Community**

The migrant population has already become a decisive force to reckon with in influencing the social and cultural spheres of Kerala. It has become a well-known fact that their presence has almost percolated into all walks of economic activity of the state, which can neither be denied nor discarded.

When enquired about the kind of problems encountered by workers during the course of their stay over in Kerala, all of them were equally identical in saying ‘no problem’ without any hesitation. But it is totally difficult to believe such a liberal answer, as there exists a deep ambivalence in the way both the society and the government looks at them. What makes them to answer in such a manner was perhaps the inherent fear among them to not invite the wrath of the local population. They were highly - aware of the reality that the local population always consider them as second tier citizens or as workers from an ‘alien’ state.

SH, a migrant labour from West Bengal to a question on whether he is facing any kind of problems (social and cultural) in Kerala, he replied that “*Kerala is one of the finest places to work in which there persists ample scope for leading a peaceful, serene, calm and composed life immersed in common brotherhood, religious tolerance and secular outlook. Even though unfamiliar language continues to be a major problem (during conversations), it doesn’t stand as a stumbling block in establishing a good rapport with the local population*”.

*“The factors of language barrier, temporary nature of their stay within the state and the floating nature of migrants continued to be the major barriers in reaching out to labour migrant population”*, said the leader to a question on the intervention of union in the affairs of migrant population. As a result of this, the union failed to create an impact on their living and working conditions as well as unifying them as in the case of local community.

All of them held the opinion that their rapport with the local community was good and should not hold any outstanding issues with them. The only barrier comes in the form of language, that makes the communication little bit difficult. Some of them can speak Malayalam words of frequent usage which was observed during the field work. They have a great regard for Keralites, and according to them, Kerala is the best place to work in and earn a source of livelihood.

### **Conclusion**

In the light of ongoing structural changes in the country and consequently changing contours of the economy coupled with fluctuating market conditions, the nature and pattern of migration has also undergone apparent changes over the years. This has been truly reflected and observed in the case of migration pattern of Kerala in which the continuous and steady outflow since 1970s has now been compensated by the new phenomenon of replacement migration especially the labour in-migration. This study which examined the multidimensional characteristics of migrant workers employed in Kerala from the other Indian states portrayed the harsh realities and facts behind their migration along with emerging challenges, which needs to be addressed comprehensively at the earliest.

The studies on Kerala’s demographic future conducted by several institutions in the past two decades have predicted, among other things, significant changes in the age structure, including a decrease in proportion of the labour force in about two decades from 2001, decline in young working age population, a doubling of older working age population in two decades ending in 2021, and more unemployment among the older age groups than among the youth in the foreseeable future. So, in the near future, a very explosive demographic situation will emerge in Kerala, where a major chunk of the host population will belong to the older age groups while the migrant population will dominate the other segment of the population that is young and working.

No doubt, the state has now become a thriving job market for workers hailing from other regions in the country, owing to multiple factors discussed earlier and it continues to do so in the ensuing period. Kerala will inevitably have to depend on migrant labour and is likely to experience heavy in-migration of labour even from other regions of India which is not so prevalent nowadays, provided that if the existing socio-economic and demographic situation persists. Since, this is inevitable, the only best way before the state is to prepare well in advance to receive and accommodate such migrant labour to lead a comfortable life in a hassle free environment, so that it would definitely play a vital role in further strengthening and sustaining the growth trajectory of not only Kerala's economy but also the states of origin.

## References

1. de Haans, A. and Rogaly, B. (2002). Introduction: Migrant Workers and their Role in Rural Change. *Journal of Development Studies*, 37(5), 1-47.
2. Deshingkar, P. and Akter, S. (2009). *Migration and Human Development in India*. UNDP (Human Development Research Paper, 2009/13). Available from [http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdrp\\_2009\\_13.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdrp_2009_13.pdf)
3. Deshingkar, P. and Anderson, S. (2004). *Voluntary Internal Migration: An Update*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
4. International Organisation for Migration. (2013). *World Migration Report 2013: Migrant Well-being and Development*. Geneva: International Organisation for Migration. Available from: [https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr2013\\_en.pdf](https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr2013_en.pdf).
5. Joseph, V. K. (2001). Factors and Patterns of Migration: The Kerala Experience. *Journal of Indian School of Political Economy*, 13(1), 55–72.
6. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner. (2011). India: Provisional D-5 Migration Table. New Delhi: Government of India. Available from <http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011census/2011-D05-00-Prov.xls>
7. National Sample Survey Office (2010). *Migration in India 2007–08*, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, New Delhi: Government of India.
8. Srivastava, R. and Sasikumar, S. (2003). An Overview of Migration in India, its Impacts and Key Issues. *Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor in Asia*. Dhaka: Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Unit. Retrieved on June 10, 2015 from [http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0903/Dhaka\\_CP\\_2.pdf](http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0903/Dhaka_CP_2.pdf)

---

<sup>1</sup>Retrieved on April 10<sup>th</sup>, 2016 from [http://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/health\\_of\\_migrants/en/](http://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/health_of_migrants/en/)

## CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE MIGRANTS OF KERALA

SHYLA HAMEED

*Assistant Professor, Department Of Economics, Mes College, Nedumkadam., Idukki.  
shylaishan@gmail.com*

### Abstract

There are both economic and social imbalances among states in India and this leads to internal migration in general. High literacy rates, better education and lack of professional and skilled jobs had prompted Keralites to look for higher wages and skilled labour outside India. This trend has led to a decline in the availability of workforce in Kerala especially in unskilled jobs. Kerala has the lowest population growth rate in the country and is set to become the first state with zero population growth rates or with a negative growth rate. The structure of Kerala economy has change from one dominated by agriculture to one dominated by services sector. This is primarily due to growth of both public and private services necessitated by increased demand due to the high remittances from abroad. The manufacturing sector is no longer attractive to the entrepreneurial class in Kerala and much investment has taken its course to the service sector which is not governed by strict labour laws. The State does not produce many things it should have and nature and quantity of labour demanded and supplied. For instance there is labour shortage for traditional agriculture purposes or for manual work as well as for trained and skilled personnel in emerging areas of employment. Due to this acute shortage of manpower, in the farm and construction sector over the recent years, has encouraged migration of casual workers from other states of India. Migration in general, internal or inter-state, migration of labour is an age-old phenomenon in India. The people compelled to migrant due to two factors-development; driven factors and distress factors. On one hand, the migration of people is mainly motivated by the desire to access better employment opportunities, higher wages, good quality education, health condition and better living conditions. While on the other hand, it is also impelled by push or distress factors at home such as the lack of employment, low wage rates, agriculture failure, debt, drought and natural calamities. Both these reasons are equally responsible for migration of casual workers to Kerala has thus lost reasonably stable and secure jobs which come from the manufacturing sector. Consequently there has occurred a structural imbalance in the labour market of kerala.

**Key Words:** internal migration, remittance.

### INTRODUCTION

Today, the presence of migrant workers in Kerala's labour market is so visible that language spoken in many of the large-scale construction sites is often not Malayalam, but Tamil, Hindi, Bengali, Assamese or Nepali. Initially migrant workers in Kerala were from the neighbouring districts of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka, and they were mostly seasonal and short-duration (especially daily, weekly and monthly) migration. However, in recent years Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant worker from different states of the country, such as Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa. As per the Census 2001, total

number of migrants (by place of birth) from other states in Kerala recorded at 412849, which is 1.3 percent of Kerala's total population. The largest number of migrants in Kerala is from Tamil Nadu (67.8 percent) followed by Karnataka (13.49 percent), Maharashtra (4.47 percent), Andhra Pradesh (2.29 percent), Pondicherry (2.12 percent), Uttar Pradesh (1.43 percent) and West Bengal (1.03percent). Among the districts of Kerala, Ernakulam district received the highest inflow of migrants (13.56 percent), followed by Idukki (12.85 percent) and Trivandrum (11.77 percent) (Surabhi and Kumar, 2007).

### **Reasons of Migration to Kerala**

Several overlapping factors have been identified behind migration of the workers. The major reasons of migration are the poor economic condition and low wages in native region. About 76 percent migrants reported the reason of migration as getting employment/better employment, another 46 percent reported as meeting household expenditure and 33.73percent reported as accumulation of savings. The other reasons reported by the migrants are to repay debts, financing education of dependents and marriage of dependents. This suggests that migration is possibly for the creation of outside support system for livelihood. Further, dominance of economic reasons also suggests that it is primarily the differences in economic opportunities between different states that pushed for migration of workers to other states.

### **Theoretical analysis**

According to a study , Kerala is not able to create enough jobs suitable for an increasingly larger number of youngsters with high levels of education. Although lack of jobs was the main reason for migration of Keralites till 2000 , the notion of higher wages abroad have become an addictive trend among Keralites even though currently the wages obtained in Kerala has become similar to those obtained abroad in many cases. Besides, the glamour associated with Gulf emigration is still very strong among the Kerala youngsters. This is an important positive factor in their decision to emigrate instead of working in the state.

According to a 2013 study conducted by Mr. M. P. Joseph IAS (R), Dr. D. Narayana and Dr. C. S. Venkiteswaran on behalf of the Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation for the Department of Labour and Skills of the Government of Kerala, there are over 25 lakh (2.5 million) domestic migrant labourers in Kerala from other states of India, as well as from Bangladesh and Nepal , in 2016 this figure stood over 40 lakhs (4 million) with an annual arrival rate of 2.35 lakhs with a sum of Rs 25,000 crores going outside the state each year as wages to the migrant workers. According to official estimates, the expatriate Malayali population earns in excess of Rs. 75,000 crore annually. The number of migrant workers in Kerala is much larger compared to only 16 lakh (1.6 million) keralites working outside India .In 2013, the number of migrant workers in Kerala was almost one-tenth of that of the local population which was about 33 million in 2011. It is estimated to rise as high as 48 lakhs(4.8 million) by 2023 despite the decline of migration of keralites to other countries for lucrative jobs. Besides, within 10 years, the majority of the local population would have aged above 40 years and this could lead to a further increase of migration from other states. In many cases, the high linguistic, social and cultural differences of Kerala and these other states and the large distance makes it similar to international migration rather than internal migration.

### **Push and pull factors for attracting migrants to Kerala.**

According to Dr. Manav Paul, there are push and pull factors attracting migrants to Kerala. The push factors like poverty, unemployment, density of population, bad yield from agriculture, low demand for labourers and other factors like raising up families, lack of civil activities in the residential area, disasters, wars, internal fights on basis of caste, creed, race affect the flow of migrants to Kerala. Adding to this, the pull factors like better employment opportunities, standard of life in Kerala, high wages compared to other states, lesser communal clashes, high health indices, provision of education for children attract migrants to Kerala.

### **Wages**

The high minimum wages with comparatively better living conditions in Kerala even in the villages are often the motivating factor for migrant workers from other states as the wages are often double or even more than three times of the wages obtained in other major cities in India with higher living costs. For agricultural work like ploughing and tilling, the average daily wage in Kerala was more than Rs 713, followed by Tamil Nadu at Rs 515. The lowest wage being paid in the country was Rs 187. States like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat and Odisha paid wages in the vicinity of Rs 200. The wages for non-agricultural work is also much higher in Kerala. Carpenters and plumbers get wages which are two times the national wage average for their profession. The data shows that while the average wage ranges between Rs 200 and Rs 300 for different professions in states across the country, Kerala does not pay below Rs 600 for any job. It is even said that a migrant labourer from Bihar, who would get Rs 40 at his native place, makes a minimum of Rs 600 in Kerala. However, Keralite workers are paid even higher amounts and so, most of the times the local residents prefer the migrant workers because of the comparatively cheaper labour. Even though the wages for labour are high, the cost of living in the state is the same or even lower than in many other parts of the country. Over 70 per cent of them earn wages above Rs.300 per day. On an average, they remit Rs.70000 per person annually and the remittances are almost entirely through banking channels.

However, according to the last NSSO Survey (2011-2012), in the category of major states, Kerala has the highest Unemployment Rate (UR). Kerala's unemployment level is at 7.4% , while in other states it is below 4%. Even though the rate has declined over the years, a whopping 50 lakh (5 million) people are estimated to be unemployed in the state. The unemployment rate is lowest in Gujarat, at 0.5 per cent. However, Gujarat is a low paying state on daily wages. Reading the two reports together, one can infer that while migrant labourers are attracted by the high daily wages, the natives are not opting for these jobs. Literacy and higher levels of education too has contributed to this.

### **Demographics**

The authorities find it difficult to get an exact number since thousands of migrants are said to move through the state from one part to another every day and at least 1500 new migrants reach the state every week. According to the 2013 study, which was based on a Survey of the Domestic Migrant Labour coming into and leaving the Kerala, the remittances of migrant workers in Kerala to their home states are over Rs. 17,500 crores which is equivalent to 4 per cent of Kerala's gross domestic product. To put this in perspective; while the total

remittances to Kerala from Keralites abroad, including in the Middle east countries from Apr 2013-Mar2014 were Rs 72,680 crores, the amount of household remittances to Kerala from its citizens abroad during Apr-March 2014 was only Rs 15,129 crores which is lesser than the amount which the migrant labourers in Kerala send to their home states.

The Migrant workers is a work force consisting almost entirely of single males aged between 18 and 35 years and is highly mobile within Kerala. As per a 2013 study commissioned by the government, every fourth male between the ages of 20 and 64 in the state is likely to be a migrant. Whereas 60 per cent of them work in the construction sector, they also work in the hospitality, manufacturing, trade and agriculture sectors. Their skills range from unskilled to skilled carpenters, masons, electricians and the like. Around 30,000 migrants have settled down permanently at Kozhikode and Thiruvananthapuram. Migrants now make around 65% of several private enterprises. In industries such as cashew, hotels, brick kilns, construction, quarries and fishing their daily wages range from Rs.400 to Rs.900.

Traditionally, the largest number of migrant workers in Kerala used to come from Tamil Nadu with many Tamil colonies existing in Kerala and many of them having been integrated with the locals in Kerala. Although a few studies say that labourers from neighbouring states like Tamil Nadu far outnumber the others, the cultural similarities with Kerala makes them well integrated with the local population. Even though there are still a large number of workers from Tamil Nadu and Karnataka, the trend in replacement labour seems to have reversed as according to the survey in 2013, 75 per cent of the migrant workers come from five states, namely West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Uttar Pradesh and Odisha. A large number consist of workers from Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Haryana, Uttarakhand and Manipur as well. The languages seems to have found ground in Kerala with many shops advertising themselves also in hindi and instances of local transport buses displaying destination names in Bengali and even Oriya .In Perumbavoor, one of the towns with the largest migrant population in the state(over 100,000 migrants), there are Bengali hotels, churches with gospels in Oriya and Imams from Bengal and Odisha who give their speeches in their respective languages, theatres playing Bengali, Assamese and Oriya movies as well as a Gandhi Bazaar and a Bhai Bazaar. According to S Irudaya Rajan, a professor and expert on migration studies at Thiruvananthapuram's Centre for Development Studies (CDS) , Kerala is a field to watch out how migration, ageing and demographics change the landscape .

## **1. Issues and Challenges**

Initially the tamil population used to migrate in large numbers to Kerala but appropriate action by the Tamilnadu government in providing welfare schemes has called many of them back. Tamils were generally accepted because of the cultural similarities. But migrants from other states often find it difficult to integrate due to large differences in culture, food habits, language and lifestyle.

## **2. Illegal Migrants**

The government is taking steps following the concern about public hygiene and the scare of insurgents and illegal migrants finding their way into the state.

### **3. Bangladeshi Migrants**

Illegal migrants from the neighbouring country of Bangladesh have also been arrested in many cases where the migrants, come under the pretext of being from West Bengal or Assam and as citizens of India. It is estimated that a large number of Bangladeshi illegal immigrants live in Kerala under the pretext of being from West Bengal and the Kerala police has been finding difficult to identify as they often mingle with migrants from other states and disappear into the crowd. It is estimated that about 20 million (2 crore) citizens of Bangladesh have crossed into India illegally in the last two decades alone. and had even led to events like Assam Movement. In Kerala, this migration happens due to the high wages, quality living conditions but also due to the sizable minority population in the state. Anti national activities have been reported; the latest in which in August 2016, a native of west Bengal was arrested for insulting the national flag and he was later found to be an illegal immigrant from Bangladesh. There is said to be major racket at the borders of West Bengal and Assam with Bangladesh which provides illegal migrants with identity cards.

### **4. Education**

Majority of the migrant workers do not have any special skill, while the state's construction, hospitality and retail sectors among other areas demand skilled work force. The unskilled migrant workers are unable to fill the skill gap. Skill development institutes are proposed to be setup in the state. The poor enrollment of children from migrant families in schools is also a concern in the state historically boasting of the highest literacy rate in the country.

### **5. Health and Social status**

A study conducted in 2013 by the Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation for the Kerala government has recommended that the government take steps to improve their housing and living conditions. Registration on arrival is also proposed. The report also suggests that the migrant labourers be brought under the ambit of Rashtriya Swasth Bhima Yojana

There have also been concerns about the working conditions and long working hours of migrant labourers, this issue came to the forefront in regard to the plywood industry in Perumbavoor. Introduction of health cards were also proposed due to finding diseases in migrant workers which were eradicated by the state and because of the introduction of new diseases and a proposal to screen all the workers is being made under the "Safe Kerala" campaign.

### **6. Begging and human trafficking**

Kerala has the lowest proportion of homeless in india. Once a rare sight, begging on the streets is on the rise. There also have been reports of child trafficking on the rise with many street children in Kerala from other states. Although Kerala does not have major industries with scope for potential child labour, small-scale industries, particularly based in cottages and quarters, are stealthily engaging children.

### **7. Crime**

The rising rates of crimes with many of them attributed to the growing number of migrant workers have made their acceptance into the local community harder. Perumbavoor and its

adjoining areas in the Ernakulam rural area with the largest concentration of migrant workers in the state has earned itself a prominent place in the state crime map. During the last five years, 1,770 cases registered in the state in which migrants were accused. Drug trafficking, fake currency, robbery are the major cases involving migrants, while there were brutal murder cases also in which migrants were involved. In an analysis, out of 38 cases of murder reported in Perumbavoor area which has one of the largest number of migrant in the state in the last 5 years, 32 had links to migrant labourers and such a trend is observed in other parts of the state as well with only a few arrests made as the accused often flee the state. 323 cases of crime are registered relating to migrant labour in the Ernakulam rural area alone in the last five years.

The local respondents reported that no doubt the migrant labourers were advantageous but at the same time they were also responsible for causing a number of problems such as environmental, health, social, psychological and economic. During the data collection, local respondents also held that migrant labourers were responsible for increasing evils like drug addiction, rape cases and alcoholism and as a result the local youth is getting addicted to these evils. In spite of all these problems and evils, the general impression of the local respondents was favourable towards the migrant labourers. A majority (58 percent) of the local respondents had supported the fact that migrant labourers should be allowed to migrate in Kerala as the industrial, agricultural, construction and household work were being done by such labourers.

**Welfare Schemes are necessary for improving the conditions of migrant people of kerala.**

## **8. Education**

The Kerala government is considering the development of a Skill Development Institute for migrant workers. It has already established Indian Institute of Infrastructure and Construction in Kollam city and new centres of Kerala Academy of Skills Excellence (KASE) will be opened soon in other districts. Although a large number of the children of migrant workers are enrolled in government schools, the state education department has opened schools for the children of migrant workers under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. Region specific teaching curriculum has to be often adopted as the origin and languages of migrants always differ.

## **9. Health and Social security**

Kerala is the first State in the country to enact a social security scheme for the migrant workers and the State is the first to provide benefits to the job-seekers from outside with the kerala migrant workers welfare scheme set up in 2010. The police has started audit of migrant workers in cities like Ernakulam through which biometric details have been captured and ID cards issued. In 2016, a new insurance scheme called Awas was launched to provide social security to the migrant workers and also to act as their database and registry as the crimes involving migrant workers are also rising along with the population.

## Conclusion

Migrating for work is an historical source of livelihood for many regional households and migrant labour is an important source of labour for many sectors including agriculture. West Bengal and Assam dominated the sources of migration to Kerala. Kerala economy faces the existing agriculture and construction sectors is mostly dependent on migrant labours .

Kerala currently offers free health care for all the migrant workers and is planning legislation to address the migrant labourers issue with the "The Kerala Migrant Workers Social Security Bill". The first official labour camp will also be opened for workers from the North and North eastern parts of the country in the Palakkad district which would accommodate about 1500 workers and camps will be established in all other districts in the next phase. The department also plans to start kiosks and call centres with people proficient in Hindi as staff to interact and understand the problems of the labourers. Migrant Suraksha Project is being implemented across the State under the aegis of the Kerala State Aids Control Society among migrant labourers since 2009 mainly to detect HIV+ cases among them and to create awareness and health cards also have been issued to the labourers. Many private foundations have their own 'migrant suraksha projects' and even free medical camps which aims to improve the life of migrants working in the state. Exclusive grama sabhas or village councils are planned for the migrant labourers to identify their issues and find solutions. New initiatives like total literacy programmes and health campaign for migrants also introduced recently.

## References

- 10.Kannan, K.P. and Hari, K.S. (2002). Kerala's Gulf Connection: Emigration, Remittances and their Macroeconomic Impact 1972–2000. Working Paper No. 328, Centre for Socioeconomic & Environmental Studies (CSES), Kerala.
- 11.their Macroeconomic Impact 1972–2000. Working Paper No. 328, Centre for Socioeconomic & Environmental Studies (CSES), Kerala.
- 12.& Environmental Studies (CSES), Kerala.
- 13.Rajan, S.I. and James, K.S. (2007). Demographic transition and economic development in Kerala: The role of emigration. South Asia Network of Economic Research Initiatives, retrieved from <http://saneinetwork.net/Files/3.pdf>.
- 14.Kerala: The role of emigration. South Asia Network of Economic Research Initiatives, retrieved from <http://saneinetwork.net/Files/3.pdf>.
- 15.Surabhi, K.S. and Kumar, N.A. (2007). Labour Migration to Kerala: A Study of Tamil Migrant Labourers in Kochi. Working Paper No.16, Centre for Socio-economic & Environmental Studies (CSES), Kerala.
- 16.Zachariah, K.C. and Rajan, S.I. (2004). Gulf Revisited - Economic Consequences of Emigration from Kerala. Working Paper 363, Centre for Development Studies, Trivandrum.
- 17.Zachariah, K.C. and Rajan, S.I. (2007). Migration, Remittances and Employment: Short-term Trends and Long-term Implications. Working Paper 395, Centre for Development Studies, Trivandrum.
- 18.Zachariah, K.C. and Rajan, S.I. (2008). Kerala Migration Survey 2007. Centre for Development Studies, Trivandrum.
- 19.Bhalla, Sheila (1993): "Tests of some propositions about the Dynamics of Changes in the Rural Workforce Structure", The Indian Journal of Labour Economics. Vol.XXXVI, No.3.pp 428-439

20. Bhalla, Sheila (1997): "The rise and fall of workforce diversification process in rural India", in(eds) G.K.Chadha and Alak.N.Sharma, Growth, Employment and poverty: Change and continuity in Rural India, Indian Society of Labour Economics, Vikas Publishing House Pvt.Ltd., New Delhi.
21. Eapen, Mridul (1994): "Rural Non-agricultural Employment in Kerala: Some Emerging Tendencies", Economic and political Weekly, Vol XXIX, No 21 pp 1285- 1296
23. Director of Census Operations, Kerala (2001): Census of India, 2001, Series 33, Kerala, Paper 3 of 2001, Distribution of Workers ,Thiruvananthapuram.
24. Baby, A.A. (1986), Trends in Agricultural Wages in Kerala, M. Phil. Dissertation, submitted to JNU, Centre for Development Studies Thiruvananthapuram.

# A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS IN KERALA

**Indira Aiyavoo**

*Assistant Professor, SRM University, Chennai.  
aindra\_2004@yahoo.com*

## **Abstract**

Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in recent years. Though labourers from states as far as Maharashtra, West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa now flock to Kerala, those from the neighbouring state of Tamilnadu outnumber others by a big margin. Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment and shortage of local labour, paradoxically despite the high unemployment rate in the state, led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. Poor economic conditions in the native place and high wage rate and better employment opportunities been identified as the main reasons of migration to Kerala. Notwithstanding the improved income level the living condition for most migrant workers is deplorable, most of them live together in either poor rented houses or work sites with one room shared by many, without proper provision of hygienic sanitation. This paper explores the socio-economic conditions of migrants using the secondary sources from various research papers and Census of India report 2001 and 2011 data.

**KEYWORDS:** Internal migration, employment and unemployment.

## **Introduction**

India has been characterized by (Davis 1951) relatively immobile society. Yet, even by conservative estimates, three out of every ten Indians are internal migrants. And, as we discuss in this paper, there are many more that are uncounted and invisible. Structurally, in the last two decades or so, capital has become hugely more mobile than earlier. The verdict on whether labour too has become more mobile is still not out, although many would argue that population and workers have also become somewhat more mobile than before, both nationally and internationally.

Migration is a form of mobility in which people change their residential location across defined administrative boundaries for a variety of reasons, which may be involuntary or voluntary, or a mixture of both. The decisions on whether to move, how, and where are complex and could involve a variety of actors in different ways.

In recent years, several changes in India are likely to have impacted on the pattern and pace of migration. The pattern of growth in the last two decades has steadily widened the gap between agriculture and non-agriculture and between rural and urban areas, and it has steadily concentrated in a few areas and a few states. The growing spatial inequalities in

economic opportunities must have necessarily also impacted on the pace and pattern of migration. Uneven growth and a growing differential between agriculture and industry is a necessary concomitant of the pattern of development. Migration has historically played a role in reducing the gap in living standards between sectors and areas and in fuelling growth in the more dynamic sectors. The crucial question is whether, and to what extent, migration has been able to play this role in the Indian context.

Since migration is diverse, attention has generally been focused on different groups of internal migrants, and a great deal of analysis has focused on the poorest segments, for whom both the costs and benefits could potentially be the highest. Changes in several factors in recent decades have impacted on migrant labour markets and on migration, but many of these have not been yet studied in detail. There has been a significant improvement in road infrastructure and telecommunications, which has also been accompanied by declining real costs of transport and communication. This has led to improved information flows, potentially reducing information asymmetries and isolation for the migrant, and a reduction both in the costs of migration and in the speed at which migrants can move from origin to destination. Improved infrastructure and reduced transport costs have also made daily commuting to work (sometimes over several hundred kilometres) a viable option to migration.

The pattern of growth under globalization has led to changes in the pattern of demand for workers and consequent changes in labour market structure. First, there has been an overall growth in certain sectors, and this has generated a certain type of demand for workers. Second, the premium which employers place on flexible labour and reducing labour costs appears to them to be higher than the gains that could accrue to them from a dedicated and long-term labour force.

There is, as a result, a ‘race to the bottom’ and an increase in informal employment. Correspondingly, there are also supply-side changes owing to changing social structure and a slow accretion of literacy and education in the workforce.

Further, the impetus to make cities attractive for global finance has also exacerbated the exclusionary nature of urban policies, deterring migration by the poor and increasing its costs.

Finally, social prejudices and political mobilization based on theories of ‘sons of the soil’ not only persist, but may have grown stronger in recent decades, at least in some states, outweighing the advantages which migrants could potentially reap from higher density of social networks.

### **Internal Migration in India: Conceptual and Data Issues**

Data on internal migration in India is principally drawn from two main sources – the decennial population Census and the quennial migration surveys carried out by the National Sample Survey Office. Both these sources provide a wealth of data on migration. The Census defines a migrant as a person residing in a place other than his/her place of birth (Place of Birth definition) or one who has changed his/her usual place of residence to another place (change in usual place of residence or UPR definition). The NSS confines itself to the UPR definition.

In both the surveys, a resident is defined as one who has been staying in a location for six months or more (except newly born infants). The Census collects data on the age and sex of the migrant, reason for migration, its duration, place of origin, and the industry and occupation of the migrant; the results are available up to the district level. The NSS also collects additional data on items such as the consumption expenditure of the migrant's household, educational attainment, activity, industry and occupation of the household at the place of origin, as well as remittances. Since NSS data are available at household and individual levels, it can also be cross-classified and analyzed in detail. But the NSS underestimates population and may not be as reliable a source for aggregate migration as the Census. However, at present, Census results for migration are available only till 2001, whereas NSS results are available till 2007–2008, hence much of our comparison is based on NSS results.

Migration can result in the permanent relocation of an individual or household, which we may term permanent migration. But if individuals migrate leaving their families and land and property in the area of origin, they may do so with the intention of reverting back to the area of origin. This is more likely to happen if the individuals have precarious jobs in the destination areas or if the cost of permanent relocation is high relative to its benefits. In such a case, although individuals may find a toehold in the destination areas, we may term such migration as semi-permanent or long-term circular. If individuals, or groups of individuals, migrate for temporary periods, either moving from place to place or to a fixed destination, such migrants are seasonal or circular migrants. Usually, these three types of migrants have different modal characteristics.

One of the main lacunae of both the Census and NSS surveys is their failure to adequately capture seasonal and/or short-term circular migration, and their coverage is best for permanent migrants and reasonably adequate for semi-permanent migrants. However, while the Census confines itself to only one definition of a migrant, the NSS has tried to collect information on migration flows from different perspectives. The 64th Round of the NSS, which is the recent and most comprehensive round on migration, collects data on,

- (i) migrants using the UPR (usual place of residence) approach;
- (ii) migrant households;
- (iii) out-migrating individuals;
- (iv) seasonal or short-duration migrants, that is, those who have migrated out for a period of more than one month but not exceeding six months, for development; and
- (v) return migrants. However, except in the case of UPR migrants, strictly comparable estimates are not available from the earlier rounds.

Despite improvement in coverage of seasonal/circular migrants, NSS estimates are still inadequate for such migrants for two major reasons. First, in many cases, the seasonal/circular migration cycle is longer than six months. Second, quite often, entire households and not individuals participate in seasonal migration. In order to cover this lacuna, the author relies on field studies, which also bring out many other important dimensions of migration that are not captured by the macro data.

In section 3, which follows, the analysis is confined to the first two types of migrants, and it is principally based on the Census and NSS.

### 3. Migration: Trends and Pattern

#### 3.1 Magnitude of migration

In 2001, the Census reported 309 million internal migrants. Of these migrants, 70.7 per cent were women. Two thirds of the migrants (67.2 per cent) were rural and only 32.8 per cent urban. Male migrants were relatively more numerous in the urban stream (53.1 per cent of male migrants were urban compared with only 24.4 per cent of female migrants) and in more distant streams. The percentage of male migrants in intra-district, inter-district and inter-state migration was 52.2 per cent, 26.7 per cent and 21.1 per cent, respectively, compared with 66.9 per cent, 23 per cent and 10.1 per cent, respectively, for female migrants in these three streams.

The NSS estimates 326 million migrants in 2007–2008 (28.5 per cent of the population). It gives a picture similar to the Census in terms of female predominance, and the relatively higher proportion of male migrants in the urban stream and with increasing distance. However, the trends in migration emerging from these two sources give a slightly different picture.

According to the Census (Table 1), the migration rate for all segments peaked in 1981 to 30.3 per cent, declined in 1991 to 27 per cent, and increased to 30.1 per cent in 2001. Between 1981 and 1991, the total number of migrants grew by only 12 per cent, but between 1991 and 2001, the migrant stock increased by 37 per cent.

**Table:1 Migrant Rate**

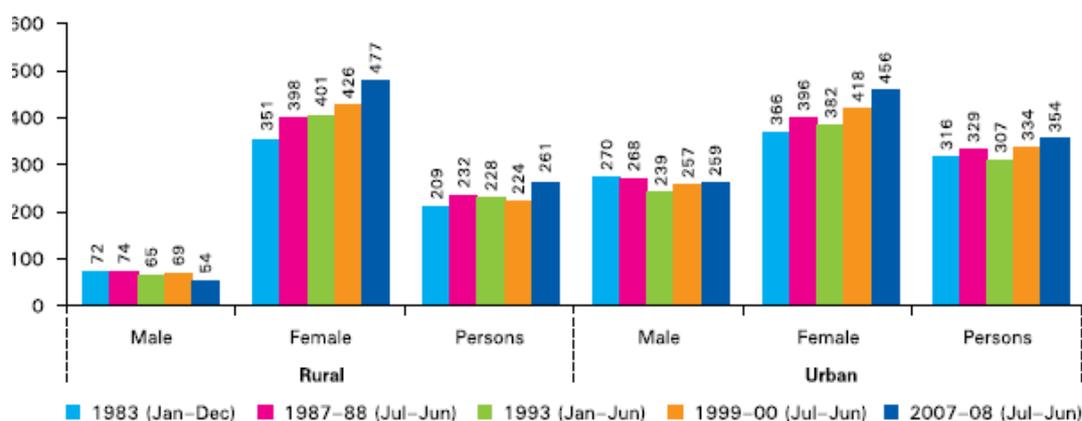
Census Year	Place of Resident	No. of Migrants			Migrant Rate		
		Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1981	Total	201607061	59235306	142371755	30.3	17.2	44.3
	Rural	143583222	31354273	112228949	28.3	12.1	45.3
	Urban	58023839	27881033	30142806	36.8	33.2	40.8
1991	Total	225887846	61134303	164753543	27.0	14.1	40.9
	Rural	159190095	31196064	127994031	25.6	9.8	42.5
	Urban	66697751	29938239	36759512	31.0	26.3	36.2

2001	Total	309385525	90677712	218707813	30.1	17.0	44.1
	Rural	207773661	42528896	165244765	28.0	11.1	45.8
	Urban	101611864	48148816	53463048	35.5	32.0	39.4

**Note:** The Migration figures for 1981 exclude Assam and the 1991 figures exclude J&K

However, the successive rounds of the NSS (except the 49th Round, which was also less representative and a half year round) show increasing total migration rates since 1983. But, as shown in Figure 1, the NSS findings are that these trends are mainly due to rising female migration rates both in rural and urban areas.

**Table 1: Number of migrants and migration rate, 1981–2001**



Both the Census and NSS confirm an increase in long-distance (inter-state) migration in recent years. Census results show that inter-state migrants as a proportion of total migrants declined marginally from 12.02 per cent in 1981 to 11.82 per cent in 1991 and then increased to 13.31 per cent in 2001 (Table 3).

The NSSO specifically shows an increase in inter-state migration between 1999–2000 and 2007–2008 in the two urban streams; in the rural-urban stream, the percentage of inter-state migrants increased from 19.6 per cent to 25.2 per cent; in the urban-urban stream, inter-state migration increased from 19.9 per cent to 22.9 per cent (NSSO Report No-533, Statement 4.11).

**Table 3: Percentage distribution of internal migrants in India by different distance categories, 1981–2001**

Census Year	1981	1991	2001
Intra-District	64.96	62.14	62.57
Inter-District	23.02	26.05	24.12
Inter-State	12.02	11.82	13.31

Source: Census of India, 1981, 1991, and 2001, Table D-2.

### 3.3 Stated reason for Migration

As we have noted above, internal migration figures for India show that migration is dominated by female migration. This is mainly due to the widely prevalent social custom of exogamous marriages. Both the Census and the NSS record this as the first reason for migration given by respondents. Since the NSS gives an elaborate set of 18 reasons, which can further be clubbed into broader categories, we have discussed the NSS results below.

Table 4 compares the stated reasons for migration for 1993, 1999–2000 and 2007–2008. Marriage-related migration predominates in both rural and urban migrants. Among women, 91.3 per cent in rural areas and 60.8 per cent in urban areas (83.9 per cent totally) gave marriage as the reason for migration in 2007–2008.

Marriage-related migration has increased as a percentage of female migrants, over the successive surveys. Among all (male+female) migrants, marriage-related migration of women alone constitutes 68.5 per cent of all migration. For males, migration for economic reasons has been cited as the most important reason for migration. In 2007–2008, 28.5 per cent of rural male migrants and a majority – 55.7 per cent – of urban male migrants gave economic reasons for migration. Joining one's parents and/or the earning member of the family is the second most important reason for migration for both male and female migrants in both urban and rural areas. Eight per cent of rural male migrants also cite involuntary reasons for their (forced) migration.

Table 4 shows that among urban male migrants, economic reasons for migration have become more important in recent years. In 1992–1993, 41.5 per cent urban male migrants cited economic reasons for migration. But this figure increased to 51.9 per cent in 1999–2000 and further to 55.7 per cent in 2007–2008.

Both the census and the NSS show an increase in employment-related migration rates. The Census shows an increase in these rates over 1991–2001, although the figures are still less than the rates in 1981 (Figure 2). On the other hand, the NSS shows a steady increase in these rates but only for urban male migrants. In 1993, 12.73 per cent of the urban population consisted of people migrating to and within urban areas for economic reasons. This increased to 13.17 per cent in 1999–2000 and further to 14.36 per cent in 2007–2008.

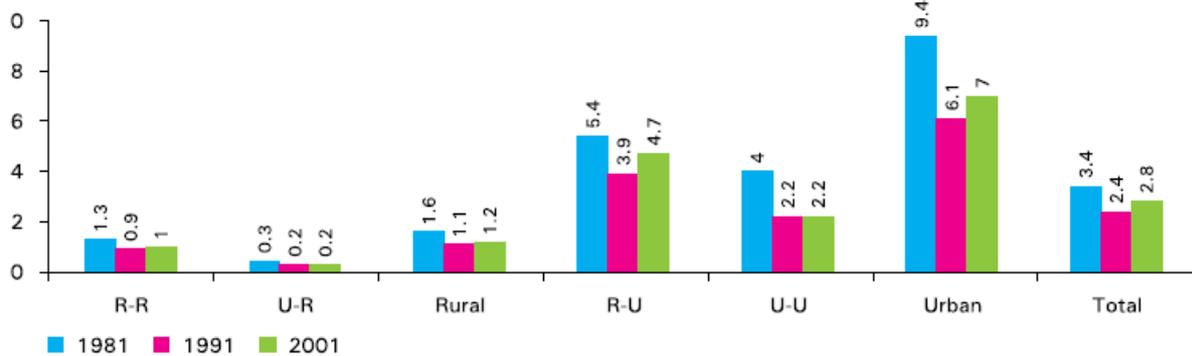
The overwhelming preponderance of marriage-related migration skews results on trends and patterns in certain directions. Excluding marriage-related migration, internal migration in India is comparatively more employment oriented, male oriented and long distance. A re-tabulation of the NSS 2007–2008 migration data without marriage-related migration shows that males form 59.1 per cent of migrants, while females formed 40.9 per cent of migrants. Of the male migrants, 49.55 per cent were employment oriented, while 5.1 per cent of the female migrants were employment oriented.

**Table 4: Distribution (per 1000) of migrants by reason for migration during 1993, 1999–2000 and 2007–2008, all India**

Reason for migration 1	Migrated in			
	Rural areas		Urban areas	
	Male 2	Female 3	Male 4	Female 5
<b>49th round (1993)</b>				
Employment related reason	477	83	415	49
Studies	41	11	180	70
Marriage	23	616	9	317
Movement of parents/earning member	208	237	283	495
Other reasons (incl.n.r)	251	53	113	69
All	1000	1000	1000	1000
<b>55th round (1999–2000)</b>				
Employment related reason	303	10	519	30
Studies	53	4	62	13
Marriage	94	888	16	585
Movement of parents/earning member	260	63	270	310
Other reasons (incl.n.r)	290	35	133	62
All	1000	1000	1000	1000
<b>64th round (2007–2008)</b>				
Employment related reason	286	7	557	27
Studies	107	5	68	22
Marriage	94	912	14	608
Movement of parents/earning member	221	44	252	294
Other reasons (incl.n.r)	292	32	109	49
All	1000	1000	1000	1000

Source: Statement-4.13, Report No. 533 (Migration in India), 2007–2008, NSSO.

**Figure 2: Total Census based employment-related migration rates**



### 3.4 Inter-state migration and its pattern

Inter-state migration trends, estimated from the NSS 2007–2008 survey show that, in general, gross in-migration rates are higher in high-income states (NSS Report 533, Statement 6.10.) such as Haryana (10.24 per cent), Punjab (7.79 per cent), Maharashtra (5.97 per cent), Gujarat (4.20 per cent), Karnataka (4.11 per cent), and West Bengal. States that have undergone reorganization (including Punjab and Haryana) and also Chhattisgarh and Uttarakhand show high rates of inter-state in-migration.

Gross out-migration (both inter-state and international) are high for some high- and middle-income states (Kerala, 8.01 per cent; Punjab, 6.52 per cent; Haryana, 6.72 per cent) along with low-income states (Uttarakhand, 7.81 per cent; Bihar, 6.37 per cent; Uttar Pradesh, 4.99 per cent; Rajasthan, 3.96 per cent; Jharkhand, 3.37 per cent). As a result, the correlation between gross out-migration rates and per capita NSDP (Net State Domestic Product) is also low, although positive.

Further disaggregating between out-migration to other states and migration abroad, the findings show that international out-migration rates are highest in Kerala, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. Inter-state out-migration rates are the highest for Uttarakhand and Rajasthan. The correlation between the state’s per capita income and out-migration rates between the former is lower (0.27) than the latter (0.40), but both continue to be positive on account of high rates of out-migration in some high – and middle-income states (for example, Delhi, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Punjab).

Net inter-state in-migration rates are the highest for Maharashtra (4.1 per cent), followed by Uttarakhand, Haryana and Chhattisgarh. The correlation between these rates and per capita NSDP is high (0.77). The same holds for net in-migration rates. The correlation between the latter and per capita NSDP is also high (0.76).

Further analysis is needed to examine the education and skill levels, and nature of employment, of the inter-state migrants across different categories of states. But these results show that while the general trend is towards higher out-migration by low-income states and in-migration into developed states (after taking cognizance of the administrative division of three states in 2000), many of the middle- and high income states also have high out-migration rates and the net inter-state in-migration rates are quite low, with the percentage of inter-state migrants in the highest net in-migrating state also being less than five.

### **Migrants in Kerala:**

Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in the recent years. Though labourers from states as far as West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa now flock to Kerala, those from Tamil Nadu outnumber others by a big margin. Within the state, Ernakulam accounts for the largest number of migrants. While a relatively small section of the migrants from other states are professionals and skilled workers, large majority of them are unskilled or semi skilled workers engaged in construction, road works and pipe laying etc. Of late the migrants have also entered agriculture, labour intensive sub sectors of industry and many services. The shortage of local labour, higher wages for unskilled labour in the state and opportunities for employment led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. It is interesting to note that while many Malayalees migrate to the ‘Gulf’ countries (MiddleEast) both for skilled and unskilled work, many of the unskilled labourers from other parts of the country consider Kerala as their ‘Gulf’. With signs of rapid growth of state’s economy and the increase in activities particularly in the infrastructure and construction sectors, the in-migration is expected to grow faster in the coming years.

### **Migrants and Vulnerability:**

The additional focus of this paper is on the strengthening of social protection measures for internal migrants in India. The Population Census of India estimates that there were 309 million internal migrants in India in 2001. According to the NSS estimates of 2007–2008, the number of internal migrants was 326 million (census-adjusted figures). These included 118 million urban migrants and 208 million rural migrants.

These migrants changed their location (‘Usual Place of Residence’) at various times in the past and for various locations. However, the Census and the NSS undercount poorer migrants in the informal sector, and short-duration seasonal and circulatory migrants. Being among the most vulnerable sections of the working poor, the semi grants and their families require special focus. Migrants differ from non-migrants in that they have experienced mobility and change in location. It remains to be established whether this places them in a specially disadvantaged position. This is clearly not always the case.

In the overview paper to this conference, this author has tried to dispel the notion that all migrants are vulnerable and has shown (and this is also borne out by international experience) that internal migration is possibly increasingly selective towards those with high skills, education, or other resource endowments. These migrants face few difficulties, if at all any, and, that too, temporary difficulties as a result of migration. But this is not true for migrants who have meager means and networks and who are at the lower end of the labour market.

Among these migrants we further distinguish between semi-permanent migrants, or long-term circular migrants, and seasonal or short-term circular migrants. *Semi-permanent or long-term circular migrants* are usually rural-urban migrants, although in industries like quarrying, agriculture and rice mills, they could also be rural-rural migrants. These migrants enter the labour market through contractors, or on their own, or through networks. In the urban areas, they are principally employed in the informal sector as casual or ‘regular’ wage workers, but gradually they could be self-employed, using hired or owned assets, or take up informal employment in the organized sector. We estimate that nearly *half the rural-urban migrants are in the bottom six consumption deciles and work mainly as casual wage*

*employed or as self-employed in the informal sector.* The characteristics of these migrants, described by us in the Overview paper, include poor access to housing and basic amenities, poorer entitlements, poor working conditions and labour market discrimination.

Unemployment risks are also lower when recruitment happens through middlemen. In many cases, these middlemen are known to the job seekers and may belong to the source area. In many cases, migrants move to the destination areas on their own interest. This generally happens where ‘bridgeheads’ have been established. Among women migrants, outsourced petty manufacturing and domestic household services provide two large avenues of employment. Jobs in the urban informal sector are highly segmented based along lines of caste, religion and kinship (Gupta and Mitra 2002).

***These migrants face special handicaps for the following reasons.<sup>i</sup>***

- They are incorporated into the labour market in less favourable ways than non-migrants. This could be because of debt-interlocking, involvement in sub-contracting chains, greater isolation, fragmentation, and segmentation. This could lead to poorer working conditions, lower wages, exploitation, harassment, and other aspects of labour market discrimination.
- They have much weaker social networks than non-migrants, although these are usually the most important resource that they do have.
- Poor rural-urban migrants face formidable difficulties in establishing claims and entitlements and, in particular, in acquiring shelter.

*Seasonal or short-duration migrants* return to their place of origin after brief periods, at the most, after a few months. They resume migration, but not necessarily to same workplace or destination. As shown in the Overview paper, seasonal migrants are usually poorer, more likely to belong to the Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribes, and a large proportion work in seasonal industries such as agriculture, manufacture of bricks, quarrying, construction and so on. Construction, manufacturing and agriculture employ the largest percentage of seasonal migrants. But there are a large number of other industries which employ large numbers of seasonal migrants. The total number of such migrants is likely to be close to 40 million.

Seasonal migrants are much more likely to enter the migrant labour market through Contractor/middlemen from whom they have taken an advance and are therefore more likely to be involved in debt-interlocked migration cycles. These migrants participate in very diverse migration streams. Migration could take place for a few days or for a few months each time. They could participate in several short-migration cycles or just one in a year. Migrants could migrate to diverse locations, relatively distant or close, rural or urban. The migration streams could consist of men only, women only, or men and women with children and even the elderly<sup>ii</sup>. Each of the more vulnerable participants in migration (women, children and the elderly) requires special social protection measures, both when they migrate and when they are left behind. Several million children migrate alone or with their parents to harsh environments, are deprived of developmental opportunities, and get involved in child labour (Smita 2007, 2008, and the Overview paper). These children require focused social protection measures to protect their health, prevent exploitation, and to provide education.

***The constraints faced by seasonal migrants in accessing social protection measures are more severe:***

- Their conditions of work severely constrain their ability to access social protection.
- They find it much more difficult to establish their bonafide and identity in the destination areas. Apart from that, their entitlements and claims even in their areas of origin are much weaker.
- It is also much harder to provide agencies to tailor schemes and programmes to suit the requirements of the diverse streams of migrants and the individuals (women, children and elderly) within the migrant streams.

**Emerging Pattern of Growth, Challenges for Migration and Migration Policy:**

As discussed above, the recent period of rapid growth in India has increased the demand for both skilled and unskilled workers in the areas of concentrated growth and agglomeration. For over a decade and a half, elements of regional policy were abandoned, and the state deliberately encouraged and supported a strategy of growth concentration, which in turn encouraged migration. Simultaneously, there has been a shift in labour regimes towards greater formalization and flexibilization, captured in detail in the two reports of the NCEUS (2007, 2009). As shown in this paper, employment-related migration has definitely increased. Further, while documented migration flows show that migration propensity is higher among the better off and the more skilled, this trend is only part of the story; there has been an increase in the numbers of poor labour migrants in numerous sectors constituting the most flexible and poorly remunerated sections of labour.

In the coming years, despite policies that may result in some reduction in distress migration, we expect total migration to increase. This will call for policies and approaches to reduce regional and sectoral balances in development, appropriate policies for recipient areas, policies to support seasonal migrants and so on. The development policy discourse in India still has not grappled with the extent to which the nature of migration in India impacts on the key developmental goals adopted by the country as well as the international community in several areas including health, education, and poverty alleviation. This is reflected in the lack of any systematic policy framework for internal labour migrants.

The National Commission for Rural Labour had first focused on a policy agenda for migration. Recently, the NCEUS advocated a systematic approach to labour migration within the framework of policies and programmes for informal workers. First, the NCEUS proposed a comprehensive legislation for informal workers, covering minimum labour standards and issues specific to migrant labour. Second, the NCEUS proposed a universal minimum social security package for informal workers that incorporated all three elements crucial for extending the coverage to migrant workers, viz., complete portability in terms of registration, payment of premium (where applicable), and receipt of benefits. The NCEUS recommended that grass roots organizations be involved in the registration of workers and that the workers be issued a family smart security ID card, which could be simultaneously utilized by the migrant and her/his family members. Other recommendations of the NCEUS included livelihood promotion, addressing the regulatory framework in urban areas, and an approach to agricultural and rural development.

The Eleventh Five Year Plan did consider issues related to migration mainly in the rural-urban context and proposed some strategies. It proposed a two-pronged approach to deal with the expected rapid migration of rural population towards urban centres. First, up gradation in the quality of infrastructure in existing cities to provide improved municipal services to larger numbers of people and, second is development of new suburban townships as satellites/counter-magnets to reduce/redistribute the influx of population. JNNURM is a key mission to achieve these two goals through the integrated development of the cities in which long-term vision for the development of the cities has been proposed. The development of small and medium Industries such as village and cottage industries, handlooms, handicrafts and food processing and agro-industries were also considered important in reducing rural-urban migration. PURA (Provision of Urban Amenities in Rural Areas) is the other programme which has been promoted by the government to check the rural urban migration<sup>iii</sup>.

Civil society organizations have been involved in various states in working with urban and rural migrants. We have reviewed elsewhere the role and strategy of some of these organizations (Srivastava and Sasikumar 2005; Srivastava and Dasgupta 2010). Some of the organizations are involved with general migrants' support and protection, while others are involved with migrants' entitlement in specific sectors. Their experiences provide a very useful context in which broader policies and programmes can be considered.

UNESCO - UNICEF National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development in India | Internal Migration in India In recent years, they have been collectively advocating an approach towards migration by the government. Recently, a network of such organizations under the banner of *Wada Na Todo* Campaign (Don't Break Your Promises Campaign) presented an analysis and approach towards migration to the Planning Commission for the formulation of the Twelfth Five Year Plan. The main focus of the campaign has been on registration and identity cards.

The National Coalition of Organizations for Security of Migrant Workers is a coalition which unites all the NGOs that are working for the social and economic issues of migrants. The coalition has raised several issues in relation to migration and has advocated the building of a national-level policy on migrants that addresses the concerns of migrant workers in a comprehensive fashion. It has emphasized the coverage and effective implementation of social security provisions for the migrants, creation of a data base of migrant workers at panchayat level/urban local bodies, and changes in laws covering migrant workers.

**Given the importance of the issues involved we have been advocating the formulation of a migration policy for India which could focus on the following issues:**

- **Inclusive urban development:** The Constitution of India (under Article 19, which is a fundamental right of citizens) gives the right to citizens to travel, reside and carry out any trade, profession or business in any part of the country.
- **A regional development policy and pro-poor development in backward areas:** In order to mitigate migration under very adverse circumstances, a major set of policy initiatives has to aim for a more vigorous pro-poor development strategy in the backward areas that can strengthen the livelihood base in these areas.

- **Employment and food security, and credit support for vulnerable groups:** Providing a livelihood floor will also obviate the need for the poor to undertake distress migration. The MGNREGA has presently emerged as a major entitlement-based initiative in this regard. It not only provides employment in lean periods, but also has several important labour market impacts.
- **Ensuring basic entitlements and social security:** A major policy focus has to be on ensuring that migrant households have citizenship rights in the destination areas and are able to access basic facilities, benefits of public programmes, and social security schemes meant for poor households.
- **Implementing the Right to Education (RTE) for migrant(s') children:** A special focus under the Act has to be to ensure access of migrant labourers' children to schooling (and that they are not pushed into labour).
- **Improving the information base and bargaining strength of migrant workers:** Being economically extremely vulnerable, poor migrant workers lack of bargaining strength.
- **Role of Panchayats:** Panchayats should emerge as the focus of the resource pool for migrant workers residing in their area.
- **Enforcement of labour laws and enactment of a comprehensive law:** At the work places, stricter enforcement of existing labour laws, including the Interstate migrant act. The comprehensive Unorganized Sector Workers Act proposed by the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector sets a floor in terms of working condition and wages for all unorganized workers and covers many issues that are potentially beneficial to migrant workers. There should be a vigorous debate on the proposed Act and how it can meet the requirements of migrant workers.

#### **Challenges of Up-Scaling Creative Practices on Migration:**

A good amount of work has also been built up, demonstrating the possible solutions to various risks that the community faces, solutions that are also. There are, however, some serious impediments to scaling up of the solutions on migration. These bottlenecks need be cleared for framing an effective response to the phenomenon.

- *Establishing Numbers*
- *Ensuring Portability of Entitlements*
- *Lack of suitable social security mechanisms*
- *Absence of quick-response legal redressal mechanisms*
- *Urban development discourse heavily biased towards slum development*
- *Resource scarcity faced by labour departments*

#### **Conclusion:**

Internal migration in India is large and diverse. In a historical sense, migration goes hand in hand with growth and development. But, it can have both costs and benefits for households and individuals as well as economies and societies. Migration needs to be facilitated through a proper development strategy and a coherent policy, so that its benefits can be maximized at

all levels. A growth strategy which transfers large costs of subsistence to the poorer migrants themselves will ultimately defeat the objectives of both growth and development. Our overview of internal migration in India indicates that this is presently the case.

## REFERENCES AND CITATIONS:

---

<sup>i</sup>Sabates-Wheeler and Waites (2003) have adopted a different framework for analysing migrant vulnerability. They distinguish vulnerabilities at three stages (origin, transit, and destination) and between three types (spatial-environmental, socio-political and socio-cultural). This paper does not deal with vulnerabilities during transit and adopts a different framework for analyzing migrant vulnerabilities, following its entitlement or rights-based approach.

<sup>ii</sup> A review of the diversity of seasonal migration and involvement of these migrants in the labour market, see Srivastava (1998), Srivastava and Sasikumar (2005), Deshingkar and Akter (2009) and the Overview paper to this conference by the author.

<sup>iii</sup>The Parliamentary Standing Committee on Finance, in its report, expressed the view that, 'It is also not clear as to whether possession of aadhaar number would be made mandatory in future for availing of benefits and services. Even if the aadhaar number links entitlements to targeted beneficiaries, it may not ensure that beneficiaries have been correctly identified. Thus, the present problem of proper identification would persist' (p. 32).

## BOOKS AND JOURNALS

1. Banerjee, Kaustav and Partha Saha, 2010, 'The NREGA, the Maoists and the Developmental Woes of the Indian State', *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. XIV, no. 28, 10 July, pp.42–48.
2. Batra, Lalit, and Diya Mehra, 2008, 'Slum Demolitions and Production of Neoliberal Space: Delhi', in *Inside the Transforming Urban Asia: Processes, Policies and Public Actions*, edited by Darshini Mahadevia, New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company.
3. Bhagat, R. B., and S. Mohanty, 2009, 'Emerging Patterns of Migration and Contribution of Migration in Urban Growth in India', *Asian Population Studies*, vol.5, no.1, (March 2009).
4. Dasgupta, B., 1987, 'Issues of Migration and Employment with Reference to Calcutta', in *Perspectives on Urbanization and Migration: India and USSR*, edited by S.M. Alam and F. Alikhan, Ahmedabad: Allied Publishers.
5. De Haan, A., 1999, 'Livelihoods and Poverty: Role of Migration – A Critical Review of the Migration Literature', *Journal of Development Studies*, pp 1–47.
6. Human Rights Watch, 1996, 'The Small Hands of Slavery: Bonded Child Labour in India', New York.
7. Khera, Reetika, and Nandini Nayak, 2009, 'Women Workers and Perceptions of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act', *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 44, no. 43, 24 October, pp. 49–57.
8. Kundu, Amitabh, 2009, 'Urbanisation and Migration: An Analysis of Trends, Patterns and Policies in Asia', Human Development Research Paper No. 16. New York.
9. United Nations Development Programme. Human Development Report.—.2011 a, 'Politics and Economics of Urban Growth', *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 46, no. 20, 14 May 14, pp.10–12.—.2011 b, 'Method in Madness: Urban Data from 2011 Census', *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 46, no. 40, 1 October, pp.13–16. Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation

- 
- & United Nations Development Programme, 2009, *India: Urban Poverty Report*, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
10. Ministry of Labour, Government of India, 1991, *Report of the National Commission on Rural Labour* (NCRL Report), New Delhi.
  11. National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector, 2007, *Report on Conditions of Work and Promotion of Livelihoods in the Unorganised Sector*, New Delhi: Academic Foundation and Government of India.
  12. National Sample Survey Office, 1993, *Migration in India*, Report No. 430, NSSO 49<sup>th</sup> Round. Government of India: Ministry of Programme Implementation.—.1999–2000, *Employment and Unemployment in India*, Report No. 455. Government of India: Ministry of Programme Implementation.
  13. UNESCO - UNICEF National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development in India | Internal Migration in India

## **AUTOMATION OF ENGINEERING COLLEGE LIBRARIES IN KALABURAGI AND BIDAR DISTRICTS OF KARNATAKA STATE**

**Basawaraj Malipatil<sup>1</sup>, Nagaraj J<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> Librarian, Dr Ambedkar First Grade College Rangampet, Tq-Shorapur, Dist-Yadagir. Karnataka State. 585220.

<sup>2</sup> Librarian, Appa Institute of Engineering and Technology, Kalaburagi. Karnataka State. 585102.  
malipatillibrarian@gmail.com, nvjoka183@gmail.com

### **Abstract:**

**This study depicts the status of library automation in engineering college libraries of Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts of Karnataka State, with a comprehensive analysis. The article discusses the newly emerging trends and developments in the field of library science, are areas covered in this, are available library service and resources, status of library automation, digital library infrastructure and means and way for their improvements. This paper also presents the findings of survey through questionnaire. For evaluation of the study questions were framed and data collected from the sample engineering colleges of Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts. The results of the survey are presented and discussed in this paper.**

**Keywords: Engineering college libraries, electronic resources, library services, automation, modules and Internet.**

### **Introduction**

In the Internet age, the proliferation of knowledge has been growing at a very faster rate in almost all the fields of activities, particularly in science and technology. As the information has increased, the no. of user has also increased in proportionate. As such, the responsibility of library staff in providing relevant information and document to every user in shorter and possible time in a proper way has increased to a larger scale. To handle this enormous amount of information, library has to adopt accurate devices or tools efficiently for processing it, by way of mechanization or 'automation'. Automation of library activities provides the services very efficiently, rapidly, effectively, adequately and economically. Library automation involves total computerization of library activities, right from acquisition to management and circulation to reference services, information services, photocopying, microfilming and barcode technologies, creation of database, computerization of library networks and use of telecommunication for information retrieval, RFID Security gate etc. The UGC also recommended, in a national conference held recently in New Delhi with the Vice-Chancellors of various universities emphasized that by establishing library automation and networks in the well-established institutions could offer best talents and technology to rural and urban backward and deprived institutions. Besides this Library Automation improves the efficiency of the following activities.

- Controlling the collection of information.

- Imposing effective search strategies.
- Establishing linkages with remote databases.
- Updating information collection.
- Saves a lot of precious time in handling routine and repetitive library operations.
- Impossibility of a single library to acquire and make available the entire published material.
- Improve access to library collection from anywhere.
- An effective control over the entire library operations and services.
- Improve the existing services as well as introduce new services suitable to users.
- Share the resources among various libraries in the locality, region, country or world.
- Avoid unnecessary duplication of work and use the services of the existing library staff.

### **Statements of the Problem**

The rapid development of ICT has changed the libraries over the last few decades. The library systems all over the world are going through a process of transformation to address the effects and implications of technological change. In response to the needs of the hour, library automation must be very much established and gradually upgraded to satisfy diversified demands of library professionals, teaching staff and students. Imparting Education is an essential part of an academic institution for the growth and prosperity of a nation and society. Apart from primary and secondary education, higher education plays a key role in the development and transformation of society. As such, the college libraries play a key role in shaping the lives of students.

### **Significance of the Study**

The better the library, the better the students and their future. As such, Engineering students require vast theoretical knowledge and hands on experience before they complete their course of study to survive in their respective fields of engineering. To acquire comprehensive knowledge, they must be exposed to the latest applications.

In the ever changing technologically advancing information society, the scientific and technological education is of vital importance to any Engineering college for its prosperity and development. Engineering college libraries have to play a leading role to maintain their position as the college principal information resources and service provider. Automating a library is only the first step. Keeping up with new trends in information and communication technology is also of paramount importance. If the libraries fail to meet these challenges successfully, the tremendous investment that colleges have made on their library collections and facilities will be seriously undermined.

Engineering College Library will provide the required reading material, which is useful for their regular curriculum and practical knowledge. For proper arrangement, processing and retrieval of reading materials, there is a need to study the status of libraries of Engineering colleges of **Kalaburagi – Bidar Districts**.

### **Review of Literature**

Realizing the importance of Library Automation in Engineering colleges, several studies have been undertaken in regard to the status of library automation, house keeping activities

of library automation modules, hardware, networking, benefits and shortfalls of library automation. Reviews of available previous studies have been presented in this section.

**INFLIBNET** – Centre published a book on “ Library Automation Planning, 2004” Library Automation refers to the use of computers to serve the needs of library users. The operations of a library get a quantum jump with the introductions of computers. The computers help to provide fast and reliable access to the resources available in the library as well as elsewhere. The application of computers in the library operations avoids repetitive jobs and saves lot of labour, time, speeds up operations, increases use of library resources. computers are not only used as a tool for processing the data, but also for data storage and accessing.

**Sinha and Chakrabarty (2007)** concluded that the status of computerization of library housekeeping operations and computer based library services of college libraries of southern Assam, is in nascent stage. Only few colleges, Which are best colleges affiliated to Assam University, Silchar have started implementing project of automation and networking of their college libraries. The Govt. Of Assam and UGC should come forward to provide substantial financial assistance to the college located in the remote area of South Assam, which is popularly known as Barak Valley located in other parts of India.

**Murthy, T. A .V and Colin, V.S.(2008)** in their article “Library Automation” they described about the Library Automation and how Information technology has been one of the major factors causing changes in the way people communicate, locate, retrieve and use information. The impact of automation on the library is quite obvious and has created new types of work, prompted redefinition of certain functions, influenced interpersonal relationships and transformed traditional organizational structures into new institutional entities. Libraries today are faced with planning for automation within a rapidly changing and uncertain technological environment. Resource sharing under the circumstances plays a pivotal role. The paper addresses the various issues viz. establishment INFLIBNET and its role in automation of university libraries in India. The new initiative taken by the UGC to establish UGC-Infonet and E-subscription for the Universities gives required boost for the automation activity in the country.

**Manohar Nunda, in his work (2009)** “ Library Automation” explained the study and nature of library automation and the various libraries automated with different modules in meeting the needs of the library. The tremendous change in using computers in circulation system, online technical support system, automated cataloguing, abstracting and indexing systems, the application of multimedia and the use of networking and the usage of web based sources through Internet. In particular the advantages of using computers in library.

**Mull and K R Chandrashekara.(2009)** “ Status of Library Automation in Engineering Educational Institutions in Karnataka”: A Survey intends to carryout a survey of engineering college libraries that have computerized their operations and services. Thus this paper will provide an implicit view of experiences undergone by the engineering college librarians in computerizing their library operations. It also observed that 13.73 percent of libraries are not automated reasons could be varied from library to library they were lack of computer facility, financial problems, lack of trained man power and library collection is very less. The present study is limited to the automated libraries of engineering college libraries in Karnataka. It gives a status view of the software packages used by different libraries.

**Helaluddin (2010)** described in his study “ The current position of libraries in ICT environment in Faridabad district of Haryana state”. Various services provided by libraries with support of information and communication technologies to their have been observed and discussed with the library professionals and their users. 54% users are not satisfied with the number of terminals in the library. They need more terminals with high speed connectivity.

**Dabas, K C and Singh (2011)** presented their study “ Automation Scenario in University Libraries: a Study of Some selected Libraries:.. The paper attempts to review and audit the present scenario of library automation in nine university libraries in Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh in the background of yesteryears and expected future. Paper points out that today complete library automation and modernization means digitization of the every bit of information contents. Discusses the scope, objectives and methodology adopted for collection, presentation and analysis of data for this paper. Highlights the meaning, main considerations, rational, main components and domain of library automation in the context of university libraries.

**P S G Kumar and C P Vashishta (2011)** in their paper “ Academic libraries in the Internet era” indicated about the major theme of Internet in Indian academic libraries is divided into 5 sub themes: academic libraries and access to Internet and intranet, information sources on the Internet for higher education and research. Internet and Web search engines, Developing library Web site and education and training for Internet.

**Barber, E. Tripaldi, N. Pisano, S. Werner, V. Romagnoli, (2012)**

In their paper “ Argentinian academic libraries automation: outline of a transition, process” while reporting results of an investigation based partly on an analysis of the results of 1996 and 1997 questionnaire surveys, of 30 public libraries and 28 academic libraries in Argentina, to determine these libraries” plans for the introduction of automation, the library processes automated, the evaluation and selection strategies adopted.

### **Objectives of the Study**

- ❖ To know the status of library automation.
- ❖ To know about the holdings of libraries, staff particulars.
- ❖ To know the various facilities and services available in the library.
- ❖ To identify the technical process, (Software and hardware) used in the libraries.
- ❖ To analyze the various problems faced by the authorities and the staff during the process of pre automation and post automation of library.
- ❖ To suggest the measures for improving the quality of resources and services.

### **Hypothesis**

As a complement to the objectives stated above, the empirical validity of the following hypothesis are to be tested in the course of investigations.

1. The inadequate infrastructural facilities and the meagre financial resources of engineering college libraries are the barrier in joining the networks.
2. Majority of the libraries are not satisfied with the resources and services of the Library Automation. Faculty members of the degree colleges expecting advanced applications in Libraries.

3. The non-availability of required I T skills by the staff and users and also the unawareness of automated services, the Engineering college students and faculty members are not able to avail the advantage of library automation.
4. Majority of the colleges is facing problems at the time of pre automation and post automation as technical assistance is poor.

### Scope and Limitations of the Study

The paramount aim of the present study is limited to the engineering and technology college libraries of **Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts of Karnataka State**. Out of 10 colleges 6 colleges selected for the study. The list of the sample libraries covered

1. P D A College of Engineering, **Gulbarga**
2. Appa Institute of Engineering and Technology, **Gulbarga**
3. Godutai Engineering College for Women, **Gulbarga**
4. Shetty Institute of Technology , **Gulbarga**
5. Gurunanak Dev Engineering College, **Bidar**
6. Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology, Bhalki, **Bidar**

### Methodology

The main purpose of the present study is to evaluate the existing status of library operations in the sample engineering colleges of **Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts of Karnataka State**. In order to assess the status of library automation, both methods of data collections have been adopted, i.e. primary and secondary data through books and journal collections, e-resources, online sources and questionnaire methods. Questionnaire method is primarily adopted for collecting the required data for the present study. The questionnaire intended for librarians consists of 54 questions on profiles of Engineering colleges, designation, qualification, experience of librarians. The status of automation, access system, library house keeping operations, collection, sections, services, user education programmes, bibliographic database, number of computer units, nature of computerization, software, networking physical facilities, questions on pre automation, post automation and the advantage experience, support from the vendor and cost benefit analysis of library automation.

**Table No. 1. Library Facilities and Services**

Available Facilities /Services	PDA college of Engineering		App Institute of Engineering and Technology		Godutai Engineering college for Women		Shetty Institute of Technology		Gurunanak Dev Engineering College		Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology	
	available	Not Available	available	Not Available	available	Not Available	available	Not Available	available	Not Available	available	Not Available
Circulation Services	√		√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-
New Arrival List	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-

Interlibrary Loan	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Reference Services	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	-
User Education	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-
CAS	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-	-	√
SDI	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Indexing	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Abstracting	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Internet	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-
Email	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-
Photocopying service	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-
Fax	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	-	√	√	-
Newspaper clipping	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-
Compilation of bibliography	-	√	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Translation	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
Reference queries	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	-	√
User study	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	√	-	√	-
RFID&Smart card control	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-
Video conferencing	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√

Digital library	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-	√	-
Educational Multimedia facility	-	√	√	-	-	√	-	√	-	√	√	-
Any other service	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The above table shows that 100% college libraries are automated with circulation module. 16.6% College libraries have the facilities of New Arrival List service. No college is maintaining interlibrary service. 50% of the colleges are maintaining User Education Service. 33.3% libraries have CAS service. No college is maintaining Indexing and Abstracting Service. All most all the engineering libraries 100 % equipped with Internet Service. Only 23.33% colleges are providing Email service. 100 % Photocopying service is being provided by all the six engineering colleges. Four colleges are maintaining 66.6% Fax service in their colleges. 100 % News paper clipping service is provided by all the 6 engineering colleges. Compilation of Bibliography is being maintained by one college with a meagre percentage of 16.6% . No college is offering Translation service. Two colleges are providing Reference Query Service with a percentage of 33.3% . Three colleges are providing User Study with a percentage of 50% . Only one college is providing 16.6% RFID & Smart card control service. Good numbers of 100% colleges are providing Digital Library service. Only one college is providing Video conference service. 66.6% colleges are providing Educational Multimedia facility. The libraries, which are not offering the above service, should introduce these services after ascertaining.

**Table No. 2 Users Strength**

S.No.	Name of the Institution	Faculty	Students	Non-Teaching Staff	Total No. of users
1	PDA college of Engineering	00(17.3)	1500(15.8)	50(15.1)	1650(15.9)
2	App Institute of Engineering and Technology	80(13.9)	2000(21.1)	30(9)	2110(20.3)
3	Godutai Engineering College for Women	200(34.7)	4000(42.3)	50(15.1)	4250(41.1)
4	Shetty Institute of Technology	50(8.6)	376(3.9)	34(10.3)	460(4.4)
5	Gurunakan Dev Engineering College	125(21.7)	1500(15.8)	150(45.4)	1775(17.1)

6	Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology	20(3.4)	80(0.8)	16(4.8)	116(1.1)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>575</b>	<b>9456</b>	<b>330</b>	<b>10361</b>

The above table revealed that a total of 10361 staff and students are attached with these six engineering colleges. Godutai Engineering College for Women standing first among the six engineering colleges having 4250 with a percentage of 41.1, staff and students. Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology standing last poor no of human personal with a meagre percentage of 1.1(116) staff and students. As far, the faculty is concerned a total of 575 faculty is working with these institutions, out of which App Institute of Engineering and Technology standing first having 200 (34.7) among six engineering colleges. The poor no of faculty is maintained by Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology with a meagre percentage (3.4) 20 faculty. As far, the students admissions and strength, Godutai Engineering College for Women standing first having 4000 students with a percentage of (42.3) from the six engineering colleges in Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts. The poor strength is seen in Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology with a meagre percentage 80 (0.8) percentage of students. As for the Non-teaching staff, Gurunanak Dev Engineering College having a good no of 150 (45.4) non-teaching staff is recruited to execute the various activities in the engineering colleges. The poor strength is maintained by Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology with a meagre percentage 16 (4.8). It is noticed form the above table that some colleges are being maintained by some colleges, the colleges should understand the needs and necessities of the students, hereby they can improve the students's strength.

**Table No. 3 Status of Library Automation**

S.No.	Name of the Institution	Fully automated	Partially automated	At initial stage	No automation
1	PDA college of Engineering	√	-	-	-
2	App Institute of Engineering and Technology	√	-	-	-
3	Godutai Engineering College for Women	√	-	-	-
4	Shetty Institute of Technology	-	-	√	-
5	Gurunanak Dev Engineering College	√	-	-	-
6	Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology	-	-	√	-

It is observed from the above Table No. 3 that, the status of Automation in engineering colleges libraries of Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts have gone far ahead in automation. In Kalaburagi and Bidar Districts 4 out of the six engineering colleges, 4 (66.6%) are fully automated, 2 (33.3%) are at an initial stage of automation. No college is strangers to library automation.

**Table No. 4 Areas of House keeping operations**

S. No.	Modules	PDA college of Engineering	App Institute of Engineering and Technology	Godutai Engineering college for Women	Shetty Institute of Technology	Gurunanak Dev Engineering College	Bheemanna Khandre Institute of Technology
1	Acquisition	√	√	√	√	√	√
2	Cataloguing	√	√	√	√	√	√
3	Circulation	√	√	√	√	√	√
4	Serial control	√	√	√	-	-	-
5	OPAC	√	√	√	-	√	-
6	Budgeting	√	√	√	√	√	√
7	Administration	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Total	7	7	7	5	6	5

The above Table shows the status of automation in the basic areas of house-keeping operations like Acquisition, Circulation and Serial Control, OPAC, Budgeting and Administration. It shows that out of the six colleges only three 3 (50%) colleges possess all the modules. Out of the six, three colleges 3 (50%) colleges do not have serial control module and 2 (33.3%) colleges do not have the OPAC module. This shows that some colleges are not fully automated and are at the initial stage of development.

### Conclusion

Libraries of engineering college can hardly function today without computers and library automation. A well equipped library with all the facilities of modern infrastructures and technologies could with stands in the changing environment and require constant improvement based on new advances in technological innovations. In the fast growing technology library automation is very essential the staff, management and resources play a vital role in the building of their future. In fact it is the time for innovation and implementation of new technologies in the technical environment. This could be possible only by up to date Library Automation.

## REFERENCES & CITATIONS

1. Aswal , R.S. (2006). Library automation for 21 century, New Delhi: Ess Ess Publication, 244.
2. Haravu, L. J. (1993). Library automation and networking in India. *Annals of Library Science and Documentation*, 40(32-40) 41.
3. Harinarayana, N.S. (1991). Concept of library automation. *Herald of Library science*, 30,174-176.
4. Hirwade, M.A. & Rajyalakshmi, D.(2006). Open access: India is moving towards third world superpower. 4<sup>th</sup> International convention CALIBER- 2006, Gulbarga
5. Jain, S.L. (1997). Computerization of information work. *IASLIC Bulletin*. 32,115-121.
6. Juneja, P.K.(1986). Networking and libraries. In S. Parthasarathy(ed.), *Computer Application to Library and Information Retrieval and Networking*. 120.
7. Kimber, R.T. (1986). *Automation in libraries*. Oxford: Pergamon Press. 64-90.
8. Kochar, R.S., & Sudharshan, K.N.(1997). *Library automation*. New Delhi: APH Publishing Corporation. 233-234.
9. Mahapatra, P.K.(1985). *Computer in library services*. Calcutta: World Press. 125.
10. Mahapatra, M., and Ramesh, D.B.(2004). *Information technology application in libraries: A textbook for beginners*.Orissa: Reproiprint Ltd. 248.
11. Pandey , S.K. (1999). *Encyclopaedia of library automation systems and networks*. Anmol Publications Pvt. Ltd.
12. Parthasarathy, S. (1986). Areas for library automation. Papers present at the seminar of Madras Library Association on Library Automation, Madras. 10-11. 43.
13. Rao, N.L. (1993). *Planning and implementation of automated circulation system*. Hyderabad: osmania Universit.
14. Riaz, M.(1992). *Library automation*. Atlantic Publishers & Distribution.
15. Saffady, W.(1989). *Library automation: An overview*. *Library trends*, 37 (3), 269-281.
16. Singh, C.P. (2008). *Library automation in modern age*. Alfa Publications.
17. P S Sujatha, S Padmamma and M Geetha.(2012). *Automation of House-keeping Operations: Status of Kuvempu University Library. Empowering Libraries for Lifelong Learning Skills*. ISBN: 978-81-890-6591-1. Pp.227-232.
18. Srinivas M and K R Mulla.(2014). *Library Automation. Integrating ICT in Academic Libraries: Making a Difference in Knowledge Age*. ISBN: 9-788192-756912. Pp. 79-85.
19. N Vasantha Raju and Vijayakumar Jalagar.(2015). *Can Cloud Computing Help for Government Colleges to Automate their Libraries ? A Point of View. Emerging Technologies and Future of Libraries. Issues and Challenges*. ISBN: 978-93-5124-610-7. Pp.145-149.
20. Rukkumani Devi, N. And Dr. Chinnasamy, K. (2016). *Use of Library Automation Services among College Students- with special Reference to Engineering Colleges of Tiruchirappalli District. Proceedings of the DRDO supported National Conference, Creativity, Innovation and Transformation in Libraries. SALIS 2016. 8-9 July, 2016. Pp.169-173.*
21. Sekar P and Abdul Majeed, K.C.(2016). *Library Automation in Engineering Colleges Libraries Affiliated to Anna University in Thanjavur District: A Study. Proceedings of the DRDO supported National Conference, Creativity, Innovation and Transformation in Libraries. SALIS 2016. 8-9 July, 2016. Pp.588-593.*

## THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE: MALABAR 'CONNECTION' IN CULINARY WAYS

Dr. Deepa G.

*Contract Teacher in History, Sreesankaracharya University of Sanskrit Kalady, RC, Tirur*

[deepag.chaithanya@gmail.com](mailto:deepag.chaithanya@gmail.com)

### Abstract

Examining the cultural process of colonialism in Malabar, this paper tried to explore the colonial agrarian policies in British Malabar and how these kind of agricultural policies transformed the making of food and cuisine of the native people. The adaptation of new food crops from different region is generally known as 'Columbian Exchange.' 'Columbian Exchange' is not merely an exchange; it was a political imposition of the 'old world' towards the 'new world. The Columbian exchange made significant changes in culinary terrain of the coloniser and colonised.

**Key words:** *Colonialism; Columbian exchange; Carolina rice; culinary ways*

### Introduction

The process of colonialism has been associated with political administration, economic exploitation and cultural imposition. Colonialism became an agency of changes have to be studied in the context of how it materialized the society and culture of the Colonized. The age of colonial rule in India has been a phase of drastic transition in terms of culture, politics and economy. Colonialism was only incidental to the history of development on the basis modern institution and technologies of power in the countries of Asia and Africa.<sup>i</sup> Nicholas Dirks observed that, colonialism was project of cultural control and the knowledge dispensed by the colonialism made new cultural forms in the colonies and further these cultural forms classified as 'traditional.' By this notion of knowledge new binaries were created in terms of colonizers and colonized in the name of European and Asian, Modern and traditional, West and East.<sup>ii</sup> In the nineteenth century, the supremacy of British power in India imposed an alien culture on the indigenous life of the natives.<sup>iii</sup> Under colonial rule the society of Malabar slowly and steadily underwent a transformation, which is parallel to that of the Indian Society. The advent of British rule in different parts of the subcontinent marked a major moment in terms of governance in the history of the region.<sup>iv</sup> The largest transformation was taken place in the realm of gastronomy. This paper tried to explore the colonial agrarian policies in British Malabar and how these kind of agricultural policies transformed the making of food and cuisine of the native people. The concept of hybrid cuisine was the result of new agricultural production, which affected the existing social structure of the society.

The transfer of food between the colonial states and colonized during Columbian Exchange had that much of powerful to make effective changes in the history of the World.<sup>v</sup> The adaptation of new food crops from different region is generally known as ‘Columbian Exchange’. This historical revolution was a matter of study for various scholars. Historians like Alfred Crosby, Sidney Mintz, and recently James Walv studied the problem of ‘Columbian Exchange’ within the context of colonialism. In the work of Alfred Crosby described the exchange of commodities between the ‘new’ and the ‘old’ world. Crosby’s work has been disputed by scholars like Sidney Mintz and James Walv. According to them ‘Columbian Exchange’ is not merely an exchange, it was a political imposition of the ‘old world’ towards the ‘new world.’<sup>vi</sup> Mintz explains that the emergence of British consumption of sugar took place as a tool against the backdrop of overseas expansion and colonial conquest. Sugar, which was earlier a rare and precious imported medicine, became cheaper at the time of Columbian exchange with the plantation economy.<sup>vii</sup>

Vascoda Gama’s journey through different regions towards India made significant changes in the culinary art of those terrains. Places enrooted as well as areas under Portuguese acted as facilitators of this exchange by their political control over these areas around the world. Historian M.N. Pearson observed that Portugal played the role of ‘converge belt’ between major markets of Northern and Central Europe.<sup>viii</sup>

Many of the food producing plants introduced by the Portuguese became an integral part of the local flora, which altered the economy and food habits of the people. For instance; the popular chillies used in Kerala and Indian cuisine were introduced by the Portuguese. Chillies particularly the dried red varieties are used widely to add pungent flavour or texture. Rulers, merchants, missionaries, Portuguese women in India, played their own roles in the introduction of various types of food, food habits and recipes. The Portuguese cultural impacts greatly reflected among major cuisines in India.

The British colonial experiments in agriculture paved the way for the introduction of variety of seeds and vegetables in India. The tomato and cherimoya were introduced through seeds, which travelled well and were more convenient for distribution than plants. All these plants were widely distributed throughout the East, and that became useful additions to the vegetable diet of both Europeans and natives. The tomato is mentioned ‘as the most valuable acquisition to Southern India’.<sup>ix</sup> Chayote was first introduced in India in 1879; during the initial stages the crop underwent lots of failures and in 1883 the extensive cultivation of the crop was accomplished. The Coco was introduced in Ceylon by means of a single plant, which survived the journey direct from Jamaica to Ceylon, in January 1885.<sup>x</sup> Thurston pointed out that many cultivated plants of India during the period have been introduced from other parts of Asia, Africa and Europe. For example, cabbage, cauliflower, pomelo, peach, betel pepper, Niger seed, and Italian millet. Other plants like pineapple, custard-apple, guava, papaya; chilly, ground-nut, potato, sweet potato, and Indian corn were from America,<sup>xi</sup> Maize and potatoes were from Indies.<sup>xii</sup> These changes played an important role in the cultural and political discourses of colonial rule.

The colonial agrarian polices was highly commercialised one. The Europeans fostered the production of spices and other export items. The production of cash crops increased in this period. Marshy lands were used for cultivate plantation crops. In 18<sup>th</sup>

century external market for cash crops increased. The high commercialization of agriculture and its economic impact resulted for frequent famines in the Malabar. The frequent famines of the late 19<sup>th</sup> century forced the British to take interest in new food plants which might help to overcome starvation. The shortage of rice and the high price of necessary commodities were the main cause for the famine in Malabar. Government attention was an important part in the raise of production through the introduction of some new varieties of cultivation. The introduction of Carolina rice was the final result of these processes.

The migration of new seeds and plants promoted during this period. The introduction of Carolina rice was one important example for these experiments.

The history of Carolina rice traced back in South Carolina during 1690s by the 1720s it became a dominant product of export, South Carolina rice became an established product in the world market during 1690 to 1720 because of exogenous factors, which caused serious shortfalls in the supply of basic foodstuffs to Western Europe. Between 1740 and 1760, Carolina rice became a major product in the European rice market. The failure of regional harvest in the first half of the nineteenth century in Europe paved the way for the arrival of Carolina rice into the markets. The process of industrialization, commercialization, urbanization and increase in population resulted high demand of rice and food stuffs in European market.

In India the Carolina rice was cultivated in 1868 for the first time,<sup>xiii</sup> 10 tons of Carolina rice seed was obtained by the secretary of state through Dr. Frobese Watson, the reporter of the products of India at Indian office London for experimental cultivation. The seed was arrived in India during the period between 1868 and 1867 and distributed to all presidencies like Madras, Bombay and Bengal for experimental cultivation but it was a failure.<sup>xiv</sup> The proceedings of government of India in 1896 reported that the main reason for failure late recipient of the seed and unfavourable nature of the climate.

On the basis of the observation of these experiments, the government of India stated that failure of experiments was due to unfavourable condition of nature. In 1869 the government continued the Carolina experiments with fresh seeds. The result was positive in certain regions but in most of the areas the cultivation became failure. The experiment in Madras presidency was successful for a short period. During 1874-1875, the experiment was made only in the districts like Malabar and Coimbatore. The collector of the Coimbatore district informed that the result was only 15 percentage of yield. The condition of Malabar was also the same, only 2-26 percentages of yields were reported from this region. The government asked to collect the response of natives about these experiments. The report says that rice eating community namely Brahmins opined that the Carolina rice was the best and good to eat. In an article of diet they said that it's fine to see, white in appearance and desirable to serve up. This highlights the cultural justification of the foreign rice cultivation in India. Technically the experiment was an utter failure.

Another important product introduced in India was cocoa, these plants were cultivated in the hilly areas in India and primary experiments were carried out in Gangetic plains and hilly areas.<sup>xv</sup> The government was tried to cultivate Cocoa plant at Wayanad in Malabar. The cultivation of this plant was promoted by the government in all ways. For example an advertisement issued by the collector of Malabar related to cocoa cultivation in agricultural

supplement of Malabar District Gazette in 1873 and the collector invited the attention of all those who are interested in the cultivation of cocoa. And gave them a chance to judge the appearance of specimen had been seen at Tellichery and elsewhere in Malabar. It was possible to grow it remuneratively in the shade of the cocoanut palm. About 100 acres of the forest had already been taken up for growing it. There are many thousands of acres of suitable Government land at the foot of Periah Ghat in the Kottayam taluk.<sup>xvi</sup> But the final result of cocoa cultivation was also failure as same to the cultivation of Carolina rice cultivation of potatoes and sweet potatoes were extensively promoted by the government.<sup>xvii</sup> Potato was considered as lower class food used by poor in England. To coup up with the shortage of rice, the colonial state concentrated on the cultivation of potato and sweet potato. These new vegetables used as the substitute one against rice, so the government take a constant initiative to promote the cultivation of these products. The government ordered to identify at least 3200 acres of land to the collector of Malabar for cultivating potatoes.<sup>xviii</sup> Besides this, carrot and barely was also introduced, gradually these items altered the existing food habits of *Malayalees*. These new vegetables and fruits were not accepted by the upper caste people due to its foreign origin. Tomato and onion was not accepted by the Brahmins Malayatoor Ramakrishnan, a member of an aristocratic Tamil Brahmin family, in his memories explains about his father's attitude towards 'foreign' food, especially against onion and potato. Even though he ate egg (Brahmins were followed vegetarian diet) but not ready to consume 'foreign' vegetables like potato and onion. The use of animal bones as manure in the cultivation of these vegetables is the reason for this taboo by the upper caste Hindu Brahmin. But later this vegetable became one of the main ingredients in their cuisine. The middle class people received these new fruits and vegetables to elevate their social status. As the positive response against westernization the educated people accepted all these vegetables in their diet.

Apart from these colonial exchanges, large scale movement of population mainly as labours, from rural area to urban industrial sites and hilly terrains was a new geographical and cultural experience by the result of changes in the economy and society, which facilitated the entry of new tastes in the domestic sphere of colonized people.

---

## REFERENCES AND CITATIONS

<sup>i</sup> Partha Chatterjee, *The Nation and its Fragments: Colonial and Post-Colonial Histories*, Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1993, p. 14.

<sup>ii</sup> Bernad S. Cohan, *Colonialism and its Forms of Knowledge: The British in India*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, 2002, p. 4.

<sup>iii</sup> Judith E Walsh, *Domesticity in Colonial India, What Women Learned When Men Gave them Advice*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, 2004, p. 56.

<sup>iv</sup> Sudipta Kaviraj, 'On the Construction of Colonial Power: Structure, Discourse Hegemony', in Sudipta Kaviraj (ed.), *Politics in India*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1997, p.151.

<sup>v</sup> Alfred W. Crosby, *The Columbian Exchange; Biological and Cultural Consequences of 1492*, Greenwood Publishing Company, Westport, Connecticut, 1972, p. 15.

<sup>vi</sup> Ibid.

<sup>vii</sup> B.W. Higman, *How Food Made History*, Willey Blackwell, New York, 2012, p. 224.

- 
- <sup>viii</sup> M. N. Pearson, *The Portuguese in India*, The Cambridge University Press, London, 1998, p.178.
- <sup>ix</sup> Ward and Corner, *A Descriptive Memoir of Malabar*, Madras Government Press, Thiruvananthapuram, 1995, p. 1.
- <sup>x</sup> James Walvin, *Fruits of Empire: Exotic Produce and British Taste, 1660-1800*, New York University Press, New York 1997, pp. 175-177
- <sup>xi</sup> P. Clementson, *A Report on Revenue and Other Matters Connected with Malabar*, Collectorate Press, Calicut, 1914, pp. 19-23.
- <sup>xii</sup> Edgar Thurston, *The Madras Presidency with Mysore, Coorg and Associated States*, Cambridge University Press, London, 1913, p.195.
- <sup>xiii</sup> L. Liotarad, *Memorandum to the Introduction of Carolina Rice into India*, Revenue and Agricultural Department of India, Calcutta, 1880, p. 6.
- <sup>xiv</sup> Ibid.
- <sup>xv</sup> Utsa Ray, *Op. Cit.*, p. 98.
- <sup>xvi</sup> Malabar District Gazette, *Agricultural Supplement*, 5 January 1873, p. 53.
- <sup>xvii</sup> File No. G.O. (MS) 86, MS Series Potatoes Transport Outside the Province of Madras Presidency, Dated 27- 01-1947.
- <sup>xviii</sup> Grow More Food, Summary of Measures Taken and Concessions Given by the Government, 1 July, 1946, p. 7.

## ECO CRITICAL READING OF GIEVE PATEL’S “ ON KILLING A TREE.”

Jolly K V

Assistant Professor in English, Pavanatma College, Murickassery, Idukki  
srjollypcm@gmail.com

### Abstract

The environmental and ecological perspective has made a tremendous change in our response to literary studies. A man of literature cannot ignore the fact that there is an umbilical link between human culture and the natural environment. Gieve Patel, a man of letters challenges the mindless minds through his poem “On Killing a Tree.” He invites the readers to the brutal murder scene of the tree. The merciless butchery and the deserted graveyard compel the reader for an attitudinal transformation since he is the loser ultimately. Our education and wide exposure should motivate us to advocate sustainable development. Or the ecosystem will react and that will be an irretrievable disaster.

**Key words:** bio centric, ecological terrorism, murderous action, earth-cave, sustainability

“Trees are poems that the earth writes upon the sky(Gibran 22).”

In the present scenario, literary studies extend their boundaries and accommodate new trends that frequently change the horizons of the field. The environmental and ecological perspective has made a tremendous change in our response to literary studies. A man of literature cannot ignore the fact that there is an umbilical link between human culture and the natural environment. Ecological approaches prove that the anthropocentric attitude of man is his tragic flaw and he has forsaken his bio centric vision. He believes that he is there for conquering, domesticating, violating and exploiting the physical world. Here is the crucial role of a literary artist with his mighty weapons to correct and motivate the world. Gieve Patel, a man of letters challenges the mindless minds through his poem “On Killing a Tree.” Humanity today faces manifold challenges, and the ecological crisis is critical among them. Thoughtless cutting of trees for their immediate gains made the Common Home naked and impoverished. Consequently we encounter hazards such as climate change, endangered species, environmental degradation, natural catastrophes, pollution, water scarcity etc. Earth, like a mother provides bed and board for her children. Quite unfortunately, the children take weapons to annihilate their mother. Gieve Patel invites the readers to the brutal murder scene of the tree. The merciless butchery and the deserted graveyard compel the reader for an attitudinal transformation.

“Eco criticism”, the word in the anthology *The Eco criticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology* is defined by Cheryl Glotfelty, “Eco criticism is the study of the relationship between literature and the physical environment (xviii).” Eco criticism becomes highly relevant today launching a call to literature to connect to the issues of today’s environmental crisis. Gieve Patel, like all other reputed ecological poets and

environmentalists protests against the violence and ecological terrorism inflicted by Man on nature. Patel's tree grows deep rooted "absorbing years of sunlight, air, water"(7). Out of its leprous hide, it "sprouts its leaves" (Patel9).Reception of nutrients from the earth points to the mutual relationship prevails among the elements of nature. Spreading its branches out, the tree expresses its inclination to sharing- leaves, flowers, seeds, branches, fruits and above all oxygen, the by product of photosynthesis. Human beings never practise this art of giving; instead, they always receive until the giver gets bankrupt.

Patel succeeds in bringing an evergreen visualisation in our minds. It can be a huge tree where "the birds of the air come and lodge in its branches" (Matthew 13:31-32) or the fig tree. You may have the picture of a casuarinas tree in your farmland or an Oak or Teak. Whatever may be the taxonomy, the tree is huge and very old reminding us of the "world tree". "The World Tree' is a motif present in several religions and mythologies, particularly Indo- European, Siberian and Native American religions. "The World Tree is represented as a colossal tree which supports the heavens, the terrestrial world and through its roots, the underworld. It may also be strongly connected to the motif of the 'tree of life" (Wikipedia)."

The tree is deep rooted and the murderer comments: 'a single jab of knife' is useless. Hence they make their approach crueller- "hoping and chocking" (Patel 10). There is no room for sentiments. Or else, are we humans capable of empathising? The tree overcomes all the bruises and wounds and the "bleeding bark gets healed" ( Patel 13). The murderous action proceeds with:

Pulled out- snapped out  
Or pulled out entirely,  
Out from the earth-cave,  
And the strength of the tree exposed (Patel 23-26)

The rational being easily recognizes the source of strength and vitality of the tree-its roots. 'Earth cave' is the safer zone for any flora like a mother's womb for a foetus. The most vulnerable part is being attacked now. Man, unsaturated with all his material gains, goes further with "Scorching, chocking, browning, hardening, twisting, and withering"(Patel 33) and exalts: "And then it's done"(Patel 35).

Trees are true friends and genuine benefactors to human beings. Belonging to the perennial flora, they accumulate large quantity of water and cause showering rain water for the withered areas. They keep the air clean and fresh, sucking the atmospheric carbon dioxide. Their widespread root system holds the soil firm, devoid of erosion. Think about the cool shade where we took rest and had some childish funny games!Trees refuge the wild life, protect the biodiversity and combat the climate change. In the recycling process of fallen leaves, they provide minerals and nutrients for plants and animals to thrive in. Poets, artists and philosophers hugging the trees and contemplating their panoramic beauty contributed creatively to the generations. Statistics states that in a year, an acre of trees can provide enough oxygen for 18 people. Still they are treated as enemies- to be demolished, devastated and ruined completely. Anyone who loves life and humanity loves trees and the natural environment. We can cite a number of examples:

Henry David Thoreau, the literary giant of transcendentalism in American soil was captivated by trees and they played a significant role in his artistic creativity, philosophical

thought and his interior life. He spoke their language. Nothing, he said, “stands up freer from blame than a pine tree” (Higgins 11). Thoreau knew the ecological and psychological value of trees. “A town is saved”, he wrote, “not more by the righteous men in it, than by the woods and swamps that surround it.” “Trees” he said with customary frugal eloquence, “are good for other things than boards and shingles.” They should be allowed to “stand and decay for higher uses” (Higgins 13).

According to Hermann Hesse, the noted philosopher, “Trees have always been the most penetrating preachers. I revere them when they live in tribes and families, in forests and groves. And even more I revere them when they stand alone. They are like lonely persons... in their highest boughs the world rustles, their roots rest in infinity... when a tree is cut down and reveals its naked death-wound to the sun, one can read its whole history in the luminous, inscribed disk of its trunk...(web).

Maya Angelou’s “When Great Trees Fall” is rich in ecological perspective:

When great trees fall  
In forests,  
Small things recoil into  
Silence,  
Their senses  
Eroded beyond fear” (1-6)

Joyce Kilmer in “Planting a Tree” praises the planter:

What does he plant who plants a tree?  
A scion full of potency,  
He plants his faith, a prophecy  
Of bloom, and fruitfulness to be;  
He plants a shade where robins sing  
Where orioles their nestlings swing;  
A burning bush- a miracle!  
Who plants a tree,- he doeth well! (1-8)

Excitement and over joy of the butcher in Patel’s poem is transient. Though man appears as an achiever, he is the loser in the planet. Temporary victories are counted as great conquests. Considering the scientific and technological advancements, we face drastic changes everywhere. Easy and quick availability of everything at the finger tips! Quite amazing! But there is yet another darker side to this fast development. Drastic climate change, up heaving temperature, melting ice, endangered natural habitats, extinct variety of species- who will shoulder the responsibility of all these is a relevant question. Man is only a custodian but he plays the role of a master. Pope Francis in his encyclical *Laudato Si* laments: “A sober look at our world shows that the degree of human intervention, often in the service of business interests and consumerism, is actually making our earth less rich and beautiful, ever more limited and grey, even as technological advances and consumer goods continue to abound limitlessly” (americamagazine.org).”Our education doesn’t help us to broaden our vision. Culture, development, exposure, civilization.....everything we need. But

while aiming all these, our primary concern and criterion should be sustainability. Chief Seattle reminds us: “Only when the last tree has died and the last river has been poisoned and the last fish has been caught will we realise that we cannot eat money.”(Voices education.org)

Simon Estok noted that “Ecocriticism has distinguished itself, debates notwithstanding, firstly by the ethical stand it takes, its commitment to the natural world as an important thing rather than simply as an object of thematic study, and, secondly, by its commitment to making connections”(Estok, 220). Gieve Patel’s poem highlights the cruel behaviour of human beings towards nature. They thoughtlessly annihilate the green, fresh and natural environment. Our education should help us to think in parallel line with sustainable development. Otherwise the ecosystem will turn against us and the ruin will be irreplaceable and irretrievable.

### REFERENCES AND CITATION

1. Angelou, Maya. “When Great Trees Fall”. *PoemHunter.Com*. Web15April2017. <www.poemhunter.com.>.
2. Brazel, Agnes. “Looking at Laudato Si from the Global South.” *America: The JesuitReview*. June 19, 2015web12April2017. <http://www.americamagazine.org/issue/looking-laudato-si-global-south>.
3. Buell, Lawrence. *The Future of Environmental Criticism: Environmental Crisis and Literary Imagination*. Blackwell Publishing, 2005.Print.
4. Estok, Simon. “A Report Card on Ecocriticism .” *AUMLA: The Journal of the Australasian Universities Language and Literature Association* 96 (Nov. 2001): 220-38. Print.
5. Garaard, Greg. *Ecocriticism*. London & New York: Routledge, 2004.Print.
6. Gibran, Kahlil. *Sand and Foam*. U.K. : Educa Books, 2009.Print.
7. Glotfelty, Cheryll and Harold Fromm.,eds. *The Ecocritical Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology*. Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1996.Print.
8. Patel, Gieve. “ On Killing a Tree.” *MY EDUZ BLOG*. 25October2016web20 April2017. <http://blog.myeduz.in/2016/10/25/summary-of-on-killing-a-tree-by-gieve-patel>.
9. Hesse, Herman. *Bäume: Betrachtungen und Gedichte*. Leipzig: Insel Verl,1984. *Brain Pickings.Com*. Web10April2017. <https://www.brainpickings.org/2012/09/21/hermann-hesse-trees/>.
10. Higgins, Richard. *Thoreau and Trees: A Visceral Connection*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1985. Print.
11. Kilmer, Joyce. “Planting a Tree”. *Tree Poems*. Web16April2017. <https://www.ncsu.edu/project/treesofstrength/poems.html>.>.
12. Murthy, Patrick. *Further a Field in the Study of Nature-Oriented Literature*. Charlottesville: The University Press of Virginia, 2000.Print.
13. Singh, R P & S K Prasad.,eds. *An Anthology of Indian English Poetry*. Chennai: Orient Black Swan, 1990. Print.
14. Matthew. *The English Standard Version Bible: Containing the Old and New Testaments with Apocrypha*. Oxford:Oxford UP, 2009. Print.
15. “The Native American Talking Circle”. *Voices Compassion Education* .Web11 April2017. <www.Voices education.org.>.

## സമകാലിക മാധ്യമപ്രവണതകൾ - ആരാച്ചാരിൽ

Dr. Anila CS

Assistant Professor on contract, Pavanatma College, Murickassery.  
anilaattuvassery@gmail.com

### സംഗ്രഹം (Abstract)

ഇന്ന് മാനുഷിക ജീവിതത്തിൽ നിന്നും ഒഴിവാക്കാൻ കഴിയാത്ത ഒന്നായി മാറിയിരിക്കുകയാണ് മാധ്യമങ്ങൾ. സാധാരണ ജീവിതസംഭവങ്ങളെ പൊടിപ്പും തൊങ്ങലും വച്ച് ജനസമക്ഷത്തിലെത്തിക്കുന്ന മാധ്യമങ്ങളുടെ ഒരവതരണം കെ.ആർ. മീര തന്റെ ആരാച്ചാർ എന്ന നോവലിലൂടെ പ്രദർശിപ്പിക്കുന്നു.

മലയാള നോവൽ ചരിത്രത്തിൽ വേറിട്ടുനിൽക്കുന്ന ഒരു കഥയും, ആ കഥയെ ഭൂതവർത്തമാനകാലത്തിലൂടെ ഏറെ ബന്ധിപ്പിച്ച് വായനക്കാരനെ ഓർമ്മകളുടെ ശക്തികൂടി ബോധ്യപ്പെടുത്തുകയാണ് കെ.ആർ.മീര തന്റെ ആരാച്ചാരിലൂടെ. ആരാച്ചാർ എന്ന നോവലിൽ നിന്നും വായനക്കാരൻ മനസ് മടക്കുമ്പോൾ അവന്റെ ഉള്ളിൽ തെളിഞ്ഞ് നിൽക്കുന്നത് ഒരു കഴുതയും അതിനോട് ചേർന്നുനിൽക്കുന്ന ശക്തമായ സ്ത്രീത്വത്തിന്റെ പ്രതീകം ചേതനാഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കുമാണ്. സ്ത്രീത്വബോധത്തിൽ നിന്നുകൊണ്ട് ജീവിതത്തിന്റെ വൈകാരികഭാവതലങ്ങൾ ആവിഷ്കരിക്കുന്നതിൽ മീര തന്റെ കഴിവ് വീണ്ടും വീണ്ടും തെളിയിക്കുകയാണ് ഓരോ കൃതികളിലൂടെയും.

യതീന്ദ്രനാഥ ബാനർജി എന്ന കൊലയാളിയും അയാളുടെ വധശിക്ഷയുമാണ് നോവലിലെ ഒരു പ്രധാന പ്രമേയം. ആ പ്രമേയത്തിലൂടെ ആരാച്ചാർ പദവി പാരമ്പര്യമായി തുടർന്നുപോരുകയും അതിൽ ഒരു കണ്ണിയായി തീരുകയും ചെയ്യുന്ന ചേതനാഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിന്റെ ജീവിതവും കാണാൻ കഴിയുന്നു. ആ ജീവിതത്തോടൊപ്പം കൊൽക്കത്തയുടെയും ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്ക് കുടുംബത്തിന്റെയും ചരിത്രത്തിലൂടെ നാം കടന്നുപോകുന്നു. രാധാ രമൺ മല്ലിക്കിൽ നിന്ന് തുടങ്ങി ചേതനാഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിൽ എത്തിനിൽക്കുന്ന ആ വംശചരിത്രത്തിലെ രണ്ടാമത്തെ പെൺ ആരാച്ചാരാണ് ചേതന. ആദ്യത്തേത് പിംഗളകേശിനിയും. എന്നാൽ ഔദ്യോഗികമായി ഒരു പെൺ ആരാച്ചാരായി മാറുന്നത് ചേതനയാണ്. നോവലിൽ പല സന്ദർഭങ്ങളിലും തന്റെ വംശചരിത്രത്തിലൂടെ കടന്നുപോകുന്ന ചേതന ആ കഥകളാൽ പ്രചോദിതയാകുന്നത് കാണാൻ കഴിയുന്നു.

കൊൽക്കത്തയുടെ ഇടനാഴികളിലൂടെ കടന്ന് ചേതനയെന്ന സ്ത്രീത്വത്തിലൂടെ സഞ്ചരിക്കുമ്പോൾ ആരാച്ചാരിൽ ഏറെ ശ്രദ്ധിക്കേണ്ട ഒന്നാണ് അതിലെ മാധ്യമസ്വാധീനം. കൊൽക്കത്തയുടെയും ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിന്റെയും ഭൂതകാലചരിത്രത്തിൽ നിന്നും വ്യത്യസ്തമായി വർത്തമാനകാലത്തിന്റെ അതായത് സമകാലിക പ്രത്യേകതയുള്ള കഥാപാത്രമാണ് സി.എൻ.സി. ചാനൽ പ്രവർത്തകനായ സഞ്ജീവ്കുമാർ മിത്ര. മനുഷ്യന്റെ സ്വകാര്യതകളിലേയ്ക്കു പോലും ഒളിഞ്ഞുനോക്കുവാൻ മടിച്ചില്ലാത്ത ക്യാമറയുടെ സാന്നിധ്യം ആരാച്ചാരിൽ ഉടനീളമുണ്ട്. കച്ചവടതന്ത്രം എന്നത് ലോകത്തെ മുഴുവൻ കാർന്നുതിന്നുകൊണ്ടിരിക്കുന്ന ഒരു അർബുദമാണ്. ഇവിടെ അതിന്റെ പ്രതിനിധിയാണ് സഞ്ജീവ്കുമാർ മിത്ര. ഉൽപ്പന്നങ്ങളുടെ പരസ്യങ്ങളിൽ കുടുങ്ങുന്ന ഉപഭോക്താക്കളെപ്പോലെ സഞ്ജീവ് മിത്രയുടെ വാക്കുകളിൽ ചേതനയുടെ പിതാവായ ഫണിഭൂഷൺ ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിന് നില തെറ്റുന്നു. എന്നാൽ ആ നിലതെറ്റലിലും ജനങ്ങളുടെ കാഴ്ചപ്പാടിൽ വന്ന മാറ്റത്തെയും നോവലിസ്റ്റ് കാട്ടിത്തരുന്നു. അതായത് തന്റെ ലക്ഷ്യസാധ്യത്തിനുള്ള ഒരു ഉപകരണമായി അദ്ദേഹം മാധ്യമത്തെ കാണുന്നു.

ചുറ്റും കാണുന്ന ഏതൊരു സംഭവത്തെയും തന്റെ മാധ്യമത്തിന്റെ എക്സ്ക്ലൂസീവ് ആക്കാൻ ശ്രമിക്കുന്ന ഒരു നവമാധ്യമ പ്രതിനിധിയാണ് സഞ്ജീവ്കുമാർ മിത്ര. ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിന്റെ കുടുംബത്തിന്റെ ദാരിദ്ര്യത്തെയും നിസ്സഹായതയേയും മുതലെടുക്കുകയാണ് അയാൾ. ചേതന എന്ന വ്യക്തിയിലൂടെ അയാളുടെ ക്യാമറ കണ്ണുകൾ സഞ്ചരിക്കുന്നത് നോവലിന്റെ തുടക്കത്തിൽതന്നെ കാണാൻ കഴിയുന്നു. മിത്രയോട് സ്ത്രീസഹജമായ ഒരാധന ചേതനയ്ക്ക് ഉണ്ടാകുന്നുണ്ട്. എന്നാൽ രാമുദായുടെ നിസ്സഹായാവസ്ഥയും തന്റെ ചാനലിന് ചുടുള്ള വാർത്തയാക്കാൻ ശ്രമിക്കുന്ന മിത്രയുടെ ക്യാമറ അവൾ തട്ടിയെറിയുന്നു. ഇതിൽ അരിശം മുത്ത മിത്ര നിന്നെ ഒരിക്കലേകിലും ഒന്ന് അനുഭവിക്കണം എന്ന് ചേതനയോട് പറയുമ്പോൾ അവൾ അയാളെ എഴുന്നൂറ്റി ഇരുപത്തിയേഴ് വിധത്തിൽ കഴുത്തിൽ കുടുക്കിട്ട് ലിവർ വലിക്കുന്നതായി സങ്കല്പിക്കുന്നു.

മാധ്യമങ്ങൾ വിചാരിച്ചാൽ നടക്കാത്തതായി ഒന്നുമില്ല എന്നൊരു ധാരണ മിത്രയിലൂടെ നമുക്ക് കാട്ടിത്തരാൻ എഴുത്തുകാരി ശ്രമിച്ചിട്ടുണ്ട്. സി.എൻ.സി. ചാനൽ നടത്തുന്ന കമ്പനിയുടെ പ്രസിദ്ധീകരണത്തിൽ ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിന്റെ ആത്മകഥ പ്രസിദ്ധീകരിക്കാൻ താല്പര്യമുണ്ടെന്ന മിത്രയുടെ ആഗ്രഹത്തെ അദ്ദേഹം നിരുത്സാഹപ്പെടുത്തുമ്പോൾ ചേതനയുടെ ജോലിക്കാര്യത്തെക്കുറിച്ച് ഒന്നുകൂടി ചിന്തിക്കേണ്ടിവരുമെന്ന് മിത്ര ഭീഷണിയുടെ സ്വരം മുഴക്കുന്നു. നിരാലംബരുടെ മുന്നിൽ കയ്യുക്ക് കാട്ടുന്ന മാധ്യമപ്രവർത്തകനായി മാറുന്നു അയാൾ. ചേതനയെ വിവാഹം കഴിക്കും എന്ന വാഗ്ദാനം മുന്നേ തന്നെ നൽകി ഗൃദ്ധാമല്ലിക്കിനെ തന്റെ വരുതിയിലാക്കിയിരുന്ന മിത്ര ഒടുവിൽ അയാളിരുന്നിടം രൂപയ്ക്ക് ചേതനയെ തന്റെ ചാനലിലേയ്ക്ക് ദത്തെടുക്കുന്നു. അങ്ങനെ സി.എൻ.സി. ചാനൽ നടത്തുന്ന ഹാങ്ങ്വുമാൻ ഡയറിയിലേക്ക് വധശിക്ഷ നടപ്പാക്കുന്നതുവരെ ചേതനയെ ഒറ്റിയ്ക്കെടുക്കുന്നു സഞ്ജീവ്കുമാർമിത്ര എന്ന സമകാലിക മാധ്യമക്കഴുക്കൻ.

ചാനൽ പരിപാടിയുടെ റേറ്റിംഗ് വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുക എന്നത് മാത്രമാണ് മാനുഷികത നഷ്ടപ്പെട്ട മാധ്യമപ്രവർത്തകന്റെ ലക്ഷ്യമെന്ന് കാട്ടിത്തരുന്നതാണ് മിത്രയുടെ പ്രവർത്തികൾ ഓരോന്നും. യതീന്ദ്രനാഥ ബാനർജിയുടെ ഭാര്യ കോകിലയേയും അമ്മയേയും അവരുടെ വികാരങ്ങളേയും അയാൾ തന്റെ ചാനൽ വിഭവത്തിനായി ഉപയോഗിക്കുന്നു. തൂക്കിക്കൊല കഴിഞ്ഞ് ജയിൽവളപ്പിന് പുറത്തെത്തുന്ന ചേതനയെ പോലീസുകാർക്ക് കൈമടക്ക് കൊടുത്ത് തന്ത്രപൂർവ്വം തന്റെ ചാനലിലേയ്ക്ക് എത്തിക്കുന്നു. ജ്യേഷ്ഠന്റെ വധശിക്ഷ ചാനൽ പ്രേക്ഷകർക്കുവേണ്ടി ആവർത്തിക്കുവാൻ അനുജനായ കാർത്തിക് ബാനർജിയെ സ്റ്റുഡിയോയിൽ എത്തിച്ച് ഒരു തൂക്കുമരവും കയറും സ്റ്റുഡിയോ ഫ്ലോറിൽ തയ്യാറാക്കിവയ്ക്കുകയാണ് മിത്ര. മനുഷ്യത്വത്തിന്റെ സമസ്ത തലങ്ങളും കൈമോശം വന്ന ഒരു നവീന കച്ചവട ചങ്ങലയിലെ ബലവത്തായ ഒരു കണ്ണിയായി മാറുകയാണ് മിത്ര എന്ന നരാധമൻ ഇവിടെ. ഒടുവിൽ അവനവൻ കുഴിക്കുന്ന കുഴിയിൽ അവനവൻ തന്നെ എന്ന ചൊല്ലി അന്വർത്ഥമാക്കി ആ കുരുക്കിൽ സ്വന്തം കഴുത്തിടാൻ വിധിക്കപ്പെടുന്നു.

മറ്റുള്ളവരുടെ സന്തോഷത്തേയും സങ്കടത്തേയും അതിന്റെ ആഴവും പരപ്പും മനസ്സിലാക്കാതെ, ഔചിത്യം നോക്കാതെ കടന്നുകയറി ഭാവനാതീതമായി കഥകൾ മെനയുന്ന മാധ്യമസംസ്കാരത്തെയാണ് ഇന്ന് കാണാൻ കഴിയുന്നത്. വാർത്ത മരണമായാലും കൊലപാതകമായാലും വധശിക്ഷയായാലും പീഡനമായാലും ആഘോഷിക്കുകയാണ് അവർ. അത്തരം മാധ്യമങ്ങളെ രാഷ്ട്രീയാധികാരശക്തികൾ പോലും ഭയപ്പെടുന്നു. തനിക്ക് അതീതമായി ചിന്തിക്കുന്നവനെ, സംസാരിക്കുന്നവനെ തകർത്തുകളയാൻ തന്ത്രങ്ങൾ മെനയുന്ന മാധ്യമത്തിന്റെ ശക്തനായ ഒരു പ്രതിനിധിയായിട്ടാണ് സഞ്ജീവ്കുമാർ മിത്ര ആരാച്ചാരിൽ മിന്നിത്തിളങ്ങുന്നത്.

**സഹായക ഗ്രന്ഥങ്ങൾ**

1. എരുമേലി പരമേശ്വരൻപിള്ള, മലയാള സാഹിത്യം കാലഘട്ടങ്ങളിലൂടെ
2. ഡോ. കെ.കെ. ശിവദാസ് (എഡിറ്റർ), മലയാള നോവൽ രണ്ടായിരത്തിനൂറുശേഷം
3. കെ.ആർ. മീര, ആരാച്ചാർ
4. ഡോ. എൻ.എം. സണ്ണി (എഡിറ്റർ), നോവൽ വായന അനുഭവം

ദൃശ്യസംസ്കാരവും മലയാളിയുടെ മാറുന്ന ജീവിതശൈലിയും

NIMMY KURIAN

Assistant Professor in Malayalam, Pavanatma College, Murickassery  
nimmyk9@gmail.com

സംഗ്രഹം

സംസ്കാരവും സാഹിത്യവും ഇഴചിരിക്കാനാവാത്ത വിധം ചേർന്നുനിൽക്കുന്ന ഘടകങ്ങൾ ആണ്. വിവിധ സംസ്കാരങ്ങളിലുണ്ടാകുന്ന വികാസ പരിണാമങ്ങളുടെ രേഖാചിത്രം ഓരോ കാലഘട്ടങ്ങളിലെയും സംസ്കാരങ്ങളിലെയും, സാഹിത്യകൃതികളെ അവലോകനം ചെയ്യുന്നതിലൂടെ മനസ്സിലാക്കാവുന്നതാണ്. ഉത്തരാധുനിക സാഹിത്യ ചർച്ചകളിലെ ഒരു പ്രധാനഘടകം എന്ന നിലയിൽ സംസ്കാരത്തിൽ മാധ്യമങ്ങളുടെ സ്വാധീനത വിലയിരുത്താവുന്നതുമാണ്. അതിനാൽതന്നെ ഒരു ശരാശരി മലയാളിയുടെ ജീവിതത്തെ ബഹുജന മാധ്യമങ്ങൾ പ്രത്യേകിച്ച് ടെലിവിഷൻ, എപ്രകാരം സ്വാധീനിക്കുന്നു എന്ന പഠനം പ്രാധാന്യമർഹിക്കുന്നു.

‘വാർത്തകളും, വിനോദവും, വിജ്ഞാനവും വിദ്യാഭ്യാസവും, സാമൂഹിക സാംസ്കാരിക പെരുമാറ്റ ചട്ടങ്ങളും സ്വഭാവരീതികളും ആശയങ്ങളും അനേകലക്ഷം ജനങ്ങളിൽ ഒരേസമയം എത്തിക്കാൻ ഉപയോഗിക്കുന്ന ശാസ്ത്ര സാങ്കേതിക സാമഗ്രഹികളാണ് ബഹുജനമാധ്യമങ്ങൾ എന്നതുകൊണ്ട് അർത്ഥമാക്കുന്നത്. ഇന്ന് ജനപ്രിയ സംസ്കാരത്തിന്റെ അവിഭാജ്യഘടകമാണ് ബഹുജനമാധ്യമങ്ങൾ. ടെലിവിഷൻ, റേഡിയോ, ഇന്റർനെറ്റ് പത്രമാസികകൾ, മൊബൈൽ ഫോൺ എന്നിങ്ങനെ നീളുന്ന ബഹുജനമാധ്യമങ്ങളുടെ പട്ടികയിൽ മുൻപന്തിയിൽ നിൽക്കുന്ന മാധ്യമമാണ് ടെലിവിഷൻ. അചേതനമായ ഈ വസ്തു (ടെലിവിഷൻ) ഒരു ശരാശരി മലയാളിയുടെ ജീവിതത്തെ എത്രമാത്രം സ്വാധീനിച്ചിട്ടുണ്ട്? അതിന്റെ പരിണിത ഫലങ്ങൾ എന്തൊക്കെയാണ്? എന്ന് ചിന്തിക്കാം. നമ്മുടെ സംസ്കാരത്തിലും ബാഹ്യമായ ജീവിതശൈലിയിലും ടെലിവിഷൻ വിപ്ലവകരമായ മാറ്റങ്ങൾ വരുത്തിയിട്ടുണ്ട്, വരുത്തിക്കൊണ്ടിരിക്കുന്നു എന്നതാണ് സത്യം.

ടെലിവിഷന്റെ ആരം ഉദ്ദേശം തന്നെ വിനോദ, വിദ്യാഭ്യാസ, വിജ്ഞാന പരിപാടികൾ ജനങ്ങളിൽ എത്തിക്കുക എന്നതായിരുന്നു. പ്രത്യേകിച്ച് ഇന്ത്യ പോലുള്ള ഒരു വികസന രാജ്യത്തിൽ ദൂരദർശന്റെ സംപ്രേഷണത്തിനു പിന്നിലെ സാമൂഹിക ലക്ഷ്യങ്ങളും ആദർശങ്ങളും മഹനീയമാണ്. ദേശീയോദ്ഗ്രഥനം പ്രോത്സാഹിപ്പിക്കുക, ജനമനസ്സുകളിൽ ശാസ്ത്രീയമായ വീക്ഷണങ്ങളുണ്ടാക്കുക, സ്ത്രീക്ഷേമം, ശിശുക്ഷേമം, പിന്നോക്കാവസ്ഥയിലുള്ളവരുടെ ക്ഷേമം മുതലായവ എല്ലാത്തരം സാമൂഹിക ക്ഷേമ പരിപാടികൾക്കും ഊന്നൽ നൽകുക, തുടങ്ങിയ ഉന്നതാദർശങ്ങൾക്ക് പ്രാധാന്യം നൽകിക്കൊണ്ട് ആരംഭിച്ച ദൂരദർശന്റെ സംപ്രേഷണത്തിൽ പോലും ഈ വകകാര്യങ്ങൾ എത്രമാത്രം ഗൗരവതരമായി അവതരിപ്പിക്കപ്പെടുന്നുണ്ട് എന്ന് ചിന്തിക്കേണ്ടതാണ്. അപ്പോൾ പിന്നെ സിനിമയ്ക്കും, സീരിയലുകൾക്കും, റിയാലിറ്റി ഷോകൾക്കും മാത്രം പ്രാധാന്യം കൊടുക്കുന്ന മറ്റ് സ്വകാര്യ ചാനലുകളുടെ ശോചനീയാവസ്ഥ എടുത്തുപറയേണ്ട കാര്യമില്ല.

കുറഞ്ഞ ചെലവിൽ ജനങ്ങൾക്ക് അറിവും വിനോദവും പകരാൻ ടെലിവിഷൻ സഹായിക്കുന്നു എന്നത് ടെലിവിഷന്റെ ഒന്നാമത്തെ ഗുണമാണ്. എന്നിരുന്നാൽ തന്നെ മാനസിക വളർച്ചയ്ക്കും, ബൗദ്ധിക നിലവാരം ഉയർത്തുന്നതിനും, ആരോഗ്യപരമായ വൈകാരിക ബന്ധങ്ങൾക്കും ടെലിവിഷൻ എത്രമാത്രം പിന്തുണ നൽകുന്നു എന്നത് വിചിന്തനം ചെയ്യേണ്ട കാര്യമാണ്. ടെലിവിഷൻ

എന്ന ദൃശ്യ ശ്രവ്യ മാധ്യമം പ്രേക്ഷകർക്ക് മറ്റൊരെയും ആശ്രയിക്കേണ്ട കാര്യമില്ല. വായനയിലൂടെ അവനു ലഭിക്കുന്ന അറിവും വിശകലനാത്മക മനോഹരവും ഇവിടെ പരിമിതപ്പെടുന്നു എന്നതാണ് മറയ്ക്കപ്പെടുന്ന വസ്തുത. നമ്മുടെ സാംസ്കാരിക ജീവിതത്തിലും വ്യക്തിജീവിതത്തിലും നിർണ്ണായക സ്വാധീനം ചെലുത്തുന്ന മാധ്യമമാണ് ടെലിവിഷൻ. സാമൂഹിക സാംസ്കാരിക ജീർണ്ണതകളും ദുഷ്പ്രവണതകളും വിമർശിക്കപ്പെടുന്നുണ്ടെന്ന് പ്രത്യക്ഷത്തിൽ തോന്നുമെങ്കിലും സാമൂഹിക വൈകല്യങ്ങൾക്കും ദുഷിച്ച പ്രവണതകൾക്കുമെതിരെ പ്രതികരിക്കുന്ന ടെലിവിഷൻ പരിപാടികളുടെ എണ്ണം നാമമാത്രമാണ്. പുരോഗമനാശയങ്ങളും ശാസ്ത്രീയ ചിന്തകളും വളർത്താൻ പ്രേരിപ്പിക്കുന്നതിനു പകരം പഴയ ആചാരങ്ങളും അന്ധവിശ്വാസങ്ങളും പുനർജീവിപ്പിച്ച് മനുഷ്യനെ ഇരുണ്ട യുഗത്തിലേക്ക് മടക്കിക്കൊണ്ട് പോകാൻ ഉതകുന്ന സീരിയലുകളും മറ്റുമാണ് ഇന്ന് കൂടുതൽ ഉള്ളത്. ഇതിനു സമാന്തരമായി അമ്മായമ്മപ്പോരും, അവിഹിത ബന്ധങ്ങളും നിറഞ്ഞ കണ്ണീർപരമ്പരകളും മലയാളിയുടെ ആസ്വാദനതലത്തേയും കായികശേഷിയേയും പാടേ നശിപ്പിച്ചു കൊണ്ടിരിക്കുന്നു.

മറ്റൊന്നിനേക്കാളും, ജനങ്ങളുടെ മേൽ സ്വാധീനം ചെലുത്തുന്നത് ഇത്തരത്തിലുള്ള ടെലിവിഷൻ പരിപാടികളാണ്. നിമിഷംതോറും മിന്നിമറയുന്ന ദൃശ്യാനുഭൂതി പകർന്നു തരുന്ന ഈ വെള്ളി വെളിച്ചത്തിന്റെ മുൻപിലേക്കാണ് ഇന്നത്തെ കുട്ടികൾ ജനിച്ചുവീഴുന്നത്. ഈ മാധ്യമ ലോകത്തിലെ കഥാപാത്രങ്ങളും അവരുടെ സംഘങ്ങളുമെല്ലാം കുട്ടികൾ അനുകരിക്കുന്നതിൽ അർത്ഥപ്പെടാനില്ല. ഇന്ന് വിവിധ ചാനലുകളിൽ സംപ്രേഷണം ചെയ്യുന്ന പരിപാടികളെ സാമാന്യമായി അപഗ്രഥിച്ച് നോക്കുകയാണെങ്കിൽ അവയിൽ ഭൂരിഭാഗവും വിലകുറഞ്ഞ വിനോദപരിപാടികളാണെന്ന് കാണാം. സൂത്രയുടെയും അതിർവരമ്പുകൾ കണ്ടത്തുകതന്നെ വളരെ പ്രയാസം.

ഉള്ളൂർ കൈയ്യിലൊതുങ്ങുന്ന റിമോട്ടിന്റെ ഒരു ചെറിയ ബട്ടൺ അമർത്തുന്നതിലൂടെ വിചിത്രമായ ഒരു പശ്ചാത്തലമാണ് ഇന്നത്തെ യുവ തലമുറ സ്വന്തമാക്കുന്നത്. അക്രമവും, ഹിംസാത്മകതയും മുറ്റിനിൽക്കുന്ന സംഘങ്ങളുടെ ശകലങ്ങൾ, തീവ്ര പടർത്തുന്ന രംഗങ്ങൾ, മരണങ്ങൾ കൊലപാതകങ്ങൾ, സ്ത്രീകളെ വിലകുറച്ചുകാണിക്കുന്ന രീതികൾ, ബലാത്സംഗങ്ങൾ, സ്ത്രീപീഡനങ്ങൾ തുടങ്ങിയവ കുത്തി നിറച്ച സീരിയലുകളും സിനിമകളും കണ്ടും ആസ്വദിച്ചുമാണ് മലയാളിയുടെ ദിനങ്ങൾ കടന്നുപോകുന്നത്. കുട്ടികൾ കാണുന്ന പരിപാടികളുടെ ഹിംസാത്മകവും ഇത്തരത്തിലുള്ള അക്രമങ്ങൾ ആയതുകൊണ്ടുതന്നെ ബാഹ്യലോകത്തോടുള്ള അവരുടെ സമീപനവും അത്തരത്തിലുള്ളതായി മാറുന്നു. നിത്യവും കാണുന്ന ഇത്തരത്തിലുള്ള വൈകൃതം നിറഞ്ഞ പെരുമാറ്റരീതികൾ അവരിലുള്ള ദയ, ദീനാനുകമ്പ തുടങ്ങിയ ആർദ്ര വികാരങ്ങളെ ഉന്മൂലനം ചെയ്യുന്നു. ഈ വിസ്മയ ലോകത്തിന്റെ കുരുക്കിൽപ്പെട്ട് അവർക്ക് നഷ്ടപ്പെടുന്നത് മുത്തശ്ശികഥകളുടെ നേരും നെരിവും, ഇണക്കങ്ങളുടെയും പിണക്കങ്ങളുടേതുമായ നന്മ നിറഞ്ഞ ഒരു കൂട്ടായ്മയുമാണ്. അയൽപക്കത്തെ കുട്ടികളോടൊപ്പം തകർത്തുല്ലസിച്ച് ബാല്യവും കൗമാരവും ആഘോഷിക്കാൻ ഇന്നത്തെ പുതുതലമുറയ്ക്ക് സമയമില്ലാത്തതും ഈ നിർജ്ജീവ വസ്തുവിന്റെ സ്വാധീനത ഒന്നു മാത്രമാണ്. തന്മൂലം തന്നിലേക്കുതന്നെ ചുരുങ്ങി ഒറ്റപ്പെട്ട ദ്വീപിൽ എന്ന പോലെ ജീവിതം ചെലവഴിക്കാൻ അവർ നിർബന്ധിതരായിത്തീരുന്നു. ദിനംതോറും മദ്യപാനവും പുകവലിയും നിറഞ്ഞ രംഗങ്ങളുള്ള സീരിയലുകളും സിനിമകളും കാണുന്നവർ ഇത് നിത്യജീവിതത്തിലെ ശീലങ്ങളിലൊന്നായി കരുതി ഇത്തരം രീതികളെ സ്വാംശീകരിക്കാനുള്ള സാധ്യത വളരെ കൂടുതലാണ്.

സീരിയലുകളെപ്പോലെ തന്നെ കുടുംബസദസ്സുകൾ ഒന്നടങ്കം ഇരുകൈയും നീട്ടി സ്വീകരിച്ചിരിക്കുന്ന റിയാലിറ്റി ഷോയാണ് ടെലിവിഷൻ പരിപാടികളിലെ പുതു തരംഗം. കലയുടെ പ്രോൽസാഹനമാണ് ഇത്തരം പരിപാടികൾ ലക്ഷ്യമാക്കുന്നതെങ്കിലും വൻ ലാഭം കൊതിയും കച്ചവടതന്ത്രങ്ങളുമാണ് ഇതിനു പിന്നിൽ. ജീവിത പ്രശ്നങ്ങളും പ്രാരാബ്ധങ്ങളും പങ്കാളിയുടെ കുറ്റങ്ങളും കുറവുകളുമെല്ലാം റിയാലിറ്റി ഷോകളിലൂടെ വിളിച്ചുപറഞ്ഞ് സമൂഹത്തെ മുഴുവൻ അറിയിക്കാൻ മലയാളികൾക്കിന്ന് യാതൊരു മടിയുമില്ല. വ്യക്തി ജീവിതത്തിന്റെ സ്വകാര്യത ഹനിക്കപ്പെടുന്ന ഇത്തരം പരിപാടികളിലൂടെ ഒരു ശരാശരി മലയാളി പ്രേഷകനു കിട്ടുന്ന ധാർമിക സാംസ്കാരിക മൂല്യം എന്താണ്. മാതൃഘണ്ടയുടെ തെറ്റായ പ്രയോഗങ്ങളും രീതികളും, നമ്മുടെ സംസ്കാരത്തോടു കൂറു

പുലർത്താത്ത വസ്ത്രധാരണ രീതിയും ചുരുക്കിപ്പറഞ്ഞാൽ പശ്ചാത്യ സംസ്കാരത്തിന്റെ വികലമായ അനുകരണവും മാത്രമാണ് ഇത്തരം കലാവിനോദ പരിപാടികളിൽസംവേദനം ചെയ്യുന്നത്

മാനസികാരോഗ്യത്തോടൊപ്പം ശാരീരികാരോഗ്യവും നശിപ്പിക്കുന്നതിൽ ടെലിവിഷൻ മുഖ്യ പങ്ക് വഹിക്കുന്നു. കുട്ടികളിലും യുവാക്കളിലും ഇന്ന് നേത്ര വൈകല്യങ്ങൾ കൂടി വരുന്നത് ഇതിന്റെ തെളിവാണ്. മണിക്കൂറുകൾ ടെലിവിഷൻ സെറ്റിനു മുൻപിൽ ചടഞ്ഞുകൂടിയിരിക്കുന്ന ബാല്യവും, കൗമാരവും,യുവത്വവും സമ്പാദിക്കുന്നത് ഗൗരവതരമായ ആരോഗ്യ പ്രശ്നങ്ങളാണ് എന്നതാണ് യാതഥ്യം. പ്രതികരണ ശൂന്യരായ, അനാരോഗ്യം പേറുന്ന ഒരു യുവ തലമുറയാണ് ഇതിന്റെ പരിണിത ഫലം. ദീർഘമായ ഇരിപ്പു കൊണ്ട് പ്രായമായവരുടേയും കായികക്ഷമത നശിക്കുകയും ദേഹാസ്വസ്ഥങ്ങൾ വർധിക്കുകയും ചെയ്യുന്നു.

ടെലിവിഷൻ പരസ്യങ്ങളാണ് മലയാളിയുടെ ജീവിത ശൈലിയെ, സാംസ്കാരിക പശ്ചാത്തലത്തെ മാറ്റിമറിച്ച മറ്റൊരു പ്രധാന ഘടകം എല്ലാ പരസ്യവും കൈമാറ്റം ചെയ്യുന്നത് ഓരോ ആശയ ചിഹ്നങ്ങളാണ്. ഈ ആശയ കൈമാറ്റം ഇന്ന് അപകടകരമായ രീതിയിലേക്ക് എത്തിച്ചേർന്നിരിക്കുന്നു. ആശയം സംവേദനം ചെയ്യുക എന്നതിനപ്പുറം ആശയങ്ങൾ അബോധാത്മകമായി അടിച്ചേൽപ്പിക്കുക എന്ന നിലയാണ് ഇന്ന് കൈവന്നിരിക്കുന്നത്. കൈമാറ്റം ചെയ്യപ്പെടുന്ന ഈ ആശയങ്ങൾ ഏതങ്കിലും വസ്തുക്കളേയോ സേവനങ്ങളേയോ സംബന്ധിച്ചുള്ളവയായിരിക്കും. ഇവ പലപ്പോഴും അത്യാവശ്യമുള്ളവയുമായിരിക്കില്ല. അറിയിക്കുക എന്ന പ്രാഥമിക ധർമ്മവും, പ്രേരിപ്പിക്കുക എന്ന ദ്വിതീയ ധർമ്മവും അംഗീകരിക്കാവുന്നതാണ്. എന്നാൽ ആവശ്യം അടിച്ചേൽപ്പിച്ച് ഒരു പുത്തൻ ജീവിതശൈലി വാർത്തെടുക്കാൻ പരസ്യങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യുന്ന സ്വാധീനം ഗൗരവമർഹിക്കുന്ന പ്രശ്നമാണ്. ആഹാരം, വസ്ത്രം, പാർപ്പിടം ഇവയാണല്ലോ മനുഷ്യന്റെ പ്രാധമികാവശ്യങ്ങൾ.അതുകൊണ്ടു തന്നെ ഈഘട്ടങ്ങളിലാണ് ടെലിവിഷൻ പരസ്യത്തിന്റെ മാസ്മതികശക്തി പ്രവർത്തനം തുടരുന്നതും.

ഈ ഘടകങ്ങളുമായിബന്ധപ്പെട്ടു വരുമ്പോഴാണ് പരസ്യങ്ങൾ വളർത്തുന്ന ഉപഭോക്താക്കളുടെ തീവ്രത മനസിലാവുന്നത്. അടിസ്ഥാനാവശ്യങ്ങൾ തൃപ്തികരമായി നിറവേറ്റാൻ കഴിയുന്നവരിൽ അനാവശ്യമായ കുറേ ആവശ്യങ്ങൾഅബോധാത്മകമായി കുത്തി വയ്ക്കുകയാണ് ടെലിവിഷൻ പരസ്യങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യുന്നത്. പരസ്യങ്ങളിലൂടെ നിത്യവും കാണുന്ന ഉൽപ്പന്നങ്ങളും ആശയങ്ങളും സേവനങ്ങളുമെല്ലാം താരതമ്യേന ഉയർന്ന ജീവിത നിലവാരത്തിലുള്ളവരെ മാത്രം കേന്ദ്രീകരിച്ചിട്ടുള്ളവയാണ്. ഇതിലൂടെ ഒരു സാധാരണ മനുഷ്യൻ എന്തു ക്ഷിക്കണം, എന്തു ധരിക്കണം, എങ്ങനെ ഗൃഹത്തിനു മോടികൂട്ടണം തുടങ്ങിയവയെക്കുറിച്ച് അബോധാത്മകമായ ചിന്ത പരസ്യം പ്രധാനം ചെയ്യുന്നു. ആദ്യകാലങ്ങളിൽ അറിയിക്കുക എന്ന ലക്ഷ്യത്തിൽ കവിഞ്ഞ് മറ്റൊരു ലക്ഷ്യവും പരസ്യത്തിനുണ്ടായിരുന്നില്ല. എന്നാൽ ഇന്ന് ആവശ്യം സൃഷ്ടിക്കുകയാണ് പരസ്യത്തിന്റെ ലക്ഷ്യം. ഈ അനാവശ്യമായ ആവശ്യസൃഷ്ടി ജീവിത ശൈലിയിൽ സാരമായ മാറ്റങ്ങൾ സൃഷ്ടിക്കുന്നു.

ഒന്നാമതായി പരസ്യസാധനങ്ങളുടെ പരസ്യം എടുത്തുനോക്കാം. യാഥാർത്ഥ്യവും പരസ്യങ്ങളിലെ ജീവിതവുമായി ഞെട്ടിക്കുന്ന അന്തരമുണ്ടെന്ന് കാണാവുന്നതാണ്. നാടൻ ക്ഷണ പഥാർത്ഥങ്ങളെക്കാൾ ഫാസ്റ്റ് ഫുഡിനും, പായ്ക്കറ്റ് ഫുഡിനും ശീതള പാനീയങ്ങൾക്കുമാണ് പരസ്യ നിർമ്മിത ജീവിത ശൈലിയിൽ മേന്മ കൽപ്പിക്കുന്നത്. ദോഷകരമായ ഈ ക്ഷണ പരിഷ്കാരം പരസ്യങ്ങളുടെ മാത്രം സംഭാവനയാണ്. വസ്ത്ര ആരണങ്ങളുടെ കാര്യത്തിലും ആഡംബര പ്രമം സൃഷ്ടിക്കുകയാണ് പരസ്യങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യുന്നത്. പുത്തൻ ഫാഷൻ പ്രമം സൃഷ്ടിക്കുന്നതിനും അടുക്കള സാമഗ്രികൾ,വീട്ടുപകരണങ്ങൾ മുതലായവ വാങ്ങാൻ പ്രേരിപ്പിച്ച് സമൂഹത്തിന്റെ ആവശ്യമാക്കി മാറി ധനിക ജീവിത ശൈലി രൂപപ്പെടുത്തിയെടുക്കാൻ പരസ്യങ്ങൾ നിർബന്ധിക്കുന്നു. ഇതേ സമൂഹത്തിന്റെ തന്നെ അടിസ്ഥാന ആവശ്യങ്ങൾ നിറവേറ്റാൻ സാധിക്കാത്ത നിരവധി ജനങ്ങൾ ഉണ്ടെന്നുള്ള വസ്തുത വിസ്മരിക്കപ്പെടുന്നു. ഉപഭോക്താക്കളുടെ, ആഡംബര പ്രമം തുടങ്ങിയ ബാഹ്യതല സ്പർശിയായ കാര്യങ്ങളേപ്പോലെ ചില മാനസിക വൈകല്യങ്ങളും പരസ്യത്തിന്റെ

സ്വാധീനത്തിലൂടെ ഉണ്ടാകുന്നുണ്ട്. പരസ്യങ്ങളിലെ മോഡലുകളും വസ്ത്രധാരണ രീതിയുമാണ് ഇവിടെ വിവക്ഷിക്കുന്നത്. പുരുഷന്മാരെ ലക്ഷ്യം വയ്ക്കുന്ന ഉൽപ്പന്നമാണെങ്കിൽ പോലും ( വൈക്ക് അടിവസ്ത്രങ്ങൾ ) അവിടെ പ്രാധാന്യം കൽപ്പിക്കപ്പെടുന്നത് ഉൽപ്പന്നത്തിനോ പുരുഷ മോഡലിനോ അല്ല, മറിച്ച് സ്ത്രീ മോഡലിന്റെ അർദ്ധ നഗ്ന ശരീരത്തിനാണ്. ഇത്തരം പരസ്യങ്ങൾ ഒരളവുവരെ ലൈംഗിക അരാചകത്വത്തിലേക്ക് സമൂഹത്തെ നയിക്കൻ ഉതകുന്നവയാണ്. സ്ത്രീയെ വെറും വിൽപ്പനച്ചരക്കാക്കി മാറ്റി വികലമായ ധാരണ ഉളവാക്കുകയാണ് ഇത്തരം പരസ്യങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യുന്നത്. മറ്റൊരു ഉദാഹരണമെടുത്താൽ സ്ത്രീകളും, പുരുഷന്മാരും കുട്ടികളും പ്രായമായവരും എല്ലാവരും ഉപയോഗിക്കുന്ന സോപ്പിന്റെ പരസ്യത്തിനാണെങ്കിൽ പോലും മോഡലുകൾ അർദ്ധ നഗ്ന സുന്ദരികളാണ്. ഇത്തരം പരസ്യങ്ങളിൽ പുരുഷ മോഡലുകളെ കാണിക്കാൻ പോലും സാധ്യമല്ല. ഇവിടെയെല്ലാം സത്രീത്വം കച്ചവടവൽക്കരിക്കപ്പെടുന്നു.

കോടിക്കണക്കിനാലുകളെ സ്വാധീനിക്കുന്ന സാമൂഹിക പ്രതി ധസമായ ടെലിവിഷൻ ഒരു സാമൂഹിക വിപത്താണെന്നു പറഞ്ഞ് തള്ളിക്കളയാൻ ഒരിക്കലും സാധിക്കുകയില്ല. കാരണം ഈ ജനപ്രിയ മാധ്യമത്തിലൂടെ നമ്മുടെ സമൂഹത്തിനു ലഭിക്കുന്ന ഗുണങ്ങൾ നിരവധിയാണ്. ടെലിവിഷൻ എന്ന മാധ്യമത്തെ അതിന്റെ വൈവിധ്യത്തോടെ ഉൾക്കൊണ്ട് അത് വിനിമയം ചെയ്യുന്ന നന്മ തിന്മകളിലെ നെല്ലും പതിരും തിരിച്ചറിയേണ്ടത് പ്രേക്ഷക സമൂഹം തന്നെയാണ്. ഈ മാധ്യമത്തെ ഗുണാത്മകമായി സമീപിക്കുകയും അതിലൂടെ നമ്മുടെ സാംസ്കാരിക തനിമയെ നിലനിർത്തുകയും ചെയ്യേണ്ടത് നാം ഓരോരുത്തരുമാണ്.

**സഹായക ഗ്രന്ഥങ്ങൾ**

1. ഡോ. ജെ.വി. വിളനിലം, ആ ലോകം മുതൽ ഈ ലോകം വരെ,കേരള റഷ്യ ഇൻസ്റ്റിറ്റ്യൂട്ട്,2003
2. ജോസി ജോസഫ്, പരസ്യ കല സ്മാത്തങ്ങളും, പ്രയോഗങ്ങളും, എസ്പെറാന്റോ, പബ്ലി കേഷൻസ്, 2009
3. കെ. എസ് രാജശേഖരൻ, കേരള റഷ്യ ഇൻസ്റ്റിറ്റ്യൂട്ട്,2004
4. എം. വി. തോമസ്, മാധ്യമങ്ങളും, മലയാള സാഹിത്യവും, സാംസ്കാരിക പ്രസിദ്ധീകരണ വകുപ്പ്,2004
5. മാധ്യമങ്ങളും ആനുകാലിക സാമൂഹിക പ്രശ്നങ്ങളും ചരിത്രപരമായ ഒരു സമീപനം, കേരള റഷ്യ ഇൻസ്റ്റിറ്റ്യൂട്ട്,2005