

**CHILD LABOUR IN UTTAR PRADESH DURING
1981-1991: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY**

**Dissertation submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University in partial
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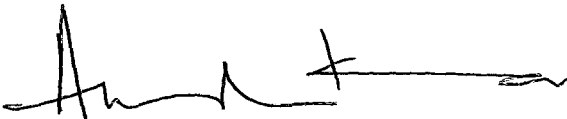
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CERTIFICATE


I, Uma Uttam, certify that the dissertation entitled “CHILD LABOUR IN UTTAR PRADESH DURING 1981-1991: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY” for the degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY is my bonafide work and may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.


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DEDICATED TO

MY BELOVED LATE MOTHER

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"Child labour has serious consequences that stay with the individual and with society for far longer than the years of childhood. Young workers not only face dangerous working conditions. They face long term physical, intellectual and emotional stress. They face an adulthood of unemployment and illiteracy"

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

The complex issue of child labour is a developmental issue worth investigating. The notion that children are being exploited and forced into labour, while not receiving education crucial to development, concerns many people. India is the largest example of a nation plagued by the problem of child labour.

What are the causes of child labour in India? How do governmental policies affect it? What role does education play in regard to child labour in India? A critical analysis of the answers to these questions may lead in the direction of a possible solution. This study attempts to answer these questions through an analysis of the problem of child labour as it is now, investigating how prevalent it is and what types of child labour exist in the Uttar Pradesh. The necessity of child labour to poor families and the role of poverty as a determinant are also examined. Governmental policies and laws concerning child labour are investigated. The study also looks in to Government Compulsory education policies and their relationship to child labour.

The work of various international inter-governmental organizations like ILO, UNICEF, UNESCO, World Bank etc in the field of child labour eradication has also been discussed. A special emphasis on the analysis of role of NGOs, International and local both, has been given.

Children are asset for any society. Child role is important for the development of the society and civilization of our ages. The prosperity of the society as well as the nation is hidden within the potentialities of the children and their creative activities. They are future citizen of country. In fact whatever we do for our children we do to ensure our own future and future of the country. It is the responsibility of the society to nurture them through various phases of their development to enable them to make a meaningful contribution to the society. In modern society the concept of human resources keep its deep root around children.

Child labour is not meant to work or earn. So the emphasis is given on the equal physical, mental, educational and intellectual development of the children. They need

adequate amount of support, care and warmth from the adults. Unfortunately millions of children in India are deprived of a proper childhood in the sense that they are not provided with the adequate condition for their overall physical and mental development. Instead they are forced to enter the workforce at an early age. The need of nutritious food, shelter, clothing and sleep, child's inner life emotions must be recognized and cultivated. Since these emotions of a child are the source of power can lead to a personal uplift or degradation directing the individual intellect into creative activities and well being of human life or into antisocial channels.¹ Childhood is the formative phase of life requiring appropriate care for growth and development.

There is no uniform definition of child, but generally a person between the ages 0–14 years is considered as a child. The child labour “ prohibition and regulation” Act 1896 defines a child up to the age of 14 years. The constitution of India defines a child up to the age of 14 years. United Nations considered a person as a child in between the age of 7 to 18 years. 1986

Children are our national wealth and future of our society as well as of the nation. Hence every society is expected to create a favourable environment and give adequate opportunities for the proper development of the potentials of the child. But the presence of child labour in the modern society deviates from this motive, which adversely affects proper physical, mental and intellectual development of the child. Million of children unfortunately in India are engaged in the economic activity mainly from the deprived section of the society.

WHAT IS CHILD LABOUR

The practice of child labour is not a recent phenomenon. It can be traced back to the industrial revolution when the surplus-seeking entrepreneurs drew children in to the labour market. As capitalism went through its various stages of development, the

¹ N. Kher, Durrant M.E. and K.K. Bhoota (1966), “An Introduction to child development”, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, pp. 141-146

phenomenon of child labour came to be concentrated in the developing economies or in areas where capitalism was still developing. Like poverty, illiteracy or other social problem, child labour too emerged as an endemic problem.

The term “Child labour” is often used synonymously with “employed child” or “working child.” The term child labour has been defined differently by different organizations agencies and countries. Even within the country, the definition of child labour may vary from state to state depending upon the interpretation of the acts related to children.

According to the Encyclopedia of Social Sciences (1979) “when the business the wage earning or of participation in itself or family support conflicts directly or indirectly with the business of growth and education, the result is child labour. According to “ ILO, Child labour includes children permanently leading adults lives, working long hours for low wages under conditions damaging to their health and to their physical and mental development, sometimes separated their families frequently deprived of meaningful educational and training opportunities that could open up for them a better future. Child labour is also defined as having an element of economic compulsion associated with it and involves a times and energy commitment which affects children’s ability to participate in leisure, play and educational activities.”

The operation Research group based in Baroda, defines child labour as “A child falling within the five to fifteen age bracket and is at remunerative work, may be paid or unpaid, and busy in any hour of the day within or outside the family.” Das’s 1984 definition of “child labour” refers to an economic practice and attendant social evil. Child labour as an economic practice signifies employment in gainful occupations and a material contribution to the labour income of the family.”²

V.V.Giri³ termed child labour first as an economic practice and second as social evil. In income practice children are employed in different occupations to raise the

² R. K. Das(1984) Child Labour in India; International Labour Organisation, P. 6.

³ V.V. Giri (1958), “Labour problems in Indian Industry” Asia publishing House, Bombay, P.29

household income. And child labour as a social evil where the children are deprived of their basic development in term of mental and physical capacities. Haks, the chairman of the united states national child labour commission has defined child labour as any work by children that interferes with their full physical development and their opportunities for desiable minimum level of education or their needed recreation. (Labour investigation committees, Main Report) (1986).

According to M. S. Subramaniam⁴ “Child labour means the employment of children in five to fourteen year of age gainful occupation, which are injurious to their physical, moral, social and mental development.” In India the concrete definition of child labour is not found. The child labour (Prohibition and Regulation Act) (1986) sets the condition of work for children in employment where they are not prohibited from working. In the absence of clear definition of what comprises child labour and conceptual differences and variations in the pattern of work, it becomes very difficult to make an estimate of child workers. This obstacle, as mentioned earlier, has been overcome in the child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act (1986), which seeks to obtain uniformity in the definition of child labour in the related laws.

Fyfe (1989) attempts to provide a distinction by differentiating between “Child Work” and “Child labour”. The former being seen as permissible and the latter as exploitation, “ Clearly, not all work is bad for children... there is little doubt that many children welcome the opportunity to work, seeing in it the site of passage to adulthood... work which does not detract from other essential activities for children, namely leisure, play and education is not child labour. Child labour is work which impairs the health and development of children.”⁵

The Concerned for Working Children (CWC), a Bangalore based group defines a child labour as a person who has not completed his/her 15th year of age and is

⁴ B. P. Singh and S. Mohanty (ed) (1993). “Children at work problem and policy options,” B. R. Publishing corporation Delhi, P. 135

⁵ Alec, fyfe (1989) : Child Labour, Cambridge polity press.

working with or without wages / income on a part time basis CWC, 1985) Others say that any child out of school is a child labour. It follows from the above definition that two major indications (a) exploitative and age have been used to define child labour. In the context of exploitation, UNICEF has given a comprehensive formulation in its attempt at defining child labour:

- Starting full-time work at too early age.
- Working too long within or outside the family and unable to attend school.
- Work resulting in excessive physical, social and psychological strains upon the child as in the case of sexual exploitation and pornography. Work in sweetshops as well as dangerous work as military service and mining work on the street is unhealthy and dangerous.
- Inadequate remuneration for working outside the family as in case of the child workers in carpet weaving who are paid US \$3 for 60 hours of work.
- Too much responsibility at too early age as in the domestic situation where children under 10 may have to look after younger brothers and sisters for whole day, thereby forgoing school attendance.
- Work does not facilitate the psychological and social development of the child as in full and repetitive tasks associated with industries like handicrafts.
- Work that inhibits the child self- esteem, as in bonded labour and prostitution and in less extreme cases the negative perception of street children.

However, the product side definition of child labour is any work within or outside the family that threatens health and mental development of the child by denying him or her fundamental as well as non- fundamental rights. According to the convention of the Rights of the Child (Art.32), “State parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or harmful to the child’s health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development”(Art. 32).

Child labour therefore is the work, which involves some degree of exploitation i.e. physical, mental, and economic. It denies the joy to children and access top social

opportunities (like education), which eventually impairs the personality and creativity the evolution and growth of full being and the health and mental development of child. The problem of child labour therefore, does not constitute the age of child, but its exploitation and abuse. The perception of what constitutes exploitation/abuse can be very subjective, as it is not easy to differentiate between the socialization aspects of a child's activity its exploitative aspects.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Participation of children in work is not a new phenomenon. It has existed in different in every society throughout human history. Mendelievich⁶ has rightly observed that "to a greater or lesser extent, children in every type of human society have always taken part, and still do take part in those economic activities which are necessary if the group to which they belong is to survive." Child labour has existed in one form or another in all historical times.

Children in India have been associated with work form immemorial time. The work that they were asked to undertake used to provide them an opportunity for direct fulfillment of their natural abilities and for creating potentialities and was thus conducive to their healthy growth and development. When the structure of society was not so complicated various occupations used to be pursued on the caste lines within the framework of joint family system in which the joys and sorrows, pleasure and pains, prosperity and poverty and business and idleness used to be shared. And needs of all members used to be fulfilled within the available family resources. Elders used to see that the work done by children provided them creative opportunities equipping them with healthy and meaningful experience and there was no adverse effect of work on the personality of children. Children were in fact given apprenticeship training in these family based occupations in the form of agriculture or agriculture based crafts and trades to prepare them to gradually take up various adult roles. Children used to work without any fear and full freedom in congenial family surrounding. Children used to be provided

⁶ Mendelievich Elias (ed)., (1979), "Children at Work", I L O Geneva, ,PP. 3-4

with opportunities to prepare them through the actual work training them to take up effectively various responsibilities later on.

Child population can be divided into three distinct subsets: those in schools, those who are economically active on a full-time basis, and those who participate in household activities not classified as gainful employment. The last category can be termed as *nowhere children*. The boundaries between the three subsets in our country are rather fuzzy. However, broad magnitudes particularly over time between four Census points are not only indicative of the dynamics of child labour and education but provide a reasonable approximation to the ground reality about sub-sets of child population.

According to Census of India, in 1961, India's male child population in the age group 5-14 was 5.9 crores. It increased to 7.9 crore in 1971, 9.4 crore in 1981 and 10.9 crore in 1991. Over 30 years, the male child population almost doubled. The proportion in schools increased from 39.8 per cent in 1961 to 56.6 per cent in 1991. Percentage of male child workers declined from 14.6 per cent in 1961 to 9.9 per cent in 1971. It further declined to 8.7 per cent in 1981 and was reported to be 5.7 per cent in 1991. In percentage terms, a decline from 14.6 per cent to 5.7 per cent in 30 years, is rather impressive.

In absolute terms, the number of full-time male child workers declined from about 86 lakhs in 1961 to about 62 lakhs in 1991. The number of *nowhere* male children was about 2.68 crore in 1961. It had increased to 4.11 crore in 1991. The number in schools was 2.35 crore in 1961 and had increased to 6.17 crore in 1991. Expansion in schooling of male children has been impressive but falls short of the need, thus swelling the ranks of *nowhere children*. If we restrict ourselves to proportions only, the school education has expanded and the percentage of *nowhere children* as well as in labour force has declined. However in absolute terms, it is only the number of full-time male child labour which has registered a decline. The other two sub-sets of child population have registered increases.

In 1961, there were 5.5 crore girls in the age group 5-14. A large majority of them (69.4 per cent) were *nowhere*, 10.6 per cent were in full-time labour force, and 20.1 per cent were in schools. In 1991, there were 10.06 crore girls in the age group 5-14. More than half of these (50.7 per cent) were *nowhere*, 5.1 per cent in labour force and 44.2 per cent in schools.

Comparison of the dynamics of male and female child population and the proportions of its three sub-sets bring out the following points. Firstly, in absolute numbers, there were 5.46 crore girls against 5.93 crore boys in 1961. In 1991, there were 10.06 crore girls against 10.9 crore boys thus the sex-ratio for girls became more adverse over period. Secondly, 5.1 crore girls were *nowhere* in 1991. Comparable figure for 1961 is 3.79 crore. In 30 years, 1.2 crore girls have been added to the stock (dynamically shifting) of girl children who were neither in schools nor in the labour force. Therefore really serious efforts are needed to improve the condition of the girl child. A major effort to provide meaningful school education will have to be mounted. Thirdly, both in terms of proportions and in terms of absolute numbers, the number of male as well as female full-time child labour has declined between 1961 and 1991. However it may be pointed out that the comparison of the 1961 and 1971 data must be done with precaution because the definitions of child labour are different in the 2 censuses (unpaid workers are not included in the 1971 census). The census data shows an overall child work participation rate of 12.69% in 1961 and 7.13% in 1971 which further declined to 5.37 percent in 1991.

Today children are required to work individually without being given the personal and paternalistic care that they used to get in earlier times while working in family undertakings within or outside the precincts of their houses. They perform different types of repetitive, monotonous, boring and hazardous jobs and are quite often maltreated and exploited. The effect of participation of children in work today is generally negative and harmful to their proper physical, moral mental development.

Children are compelled of circumstances to take up jobs that are imposed upon them. The work that children are compelled to do today is characterized by "long hours

of work, late hours or night employment, continuous standing, sitting or the use of a single set of muscles, emphasis on the finer neuro-muscular coordination with attendant nervous strain, indoor confinement in noisy factories and dusty trades, carrying heavy load, pressure of speed in the performance of simple mechanical acts, contact with industrial poisons, exposure to inclement whether harmful conditions for the growing child particularly susceptible to certain deformation and diseases.’’⁷

The condition of work and working conditions are so bad that the various functions performed by children today have converted their work into labour. The children work on nominal wages for long hours without any rest interval, educational or recreational facilities, beyond their capacity and against their wishes.

Due to rapid urbanisation and industrialization the whole social scenario has changed. The joint families started disintegrating which are capable of providing social and economic security. Now everyone in the family had to struggle hard to survive. The industrial revolution created vast demands for jobs, which pressed the children into labour market. Imperialist nature of industrialization compelled children to participate in the labour force, which were under their control.

The protection and promotion of interests of working children has become a subject of paramount importance today and no civilized society can afford to overlook it. The International Labour Organization enunciated several welfare measures were embodied with several conventions and recommendations. These conventions have been rectified and adopted by many of the member countries of ILO mainly the developed countries. But developing countries like India have not been able to adopt many of such conventions because of their socio-economic set up. And children are kept deprived of the basic amenities like education, nutritional food, medical facilities etc.

⁷Encyclopedia of Social Science (1980), pp.412-24

LITERATURE SURVEY

Child labour is widely prevalent in all over the world. However, the incidence of the child labour is more in developing countries. In India, child labour is a chronic problem. Awareness about this problem came early in developed countries and they more or less solved the problem now developing countries also making efforts to eradicate the child labour. In our country too, detailed analytical studies have been done. Various scholars have studied child labour problem in detail analyzing numerous factors which influences the child labour e.g. demographic, social and economic especially after independence. Moreover, Government, International organizations and NGOs have also done numerous studies and field research work.

The review of the existing literature presented here provides a broad idea of the work done in this field. Various factors as social and economic factors discussed separately, but they are very much interrelated and inter-dependent on each other.

SOCIAL FACTORS:

There are many social factors, which influence child labour. The important social factors as determinants of child labour are mainly literacy- schooling or enrolment of children and presence of scheduled castes and scheduled Tribes in population.

According to Mehta⁸ to a large extent agricultural labours and scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are overlapping categories. These together would cover 2/3rd of all rural people. She worked out the percentage of child labour in each state to the total child labour in the country and also the percentage of agricultural labour of the country and worked out the correlation between them. These two are significantly and positively correlated. Vemuri noticed in his study of child labour in India over 61 agro climatic regions defined by NSSO showed that the presence of scheduled castes in the region

⁸ Mehta, S.S. (1987), "Why Child Labours", A paper presented in the International Seminar on Child Labour, December 4-7, Gandhi Labour Institute, Ahmedabad.

increases the occurrences of the child labour.⁹ Singh¹⁰ in his study showed that among the total working children 72.5 percent belong to the backward castes followed by that of the scheduled castes 19.8 percent. Sharma, Kumar and Padmadev¹¹ observed the same fact and found the incidence of child labour is more in those areas which are socially, educationally and economically not well developed. Dinesh¹² in his study observed lower schooling rates and higher work participation among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. Mishra and Pandi¹³ noticed in a study that 81 percent of the child labour are males and most of them belong to the age group of 7 and above. Almost 45% of them could never attend the school and about 35% of them dropped out due to their compelling situation. Singh observed in Kurukshetra that parents were also illiterate. Parents of most of the children were very poor. Dube¹⁴ by studying different tribal groups in Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan found that children often started working even in the age of 7 or 8 years both inside and outside the home. Singh and Mohanty¹⁵ showed that the lack of education is the main cause of child labour. Lack of education leads to high fertility ultimately results in to higher child labour. According to Sandha and Tewari¹⁶ most of child labour are from the rural areas, who lacks in school facilities. Laskar¹⁷ in his study told that social and economic presence compel children to inter into low wages, hazardous work environment that proves detrimental to their educational and health

⁹ Vemuri, M. (1986), "Report on Child Worker on India: A Multivariate Analysis", International of Population Science, Bombay, pp. 125-137.

¹⁰ Singh, A.N. (1990), "Child Labour in India Socio-Economic Perspectives", Shipra Publication, Delhi, p.161.

¹¹ Sharma Indradeo, Kumar Bipin, Padmadev, K.B (1993), "Child Labour in India, Children at Work, Problem and Policy", Singh, Bhagwan Pd. Mohanty Shukla (ed) B.R. Publishing Corporation, Delhi, pp.21-32.

¹² Dinesh, B.M. (1988), op.cit, p.49.

¹³ Mishra, G.P. and Pandey, P.N. (1996), "Child Labour in Glass Industry", APH publishing Corporation, New Delhi, p.64.

¹⁴ Dube, Leela (1981), "The Economic Roles OF Children IN India: Methodological Issue" in Rodgers, G. and Standing, G. (ed), Poverty and Undevelopment, ILO Geneva, pp 111-123.

¹⁵ Singh Bhagwan PD, and Mohanty Shukla (1993), "Child Labour in India: Dimension" Policy Options B.R. Publishing Corporation, Delhi, P.67.

¹⁶ Sandha B.G. and Tewari, Smita, (1985), Child Labour Rural areas, Some Factors', Kurukshetra, Vol.33, April, pp.31-36.

¹⁷ Laskar, Baharual Islam, (2000), "Child Labour in Aligarh Lock Industry", EPW, Vol.22, Feb 12, pp.233-241.

prospects. Burra¹⁸ noticed that most of the children were working due to family pressure and their parents and governments are not careful about their education.

Mustafa and Sharma¹⁹ say that most of children start working because of their family problems (as rejected by parents or other domestic problem). There is no one to care for them. V.V.Giri National Labour Institute observed that parents want to educate the child but poverty forced them to send their child for work. Sattaur²⁰ observed that poverty, feudal system, traditions of society, ignorance of the value of education and child rights and migration to urban areas from rural areas are the causes of child labour. UNICEF's study shows that most of the children who are out of school having economic difficulties for the continuation of their education, they are working either due to lack of money or increase in family expenditure. In the Study of child labour in Mirzapur Carpet Industry, Mishra and Pande,²¹ found that most of child are illiterate and among literate most of them have left the school at the primary level due to lack of money. Sinha²² says that parents' illiteracy or lower education is a hindrance to the child's proper socialization. Mecpheron²³ noticed that majority of poor children are from the developing countries, social policies faces a great challenge of welfare of this group. For poor children survival itself is most often a significant victory, a good deal of attention is paid to a number of specific interventions, as part of social policy for child welfare can increase the chances of survival and reduce level of illness. Sahoo²⁴ says through a survey of village in Orissa that poverty, illiteracy, chronic unemployment, rapid demographic expansion, regional backwardness and apathy of the state are responsible for the child labour. He says that agriculture and allied sectors which employ 90 percent the under aged workforce has received little concern. The nature of agrarian capitalism

¹⁸Burra Neera (1989), "Child Labour and Education: Issue Emerging From the Experience of Some Developing Countries of Asia", UNESCO-UNICEF, Paris, pp.56-63.

¹⁹Mustafa, Mohd and Sharma, Onkar (1996), "Child Labour in India: A Bitter Truth", Deep and Deep Publication, Delhi, p.19.

²⁰ Sattaur, Omar (1993), "Child Labour in Nepal: A Report", Anti Slavery International, Katmandu

²¹ Mishra, G.P., and Pande, P.N. (1996), "Child Labour in Carpet Industry", APH Publication Corporation, New Delhi.

²² Sinha, Nidhi (1993), "Child Labour in Indian Silk Industry", Uppal Publishing House, New Delhi, p.53.

²³Mecpheron, Stewart (1987), "Five Hundred Million Children: Poverty and Child Welfare in The Third World", Wheatshef Book, Sussex, p.59.

²⁴ Sahoo, V.C. (1995), "Child Labour in Agrarian Society", Rawat Publications, Jaipur, New Delhi, p.47.

being primitive is prone to employ and expropriate the cheap labour, including that of children. Ahmad Shah²⁵ reveals that modern industrialization exposed these young to new challenges and hazards. Situation is even worse in the unorganized sector. The working condition is not hygienic; children have to work to supplement the earning of the family. Pandey²⁶ in his study of child labour in Kanpur examines the extent and causes of the problem and says that social background is the main cause of problem. Vijayagopalan²⁷ in his study of carpet industry of Mirzapur (Bhadohi) found the problem originates in the social structure. Krishna Kumari²⁸ while studying Bangalore city found that most of children want to study along with the work, as they cannot depend on the family due to poverty.

UNICEF's²⁹ study in many Asian countries like India, Srilanka, Philippines and Thailand revealed that most of the children were expected to be at work in home or outside instead of going to school. And a large proportion of school going children, have to work part time, especially those who are from low income group. Male working outside while the girl child is taking care of their younger siblings and helping their mothers in domestic work. Ramani³⁰ survey showed that around 53 percent children are studying as well as working and 28 percent dropped out of school and 19 percent never attended the school. Major proportion of students dropped out of school at the primary and secondary level. There are more boys attending school than the girls. Hirway, Cotty and Pandya³¹ noticed that the child labour mainly arises from the traditional attitudes and associated social problems, educational system and poverty being faced by the developing countries.

²⁵Shah, Nazir Ahmad (1992), "Child Labour in India", Around Publication, New Delhi, p.35.

²⁶ Pandey Rajendra (1991), "Street Children of India: A Situational Analysis", Chugh Publication, Allahabad, p.63.

²⁷ Vijayagopalan, S. (1993), "Child Labour in Carpet Industry: A Status Report", NCAER, New Delhi

²⁸ Krishna Kumari, N.S. (1985), "Child Labour in Bangalore City: A Report", Delhi.

²⁹ UNICEF (1990), "Children and Women in India: A Situation Analysis", New Delhi.

³⁰ Ramani, G.S. Kewal (1992), "Child Abuse: A Sociological Study of Working and Non Working", Children Rawat Publication, Jaipur, New Delhi, p.122.

³¹Hirway, Indira, Cotty, Pandya Pushkar (ed), (1991), "Towards Eradication of Child Labour: An International View", Oxford& IBH Publishing co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, pp.72-81.

Phillips³² says that several factors like poverty rejection or divorces, family tensions, death of parents, ill treatment by steps, selling children as bounded labourers are the conditions that have brought these children on the street. Singh³³ observed in his study of education in scheduled caste girls that 70 percent of the non-enrolled children are girls; most of them are from the rural areas. Enrolment rate is poor for the girls belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes. Sujata³⁴ in his study of yenadi tribe's education in coastal areas and Rayalseema noticed that they are lagging behind in education, mainly because of low enrolment; alarming dropout rate and considerable stagnation. The main reasons are household economy, agrarian basis of work and children are not interesting in education.

ECONOMIC FACTORS:

Economic factors are most important in affecting child labour in India. The poor economic condition of parents induced them to send their child to work. The major important economic factors influencing child labour are discussed below:

Poverty

In almost all studies it has been showed that poverty is the most important causes of child labour. In Report of the Committee on Child Labour³⁵ it has been mentioned that nearly half of the population of India is below poverty line. Singh³⁶ noticed in his study poverty and depending ratio is encouraging child labour. In the report of the working group on the employment of children³⁷ it has been noticed that the poor economic condition of a large segment of population associated with dependency ratio in families

³² Phillips, W.S.K. (1994), "Street Children in India", Rawat Publications, New Delhi, p.33.

³³ Singh, R. P. (1991), " Scheduled Caste Girls: Educational Backwardness and Prospects" Mittal Publication, New Delhi, p.39

³⁴ Sujata, K. (1992), "Education of the Forgotten Children of the Forests: A Case Study of Yenadi tribe", Konark Publication, New Delhi, pp.62-73.

³⁵ "Report of the Committee on Child Labour", (1979). Ministry of Child Labour, Govt. of India, p.8.

³⁶ Singh, I.S. (1992). "Child Labour", Oxford, IBH Publishing Co., New Delhi, p.53.

³⁷ " Report of the Working Group on Employment of Children", (1992). Dept. of Social Welfare, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

encourage members to contribute to the family since an early age. Laskar³⁸ in his study in Aligarh Lock Industry noticed that problem of child labour in India is rising due to poverty, displacement of the poor from their lands, social insecurity and adult unemployment. The report of child labour in Industries³⁹ mentioned that the problem of child labour' root lie in poverty. Accordingly, 60 percent parents have said poverty to be the main reason. Nangia⁴⁰ in a study of child labour in Delhi said that the parents sent their child to work due to poor economic condition. Singh and Verma⁴¹ by studying child labour in Nainital district of Uttar Pradesh found that the parent of below poverty line sent their child to work. Mehta had found a highly significant- positive relation between the percentages of child workers to total women as percentage of population below poverty line in different states.

Unemployment

Child labour is also closely influenced by unemployment. Widespread poverty arising from employment forces people to send their children to work. Salazar⁴² in his study of child labour in Colombia noticed that about half of the household surveyed contained at least one unemployment adult, which is the reason for high incidence of child labour. Mishra and Pandey⁴³ noticed the same thing, unemployment as well as low wages, forced the parents to send their child to work. Rosenzweig and Evanson⁴⁴ observed in their study that the wage rate of children has a negative influence on the school enrolment of the children. Mehta⁴⁵ in her study noted a significant positive correlation between the number of child labour and number of unemployed on daily status basis. Empirically it has been found wherever the problem of unemployment is

³⁸Laskar, Baharul Islam (2000), "Child Labour in Aligarh Lock Industry", EPW, Vol.XII, Feb 12, pp.510-513.

³⁹ Report on Child Labour in Indian Industries. 1991, Ministry of Labour, Govt. Of India, New Delhi.

⁴⁰ Nangia, p., (1997), op.cit, p.61

⁴¹ Mehta, S.S. (1997), op.cit.

⁴² Salazar, C. (1998). "Child Labour in Colombia: Bogota's Quarries and Brickyards," in Bequele, A. and Boyden, J. (ed.), Combating Child Labour, International Labour Office, Geneva.

⁴³Mishra, G. P. and Pandey, P. N. (1996), "Child Labour in Carpet Industry", APH Publishing Corporation, New Delhi, p.84.

⁴⁴ Rosenzweig, M.R. and Evanson, R. (1997), "Fertility and Economic Condition of Children in Rural India: An Econometric Analysis", Econometric Vol.45, No.5, pp.1065-1079

⁴⁵ Mehta, S.S. (1997), op.cit.

low, the child work participant is less. Kumar⁴⁶ noticed that lack of employment opportunities and lack of regular and quality employment encourages parents to send their child to work. Children as well as adult workers try hard to get jobs for their basic needs. It is noticed that wherever the problem of unemployment is low child work participation is also low. Rosenzweig and Evahson⁴⁷ found a significant negative relationship between the adult female wages rate and child work participation rate. In this study they had also observed that the wage rate of children has a negative influence on the school enrolment of the children.

Income and Standard of Living

The income of the household is one of the most important determinants of child labour. Rosenzweig and Evanson⁴⁸ observed strong inverse relationship between income of the household and child work participation. Rodgers⁴⁹ said that higher income generally associated with a higher level of education and there is a lesser need for the children to work. Jodha and Singh⁵⁰ in their study of some villages in Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan observed that the child work participation rate is very high among the rural poor. Operation Research group⁵¹ found a high correlation between income of the families and their life style Lower the income, higher is the child labour. Mamdani⁵² while studying social structure of a village of Punjab noticed that household with no land will depend upon the higher number of child labour and large family size for the household income. Dinesh⁵³ in his study highlighted that the

⁴⁶Kumar, Sudhir (1933), "Child Labour and Education", Children at Work, Problem and Policy, B.R. Publishing Corporation Delhi, p.27.

⁴⁷Rosenzweig, M.R. and Evanson, R. (1977). "Fertility Schooling and Economic Condition of Children in Rural India: An Econometric Analysis", *econometric*, vol.45, no.5, pp.1065-1079

⁴⁸ Rosenzweig, M.R. and Evanson, R. (1977), *op.cit.*

⁴⁹ Rodgers, (1981). "Economic Roles of Children Low Income Countries", *International Labour Review*, vol.120, no.1, pp.31-47.

⁵⁰Jodha, N.and Singh R.p. (1991), "Child Labour in Dry Land Agriculture in India" in Kanbargi, R. (ed), *Child Labour in Indian Subcontinent Dimension and Implications*, Sage Publication, New Delhi, pp.86-93.

⁵¹"Child Labour in Diamond Industry of Surat City" (1993), Planning Commission, Operation Research Group, Baroda.

⁵² Mamdani M. (1972), "The myth of the Population Control, Monthly Review Press", New York, p.81.

⁵³ Dinesh, B.M. (1972), *op.cit.*

household income and child work participation is not inversely related. Verma⁵⁴ noticed that girl child is the worst affected. Poor parents employ their children to grow their income. Educating a child is a loss of family income.

Occupational Status and Child Labour

The type of occupation by the adults of the households has strong influence in child work participation. Naidu⁵⁵ in his study found that demand for child labour depends on the type of occupation. There is difference in child employment and economic value in industrial sector as well as agricultural sector. Rodgers and Standing⁵⁶ in their study found that there is a higher child work participation rates in the households where adult workers do agricultural work. There is less child work participation rate where the households of adults are in service sector. There is difference in child employment and economic value in industrial sector as well as agriculture sector. In a study in Andhra Pradesh he stated that there is difference in household industrial sector and agriculture sector in respect to child employment and economic value and children. Tripathi⁵⁷ in his study of Pulbani district of Orissa observed that most of the child workers are engaged in primaru sector as a agriculture and gathering. Singh⁵⁸ noticed that higher child work participation rate is in those households where adult members are engaged in primary sector. By analyzing various data of different developing countries, Nag⁵⁹ gave some findings regarding the economic values of children:

- The economic value of children is less where adult women literacy is high.
- The economic value of children to their families is higher in agricultural sector than the manufacturing sector.

⁵⁴ Verma, Meera and Verma, Neeta (1993), "Incidence of Female Child Labour in India", Singh B.P. and Mohanty S. (ed), Children at Work, Problem and Policy Options, B.R. Publishing Corporations, Delhi, pp.221-234.

⁵⁵ Naidu, D.A. (1996), "Child Labour a Fertility and Mortality Theory and Myth" In Mahadevan K. 9ed), Fertility odology and Empirical Issues, Sage Publications, New Delhi, p.127.

⁵⁶ Rodgers and Standing, (1981), op.cit.

⁵⁷ Tripathi, S.N. (1991), "Exploitation of Child Labour in India", Daya Publishing House, Delhi, p.134.

⁵⁸ Singh A.N. (1996), op.cit., p.138.

⁵⁹ Nag, M. (1972), op.cit., p.

- The economic value of children tends to decrease with urbanization.
- The economic value of children is more in the large families.
- The economic value of children is likely to be greater in agricultural societies where planting and harvesting are related to monsoon.

Schooling Facilities

The report of the committee on child labour has mentioned that lack of schooling facilities is responsible for low enrolment rate and high drop out rate among children. Dinesh⁶⁰ in his study noticed that the child work participation rate is lower where there are higher schooling facilities and the child participation rate is higher where schooling facilities are not up to mark. In many areas of the country, there is lack of schooling facilities. Some remote areas are very much away from the schooling facilities, which encourage the parents to engage their child in economic activities.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of child labour is enormous in India where a huge number of children start work from as early as 5 year of age. Child labour exists and there is regional variation in its spread across the country. Unfortunately the data available on child labour is inadequate and uneven. Estimates of child workers differ widely from one source to another depending upon the deferential used to identify a worker and method used to estimate the total workforce. Though there are various constitutional and legal provisions to check the employment of children in India. But there have been 11.2 million child workers in India in 1991. The figure is though reducing according to Census of India. In 1981 the working children population was 13.6 million that is reduced to 11.2 million in 1991, with the reduction of 2.4 million, yet estimates of several other surveys have shown that the problem of child labour has been increasing over the decades. The number of marginal child workers has too declined to 2.2 million in 1991 than that of 2.4 million in 1981, so 0.2 reduce it million during the decade. The working children population was

⁶⁰ Dinesh, B.M. (1988), op.cit, p.49

13.6 million in 1981 that is reduced to 11.2 million in 1991, with the reduction of 2.4 million. The state with the highest child labour population in the country is Andhra Pradesh (1.6 million) working children. Other states with more than one million child labours are Uttar Pradesh (1.4 million), Madhya Pradesh (1.3 million) and Maharashtra (1.06 million).⁶¹

The working children ratio varies from state to state. Andhra Pradesh was on the top and followed by Mizoram, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Rajasthan etc. The lowest rate is in Kerala, Delhi, Chandigarh, Haryana etc. According to 1991 census⁶² the participation rate by children is 4.33 percent in main workers category and 1.05 percent in the case of marginal workers accounting a total work participation rate of 5.37 percent.

Table 1.1

Work Participation Rate of Children (5-14 age group) for 1981 and 1991

S.No.	Country/States	1981	1991
	India	5.18	5.37
1.	Andhra Pradesh	9.45	9.98
2.	Arunachal pradesh	7.21	5.65
3.	Assam	NA	5.46
4.	Bihar	3.78	3.99
5.	Gujarat	4.67	5.26
6.	Haryana	3.60	2.55
7.	Himanchal Pradesh	5.88	4.55
8.	Jammu & Kashmir	10.53	NA
9.	Karnataka	7.71	8.81
10.	Kerala	1.04	0.58
11.	Madhya Pradesh	7.90	8.08
12.	Maharashtra	6.74	5.73
13.	Manipur	3.62	3.72
14.	Meghalaya	7.92	7.39
15.	Mizoram	3.23	9.40
16.	Nagaland	5.69	5.29
17.	Orissa	6.72	5.87

⁶¹ Census of India (1991), "Working Children in India: An analysis of the 1991 Census Data", Registrar General, India, New Delhi

⁶² Census of India, "Working Children in India", Registrar General, India, New Delhi.

18.	Punjab	3.50	3.04
19.	Rajasthan	5.64	6.46
20.	Tamil Nadu	5.75	4.83
21.	Uttar Pradesh	3.11	3.81
22.	West Bengal	2.85	4.16
23.	Chandigarh	1.32	1.40
24.	Delhi	1.16	1.27

Source: Working Children, Census of India 1991

A large proportion of these children lived and worked in rural India. According to 1991 Census, as against 75.0 of main male workers of all ages, 87.6 percent of male workers aged 5-14 were in rural India. In case of female workers the corresponding shares were even higher, 87.1 percent for, main female workers and 92.6 percent for girl main workers.

The NSSO data although gives different estimates for child labour. However it also supports the view that the child labours are largely concentrated in the rural India. The NSSO data also gives higher estimates although the gap between Census count and NSSO estimates narrowed overtime. The NSSO estimated that 21.45 million children worked in India in 1983, many more than 13.7 million, enumerated by the census in 1981.

National Sample Survey 43rd round conducted in 1987-88 estimated the number of working children that is 17.02 million. And according to the 50th round in 1993-94 the working children population was estimated to be 17.59 million. Out of it 85.8 percent were living in rural areas and only 14.2 percent in the urban areas. In urban areas the percentage of girl child labour was 0.5 percent but in case of rural areas the girl child labour was more than 40 percent. So the phenomenon of child labour is significantly higher in rural areas than that of the urban areas. The NSS data also show the full time child labourers which is 8.9 million of which 90.0 percent lived in rural areas while only 9.1 percents in urban areas. The occurrence is high in rural areas as children are employed in agriculture to do a variety of jobs as sowing, harvesting, plantation, threshing, storing etc. The nature of work is not fixed, it depend on the spot requirement. Wages are very low and the condition of work is harsh. So the children mental and

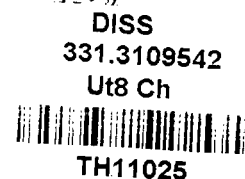
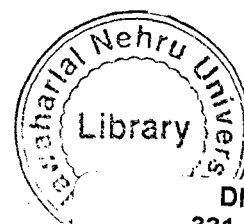
Physical growth cannot be done. The unorganized and informal sectors both in urban and rural areas, account for almost all the child labour force.

However it is encouraging to see that irrespective to the source, the number of child workers declined over the last two decades. The economic data pertaining to child labour is latest census has not been yet published but NSSO data shows the number of child labour has declined to 10.39 million in 1999-2000.

AREA OF STUDY

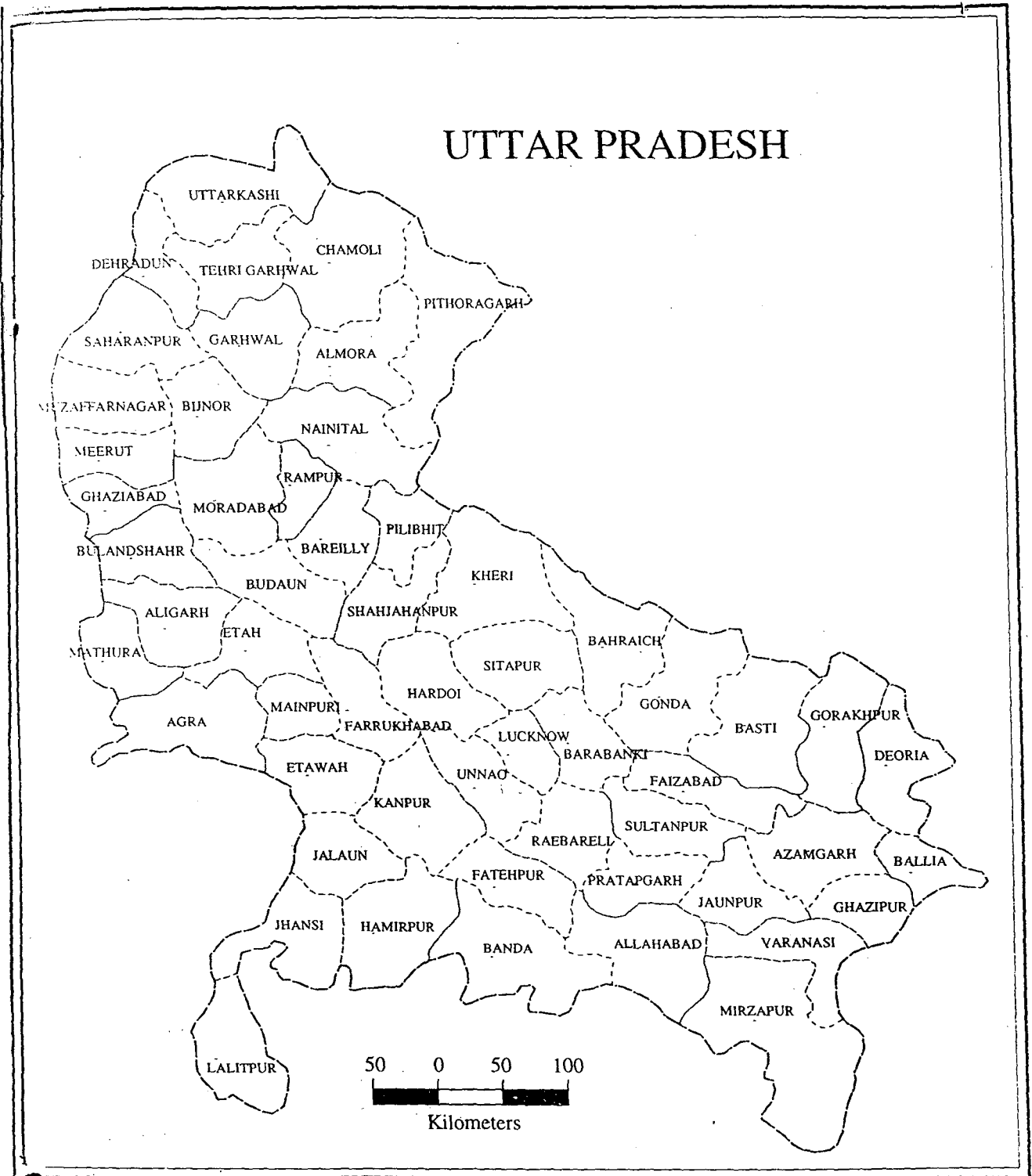
Uttar Pradesh has been taken as the area to understand the nature of child labour. The state of Uttar Pradesh is a vast state with maximum populous state of the Nation and great diversity is found in terms of socio-economic, demographic as well as physiographic. Due to its vast size a new state of Uttaranchal has been formed in 2000 and Bundelkhand is also taking voice. As now there are total 83 districts (70+13) including Uttaranchal, but as there were 63 districts in 1991 and only 56 districts in 1981. So far the present study only those districts of Uttar Pradesh, which existed during 1981 census, have been considered. A districts level analysis and comparison between 1981-1991 data has been done which shows the spatial variation in the distribution of child workforce and male- female and rural-urban participation rates of the child work force at district level. The industries in which child labour is involved in Uttar Pradesh are the following-

1. Lock Industry, Aligarh.
2. Glass and Bangle Industry, Firozabad.
3. Leather Industry, Kanpur.
4. Brassware and Pottery, Moradabad.
5. Carpet Weaving, Mirzapur (Bhadoi).
6. Silk, Varanasi.
7. Ghunghro, Agra etc.



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UTTAR PRADESH



MAP NO. 1.1

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION IN UTTAR PRADESH

There are 166.05 million persons in Uttar Pradesh over an area of 2,36,286 sq kms.(Census 2001). Eastern districts of the state show higher concentration of rural population, which decreases towards west. In comparison to rural population urban centers are not much developed. A few big towns like Gorakhpur, Faizabad, Varanasi and Allahabad are situated in this belt. A large concentration of population is also in districts of Western Uttar Pradesh such as Ghaziabad, Meerut, Moradabad, Rampur and Bareilly. Economically it is developed region. High population concentration is in Lucknow and Kanpur also found due to urbanization and industrialization. Bundelkhand region is less populated. Due to availability of mineral resources some industrialization has been initiated in Jhansi.

Himalayan region (which is now part of Uttarakhand) is the least populated belt of the state due to its physical constraints. Few settlements are located in the river valley and where flat suitable patch of land is available. Doon valley is thickly populated where the famous city of Dehradun is situated. Nainital region is also accounts for population concentration. In higher altitudes population is negligible.

GROWTH OF POPULATION 1981-1991 & 1991 to 2001

Uttar Pradesh is not able to curtail its population growth in last decade. The growth of population was 25.80 percent during 1991-2001. In fact it is one of those states where instead of decline in growth it increased slightly. 29 districts out of 70 districts (of present UP) experienced increase in the population growth rate. Ghaziabad retained its first position with a population growth rate of 47.47 percent. It was followed by Sonbhadra 38.18 percent, Bulandshahr 35.70 percent, Chitrakoot 34.33 percent, Firozabad 33.44 percent and Lucknow 33.25 percent. Chitrakoot witnessed maximum increase in growth rate, its growth rate more than doubled. Agra, Kheri, Shahjhanpur, Ghaziabad also experienced very rapid increase in their growth rate. The lowest growth rate was recorded in Baghpat 13.00 percent, which commendably almost halved its growth rate and entered

in to last stage of Demographic Transition. It was followed Auraiya 14.70 percent Hamirpur 17.85 percent, Banda 18.49 percent Jalaun 19.39 percent and Kannauj 19.58 percent. Sant Ravidas Nagar Bhadohi, Varanasi and Hamirpur witnessed substantial decline in their growth rate.

In comparison, the growth of population was 25.48 percent during 1981-91. The highest growth rate was recorded in Ghaziabad 46.69 percent followed by Sonbhadra 38.18 percent, Lucknow 37.14, Nainital 35.52 percent, Dehradun 34.66 percent, Mirzapur 31.4 percent and Varanasi 31.33 percent, while lowest growth rate was in Garhwal 8.58 percent, Almora 10.46 percent, Pithoragarh 15.77 percent and Tehrigarhwal 16.56 percent.

CHILD POPULATION IN UTTAR PRADESH

In 1981, the total number of person in the age group of 5-14 was 31.28 million, which increased to 37.02 million in 1991, these constituted 28.22 percent and 26.61percent respectively to total population, which shows decline of 1.61 percent. Deoria has the highest percentage 28.33 of youths followed by mau 28.31, Jaunpur 28.18 and Moradabad 28.01 while lowest in Nainital 19.84 percent.

LITERACY IN UTTAR PRADESH

There were 41.6 percent literates in 1991, which increased to 57.36 percent in 2001. Thus there is a gain of 15.76 percent during this decade. The highest literacy was recorded in Kanpur Nagar 77.63 percent, followed by Auraiya 71.50 percent, Gaaziabad 70.89 percent and Etawah 70.75 percent while lowest literacy rate is in Sharawasti 34.25 percent, Balrampur 34.71 percent Bahraich 35.79 percent, Badaun 38.83 percent and Rampur 38.95 percent.

Female literacy in Uttar pradesh was only 25.31 percent in 1991, which increased to 42.98 percent. Highest female litracy is in again in Kanpur Nagar 72.50 percent

lucknow 61.22 percent, Auraiya 60.08 percent and Ghaziabad 59.12 percent while lowest in Shrawasti 18.75 percent, Balrampur 21.58 percent, Budaun 25.53 percent Gonda 27.29 percent and Rampur 27.87 percent.

In contrast, the male Literacy rate is relatively quiet high. Forty-One districts recorded higher male literacy rate than all U.P. average of 70.23 percent, out of which seven districts namely Varanasi, Gautam Buddha Nagar, Kanpur Nagar, Etawah, Ghaziabad and Jhansi have male literacy above 80 percent. On other hand five districts experienced male literacy rate than Fifty percent.

OBJECTIVES: This study aims at meeting the following objectives:

- To find out the causes of child labour and how they are interrelated with each other.
- To critically examine the government policy and various legislation and their effectiveness in eradication of child labour.
- To show the magnitude of child labour & effect of education on child labour.
- To identify gender differences affecting child labour.
- The role of various international organizations and N G Os in eradication of child labour and suggestion how they can be more effective.
- To suggest a strategy for eradication of child labour comprising Government, International organization & N G Os efforts and coordination.

HYPOTHESES: Following hypotheses has been constructed:

- Higher the children attending school lower the incidence of child labour.
- With an increase in female literacy rate child labour decrease.
- Higher the share of agriculture sectors in the occupational structure more the incidence of the child labour.
- The occurrence of child labour in rural areas is higher than the urban areas.

SOURCE MATERIALS AND MET^HODOLOGY

The study is largely based on the secondary sources of information. The major sources are government documents, books, journals, conference papers, official web sites etc. The relevant data pertaining to child labour and various other demographic variables has been obtained from the various Census of India publications. The child labour data of 2001 census has not been yet published therefore the NSSO data has been used for the analysis. However as there is difference between the National Sample Survey data and Census of India data. So in the comparative study only 1981 and 1991 census data has been used. The following sources have been used.

1. Census of India, 1981, General Population Tables.
2. Census of India, 1991, General Population Tables.
3. Census of India 2001, Provisional Population Totals: India, Paper 1 of 2001
4. Census of India, 1981 General Economic Tables.
5. Census of India 1981 Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Population Tables
6. Census of India 1981, Socio and Cultural Tables.
7. Census of India, 1991 General Economic Tables
8. Census of India 1991 Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Population Tables
9. Census of India 1991, Socio and Cultural Tables.
10. Census of India, 1991, Working Children in India.
11. Report of Ministry of Labour, Government of India, New Delhi.
12. NSS Reports, Government of India, 43rd, 50th and 52nd round.
13. NGOs information from the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Government of India, New Delhi.
14. Various Official Websites of UP Government and, Government of India

As regard to the methodology, the study is largely analytical in nature. The various socio-economic correlates of child labour have been critically analyzed. The various aspects and the profile of child labour have been critically examined. The study is based

on the collection, computation, evaluation and interpretation of official data and available literature on the child labour.

CHAPTERISATION

The study has been broadly divided in to six chapters. The first chapter is introductory in nature. It gives brief outline of the study. The related review of the literature, objectives of the study, hypotheses, source materials and methodology have been included in it. The historical perspective of child labour, definition and the extent of child labour in India and U.P. have been also briefly discussed in this chapter.

In chapter two, an enquiry into the magnitude and profile of child labour in U.P has been made. The study has been done at district level. It also compares the child labour status in U.P. with other states.

The third chapter examines the education status and its relationship with the occurrence of the child labour in UP. It also analyzes the interrelated factors that determine children's participation in work and school. It looks in to problem of gender bias prevailing in the state.

The fourth chapter deals with the various legislative actions and policies of child labour and their effectiveness in eradication of child labour. The role of International Organizations and NGOs in eradication of child labour has been analyzed in the fifth chapter.

The concluding chapter includes the major findings. It also suggests a strategy for eradiction of child labour comprising Government, International organizations and NGOs' efforts and coordination.

CHAPTER TWO

**MAGNITUDE AND PROFILE OF CHILD LABOUR IN
UTTAR PRADESH**

INTRODUCTION

Child labour, refers specifically to young people denied the right to be children and working in situations that will damage their growth, their health (both physical and mental) or their education. Children, who work long hours, in dangerous and unhealthy conditions, are often exposed to lasting physical and psychological damage. For example, working at looms in carpet factories can leave children with eye damage, lung disease, stunted growth and a susceptibility to arthritis in later life.

Young people are often involved in child labour because of the systems that create poverty for their families. Their families depend on the income they can provide. But more often than not, those involved in child labour do not earn a living wage; sometimes they earn nothing at all, but come as part of a package, working with their parent or in return for food and shelter.

Conditions of child labor range from that of four-year-olds tied to rug looms to keep them from running away, to seventeen-year-olds helping out on the family farm. In some cases, a child's work can be helpful to him or her and to the family; working and earning can be a positive experience in a child's growing up. This depends largely on the age of the child, the conditions in which the child works, and whether work prevents the child from going to school.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to present district level proportion of working children in Uttar Pradesh, their distribution by sex (male / female) and residence (rural / urban). The data and the changes presented for 1981 and 1991 and the change thereof took place during the decade on the basis of census data has been attempted. The data available from census on working children in Uttar Pradesh has been processed and the observation from the two sets of data from census have been compared and analyzed.

Children work for a variety of reasons, the most important being poverty and the induced pressure upon them to escape from this plight. Though children are not well paid, they still serve as major contributors to family income. Schooling problems also contribute to child labor, whether it is the inaccessibility of schools or the lack of

quality education which spurs parents to enter their children in more profitable pursuits. Traditional factors such as rigid cultural and social roles in certain countries further limit educational attainment and increase child labor.

The type of work done by children can be grouped into the following types:

A. Within the family:

1. Domestic/Household Tasks
2. Agricultural/Pastoral Tasks
3. Handicrafts/Cottage Industries

B. With the family but outside the home:

1. Agricultural/Pastoral
2. Domestic Service
3. Construction Work
4. Informal service

C. Outside the family:

1. Employed by others
2. Self-Employed

Domestic Child Labour

The typology of work carried out by children indicates that a large proportion consists of domestic and household tasks including child care. An equally large proportion of their work consists of non-domestic and non-monetary work like gathering firewood and fodder, grazing cattle and fetching water. These activities are very time intensive but have relatively low monetary values. Such activities are indirectly highly productive as they permit more efficient allocation of the productive time of the adults. This pattern is typical of the economic behaviour of the peasant family which tries to maximise the utilisation of labour time not only for self-consumption but also for the market.

Debt Bondage and Feudal Forms of Child Labour

Some children may also go to work to pay off debts incurred by their parents or they may also be required to work according to the different tributary feudal relations prevalent in some parts of the state.

Wage Labourers in labour Intensive Industrial Sector

Those children who are working as wage labourers belong to different categories and specialisations. They are typically paid wages much lower than the

wage rates for adult workers and thus provide a cheap alternative form of labour power. This is typical of the early stages of industrialisation where the dependence is primarily on cheap labour power rather than on relatively expensive capital and machinery. Unregistered and undercapitalized productive enterprises often operate in a competitive and highly volatile market where they have to compete with much larger and more productive production units.

Such units prefer to employ children not only so that they can be paid lower wages than adults but because children are also better suited to fluctuating labour demand. Child labour has been more or less excluded from the highly organised and capital intensive formal sector. These are characterised by large enterprises using mechanised technologies who often sub-contract part of their production output to the labour intensive unorganised sector where child labour is prevalent. These labour intensive industries employ child labour as a cost minimizing strategy keeping in view the variability in the volume of demand for their products.

Migrant Labour

Those children who are migrants are cut off from their families and communities and denied parental protection and are more prone to exploitation. As in the rural areas there is a tendency to undervalue child labour since the low paid time intensive jobs requiring long hours of work are undertaken by them. Child labourers receive very little fringe benefits of social security and they are often paid compensation through a combination of cash and kind payments over which they have little control. Often these accountings and deductions are made towards the end of the contract period in an arbitrary manner and may serve to perpetuate debt bondage among such working children. The traditional forms of recruitment as child labour through patron client relationships and the powerful hold of the employers on the child labourers impose constraints on the mobility of child labour. The child workers are trapped in employment as most of them come from families with little or no land and most parents of child labourers themselves face uncertain and irregular employment in the highly segmented labour markets.

Marginal Street Children

Another set of children are employed in marginal and economic activities especially in urban areas, that are characterised by irregularity and short term nature and often have semi-legal status. Those children among this group who are isolated from their families are often subjected to brutal forms of exploitation. In this category

there are also children who may have dropped out of school but may not be productively working and, therefore, may be prone to juvenile delinquency.

Technological innovations in the industrial sector may also lead to the displacement of labour inducing children from industry towards self-employment on the streets. Rapid urbanization and migration from the rural areas coupled with the break down of the traditional family structures is also leading to the rapid increase in the number of street children who are exposed to grave social, economic, environmental and moral hazards. Many of these street children are the products of family disintegration due to acute poverty and the accompanying social alienation and atomization. A significant proportion of them are dependants of women headed households whose husbands have either deserted them or the domestic relations are characterized by a high level of domestic violence. Many of the street children are either abandoned or have remote family ties. The street is their work place as well as home and they exist with no protection and no supervision from responsible adults.

The continued long hours of labour leads to excessive physical, social and psychological stress. These children get inadequate remuneration and the work does not facilitate their psychological and social development. The health and physical development of these working children is directly affected due to the harmful conditions in which they are forced to work. The children pay a high cost in terms of their safety and health due to the special risks to which they are exposed due to their tender age.

Work also inhibits the self-esteem of the child and prevents interaction with other school going children and enrolment in the primary schools. Lack of access to the school structure due to pre-occupation with work leads to differentiation of child activity between schooling and labour. The working children, therefore, face differentiation and segmentation in job access which is associated with differential access to the schooling system itself. Therefore, child labour is highly inimical to the educational, intellectual and potential economic development of these children. The skill development of children as child labourers is no substitute for the access to social mobility, which is possible through access to the formal educational system. In India career paths do not lead vertically through various segments of the labour and production processes. The educational system itself may act as a screening process

and those who have been denied access to this system are effectively excluded from the higher-level jobs. Working children with their intermittent attendance and lack of concentration in schooling do not acquire the necessary educational qualifications that may provide access to higher levels of jobs and remuneration. They are thus condemned to a life of perpetual labour and servitude.

Organised Large Industries

The child labour is not a significant component of this form of industrial production. However the sub-contracting part of the output of large units to labour intensive smaller units and to other production units based on domestic production, may lead to an increased participation of women and children in the workforce. This tendency towards sub-contracting and casualisation of the work force in the organised industrial sector also means a greater dependence on contract and migrant labour which also has implications for the employment of child labour in the subsistence activities which support the contract and migrant labourers.

Labour Intensive Medium and Small-Scale Industries

The other significant component of industrial production comprises of large numbers of medium and small-scale industries which have an industrial organisation of production characterised by relatively labour intensive technologies. Here again the response to the pressure for increasing competitive-ness often takes the form of intensification of the labour process. This is characterised by a shift to longer hours of work, more intensive work regulation, lowering of real wages and disregard for the conditions of work. This sector has not so far experienced rapid contraction of employment. On the contrary, due to the tendency for sub-contracting and splitting up of the production processes, it has been characterised by increasing employment opportunities coupled with the intensive utilisation of labour power as opposed to the intensification of capital utilisation of the organised sector. This tendency also leads to intensive utilization of women and child labour not only directly in the process of industrial production but also in the subsistence activities which support migrant and contract labour.

Domestic Enterprises

India is also characterised by a large sector of production based on small domestic and service enterprises which are single family affairs often operating with the help of additional hired workers. These units have a decentralised system of production with no work place supervision. They are subservient to merchants and

larger industrial units who control access to credits and markets. The organisation of production is characterised by a low component of fixed capital and a relatively high share of circulating or variable capital in the total cost of production. The production process is controlled by contractors and merchants who often supply the raw materials and purchase the finished products from the families. These units typically utilise women and children for time extensive activities which have low returns on labour time and are characterised by a high degree of self-exploitation. Through the unequal exchange of values for the raw materials and finished products, there is a transfer of real values from this unorganized sector to the organised industrial sector. Within this sector there has been a stagnation of real wages which is linked to the huge reservoir of power in the unorganised sector. These production units manage to survive on the margins of the organised industrial sector through a mechanism of self- exploitation of the domestic production units. A large part of the agrarian sector is also characterised by a similar organization of peasant production based on the family as a production unit and similar utilisation of women and child labour atypical of these peasant families.

PERCENTAGE OF WORKING CHILDREN TO TOTAL CHILDREN IN DISTRICTS OF UTTAR PRADESH

It can be observed from the table 2.1 that the child worker proportion has decreased to 3.97 percent from 4.59 during the decade 1981-91.

During 1981, Tehrigarhwal with 15 percent having the highest percentage of working children followed by Uttarkashi 13.4 percent, Chamoli 9.7 percent and Deoria 8.7 percent. But the lowest percentage was in Etawah, Kanpur and Bulandshahr with 2 percent. There were 29 districts in the state where percentage of working children was higher than that of the state.

During 1991, the proportion of working children has gone down in almost all the districts. Highest was in Banda 8.32 percent, followed by Nainital 7.47 percent, Uttarkashi 7.43 percent. And the lowest proportion was in Mainpuri 1.59 percent and Kanpur 1.67 percent. Still 26 districts in the state were having higher proportion of working children than that of the state.

According to table 2.1 there were eight districts in 1981 having high concentration of child workers and they were Lalitpur and Banda, in Bundelkhand region, Tehri Garhwal, Uttarkashi and Chamoli in Hill Region, Raebareli in Central Region and Mirzapur and Deoria in Eastern Region of the state.

Table 2.1

Percentage of working children, boys and girls to total children, boys and girls in districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981 - 1991

State / Districts	Total		Boys		Girls	
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Uttar Pradesh	4.59	3.97	6.65	5.18	2.16	2.57
Uttar Kashi	13.39	7.43	7.51	3.56	19.51	11.58
Chamoli	9.69	4.37	3.37	1.88	16.52	6.84
Tehri Garhwal	15.00	6.24	6.99	2.84	23.24	9.67
Dehradun	4.13	3.99	5.55	3.91	2.54	4.07
Garhwal	6.62	2.68	3.15	1.76	10.06	3.59
Pithora garh	6.61	5.82	2.79	2.61	10.63	9.14
Almorah	5.95	5.49	2.32	2.69	9.58	8.34
Nainital	4.74	7.47	6.72	8.23	2.59	6.65
Saharanpur	4.99	3.87	8.60	6.20	0.61	1.14
Muzaffar Nagar	4.74	5.65	8.12	7.76	0.64	3.20
Bijnor	4.69	3.10	8.00	5.03	0.71	0.86
Meerut	2.97	3.61	4.84	5.14	0.73	1.91
Ghaziabad	2.09	2.70	3.47	3.51	0.41	1.75
Bulandshahr	2.00	2.60	3.42	3.63	0.24	1.39
Moradabad	5.16	3.98	8.93	6.54	0.50	1.06
Rampur	6.13	5.66	10.88	9.16	0.36	1.56
Budaun	6.88	4.92	11.87	8.02	0.48	0.87
Bareilly	4.39	3.68	7.81	6.15	0.14	0.74
Pilibhit	4.93	3.52	8.91	5.72	0.18	0.92
Shajahanpur	4.79	4.07	8.52	6.92	0.17	0.59
Aligarh	2.26	3.33	3.86	4.07	0.23	2.44
Mathura	3.34	2.32	5.46	3.32	0.58	1.08
Agra	3.40	2.34	5.77	3.83	0.40	0.56
Etah	3.21	3.32	5.46	4.77	0.24	1.45
Mainpuri	2.06	1.59	3.61	2.64	0.07	0.29
Farrukhbad	3.66	3.00	5.90	4.50	0.84	1.22
Etawah	2.00	1.81	3.37	3.13	0.24	0.26
Kanpur	2.00	1.67	3.35	2.74	0.47	0.46
Fatehpur	4.77	4.42	6.21	4.77	3.14	4.02
Allahabad	4.42	4.16	5.98	4.39	2.61	3.89

State / Districts	Total		Boys		Girls	
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Jalaun	3.13	5.14	4.44	6.87	1.50	2.87
Jhansi	3.22	3.09	4.53	3.63	1.64	2.43
Lalitpur	8.39	4.72	10.26	4.77	6.04	4.66
Hamirpur	5.82	4.41	7.60	4.64	3.57	4.12
Banda	8.08	8.32	9.45	7.96	6.45	8.76
Kheri	5.32	4.46	9.49	7.67	0.18	0.65
Sitapur	4.96	4.21	8.68	7.08	0.35	0.78
Hardoi	4.55	3.61	7.95	5.77	0.21	0.91
Unnao	4.49	3.68	6.91	5.11	1.60	2.04
Lucknow	2.69	2.80	4.56	4.12	0.56	1.29
Raebareli	7.69	4.00	10.51	4.33	4.46	3.63
Bahraich	6.66	7.04	11.28	9.72	0.80	3.69
Gonda	5.61	5.61	8.97	7.45	1.43	3.40
Barabanki	5.31	4.50	8.37	6.40	1.52	2.31
Faizabad	3.40	2.97	4.82	3.55	1.73	2.34
Sultanpur	3.62	2.91	5.09	3.44	1.89	2.30
Pratap Garh	2.65	2.59	3.50	2.63	1.66	2.55
Basti	5.08	3.90	6.69	4.67	3.19	3.04
Gorkhpur	3.83	3.16	4.96	3.59	2.55	2.69
Deoria	8.71	3.92	9.04	4.28	8.36	3.52
Azamgarh	6.65	3.84	7.09	4.08	6.15	3.59
Jaunpur	3.60	2.40	4.97	2.68	2.02	2.09
Balia	2.96	2.86	3.64	3.25	2.20	2.40
Gazipur	3.22	2.48	4.10	2.67	2.25	2.28
Varanasi	4.50	4.12	6.90	5.09	1.72	3.02
Mirzapur	8.60	5.81	11.92	6.68	4.77	4.81

Source : (1) Social and Cultural table, census of India 1981 , Series – 22 Part IV A
(2) Working Children, Census of India , 1991.

Table 2.2

Percentage of working children to total children in districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
7.5 and above	Tehrigarhwal, Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Lalitpur, Banda, Raebareli, Deoria, Mirzapur	Banda
5 to 7.5 (Medium)	Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Hamirpur, Kheri, Gonda,	Uttarkashi, Tehrigarhwal, Almora, Pithoragarh, Nainital,

Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
	Barabanki, Basti, Azamgarh, Bahraich	Muzaffarnagar, Rampur, Jalaun, Gonda, Mirzapur, Bahraich
2.5 to 5 (Low)	Dehradun, Nainital, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bijnor, Meerut, Bareli, Pilibit, Shahjahanpur, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Farrukhabad, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Jalaun, Jhansi, Sitapur, hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghaziapur, Varanasi	Chamoli, Dehradun, Garhwal, Saharanpur, Bijnor, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, moradabad, Budaun, Bareli, Pilibit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Etah, Farrukhabad, Fatehpur, allahanad, Jhansi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Raebareli, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Pratapgarh, Basti, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Azamgarh, Ballia, Varanasi.
Less than 2.5 (Very low)	Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Mainpuri, Etawah, Kanpur.	Mathura, Agra, Mainpuri, Etawah, Kanpur, Jaunpur, Ghazipur

*Source : (1) Social and Cultural table, census of India 1981 , Series – 22 Part IV A
(2) Working Children, Census of India , 1991.*

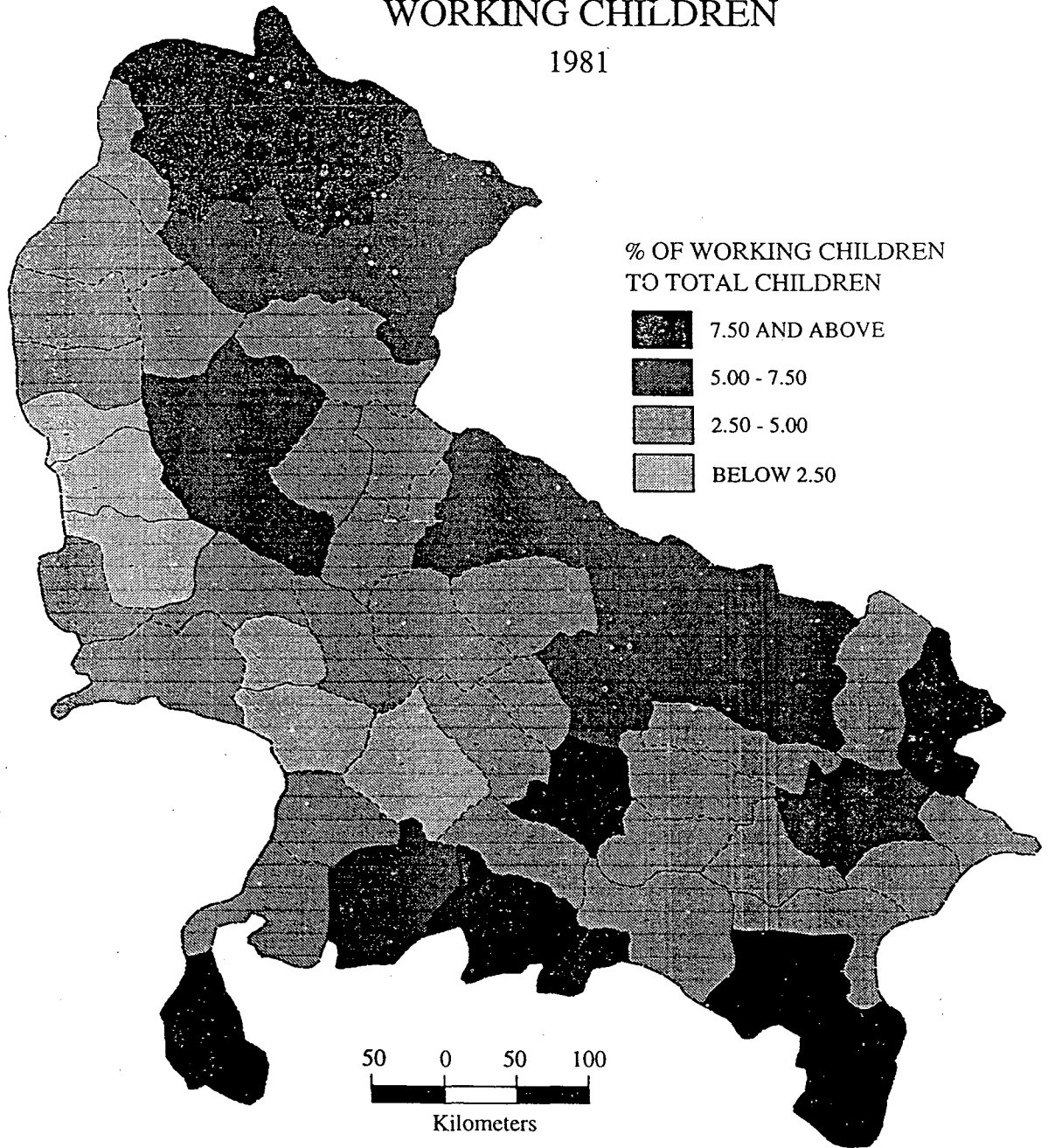
Very High Category (7.5 and above)

In 1981 there were 8 districts, which came down to only one in 1991. Banda remained in same category Uttarkashi, Tehrigarhwal and Mirzapur improved and entered in medium category. While Lalitpur, Chamoli, Raebareli and Deoria, improved and entered low category.

Medium Category (5 to 7.5)

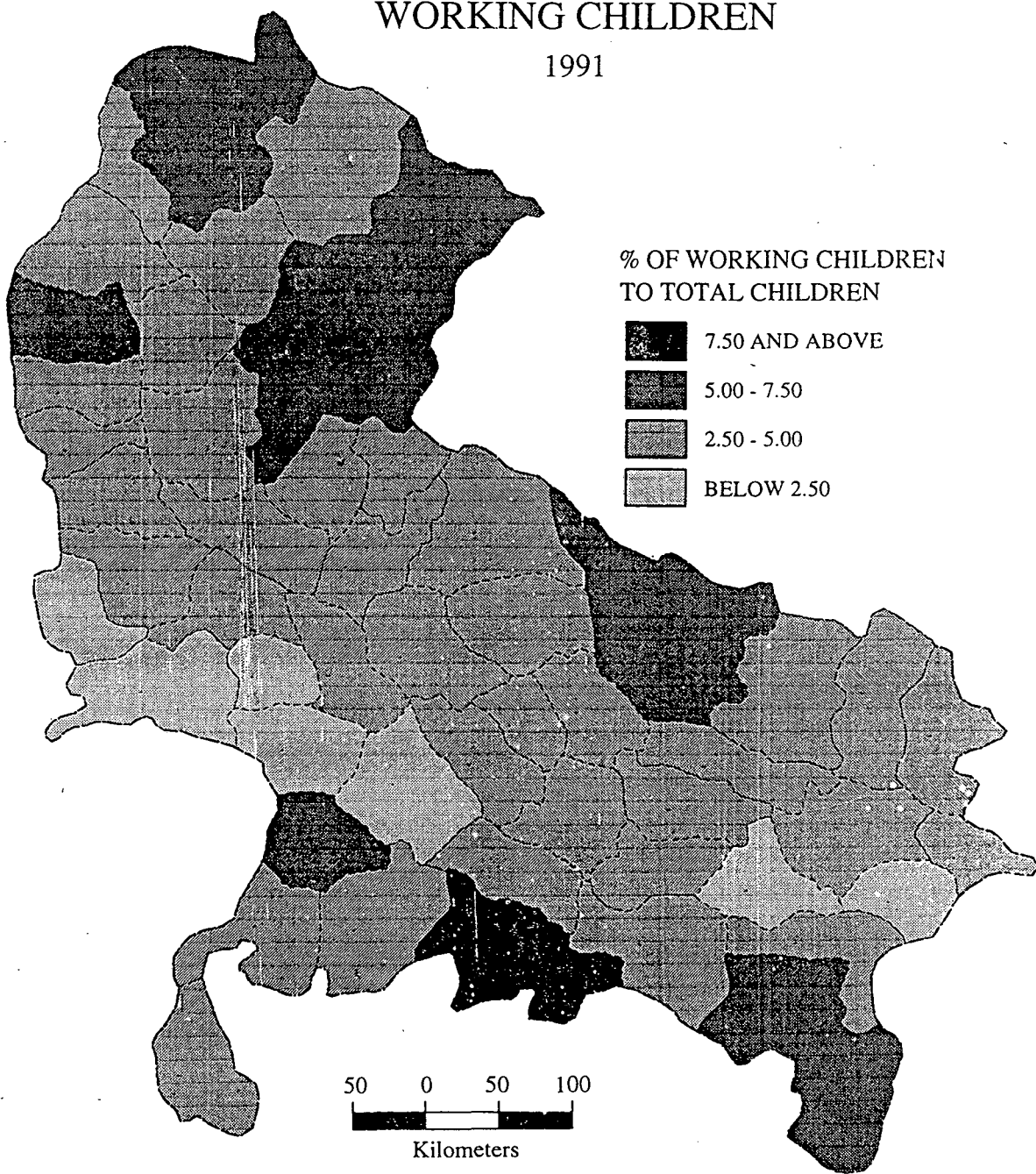
In 1981 there were 13 districts, which came down to 11 in 1991. Garhwal, Pithorgarh, Almorah, Rampur, Gonda and Bahraich remained in same category. Moradabad, Buduan, Hamirpur, Kheri, Barabanki, Basti and Azamgarh improved and entered to low category.

UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING CHILDREN
1981



MAP NO. 2.1

UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING CHILDREN
1991



MAP NO. 2.2

Low Category (2.5 to5)

In 1981 there were 29 districts, which increases to 37 districts in 1991. Dehradun, Sahranpur, Bijnor, Meerut, Bareli, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Etah, Farukhabad, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Jhansi, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Balia and Varanasi remained in the same category. Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Jalaun's position deteriorated and moved up in medium category. While Mathura Agra, Jaunpur and Ghazipur improved and entered to very low category.

Very Low Category (less than 2.5)

In 1981 there were only 6 districts, which increases to 7 in 1991. Mainipuri, Etawah, Kanpur remained in the same category. Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr's position deteriorated and moved up in low category showing increase in child workers. Bulandshahr's position deteriorated and moved up in low category showing increase in child workers.

PERCENTAGE OF WORKING BOYS

In 1981 there were 6.65 percent boys in the state working, which came down to 5.18 percent in 1991. Highest percentages of working boys were in Mirzapur 11.92 percent, Budaun 11.87 percent and Baharaich 11.28 percent. The lowest participation of boys was in hill region Almora 2.3 percent, Pithoragarh 2.8 percent and Garhwal 3.15 percent. While in 1991 the highest boys participation were in Bahraich 9.7 percent and Rampur 9.16 percent. The lowest boys participation was in Garhwal 1.76 percent and Chamoli 1.9 percent.

Table 2.3

Percentage of working boys to total boys in districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
7.5 and above (High)	Uttarkashi, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bijnor, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareli, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Lalitpur,	Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Rampur, Budaun, Banda, Kheri, Bahraich

Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
	Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Raebareli, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Deoria, Mirzapur.	
5 to 7.5 (Medium)	Tehrigarhwal, Dehradun, Nainital, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Farrukhabad, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Unnao, Sultanpur, Basti, Azamgarh, Varanasi.	Saharanpur, Bijnor, Meerut, Moradabad, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Jalaun, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Gonda, Barabanki, Varanasi, Mirzapur.
2.5 to 5 (Low)	Chamoli, Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Mainpuri, Etawah, Kanpur, Jalaun, Jhansi, Lucknow, Faizabad, Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghazipur	Uttarkashi, tehrigarhwal, Dehradun, Pithoragarh, Almora Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Kanpur, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Jhansi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Lucknow, Raebareli, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Pratapgarh, Basti, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Azamgarh, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghazipur.
Less than 2.5 (Very low)	Almora	Chamoli and Garhwal

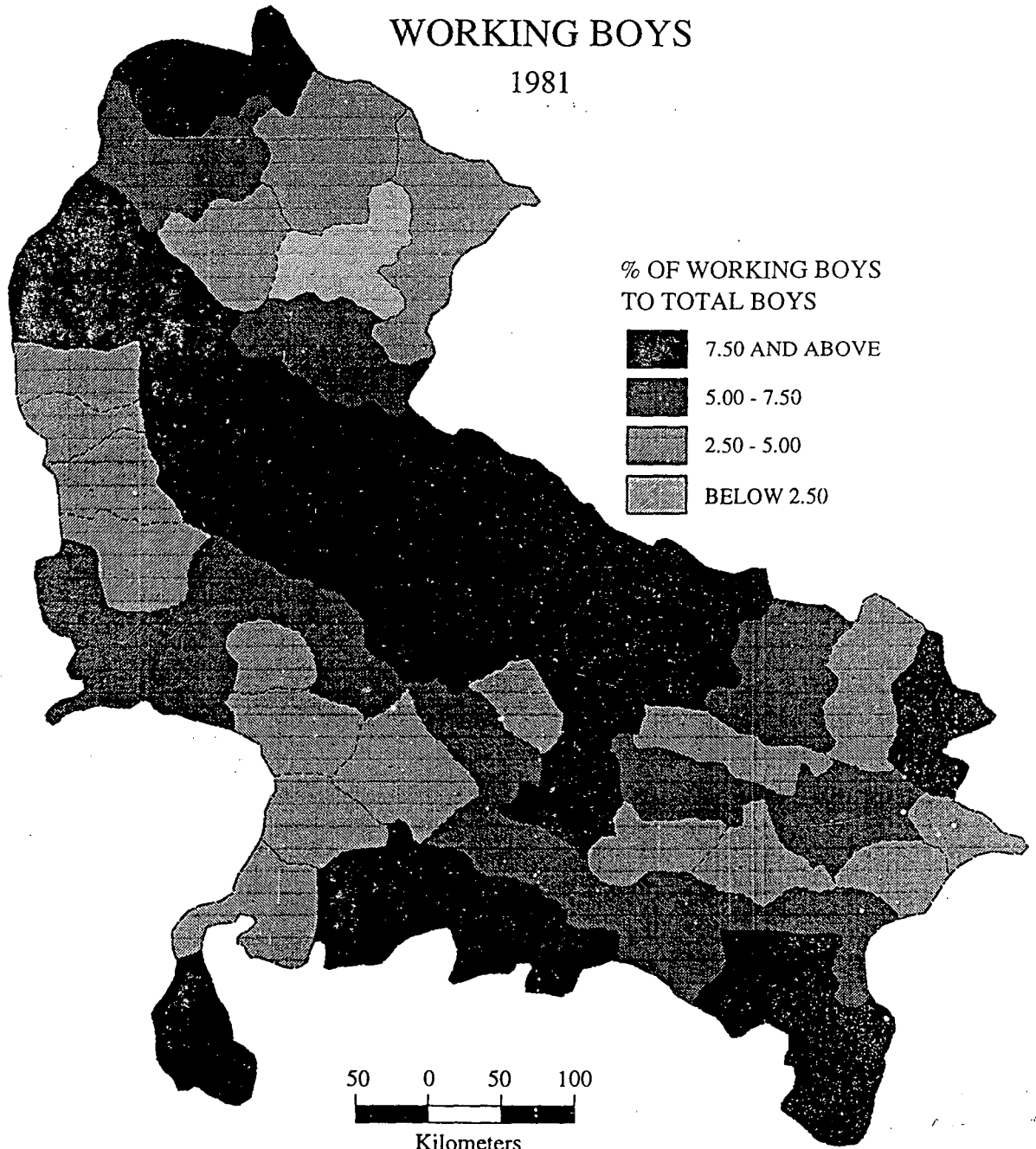
*Source : (1) Social and Cultural table, census of India 1981 , Series – 22 Part IV A
(2) Working Children, Census of India , 1991.*

Very High Category (7.5 and above)

There were 22 districts in 1981, which came down to only 7 in 1991, showing sharp decline in boys' workers. Muzaffarnagar, Rampur, Budaun, Banda, Kheri and Bahraich remained in the same category, Saharanpur, Bijnor, Moradabad, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Sitapur, Hardoi, Gonda, Barabanki and Mirzapur improved and entered to medium category, while Uttarkashi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Raebareli and Deoria improved further and entered to low category.

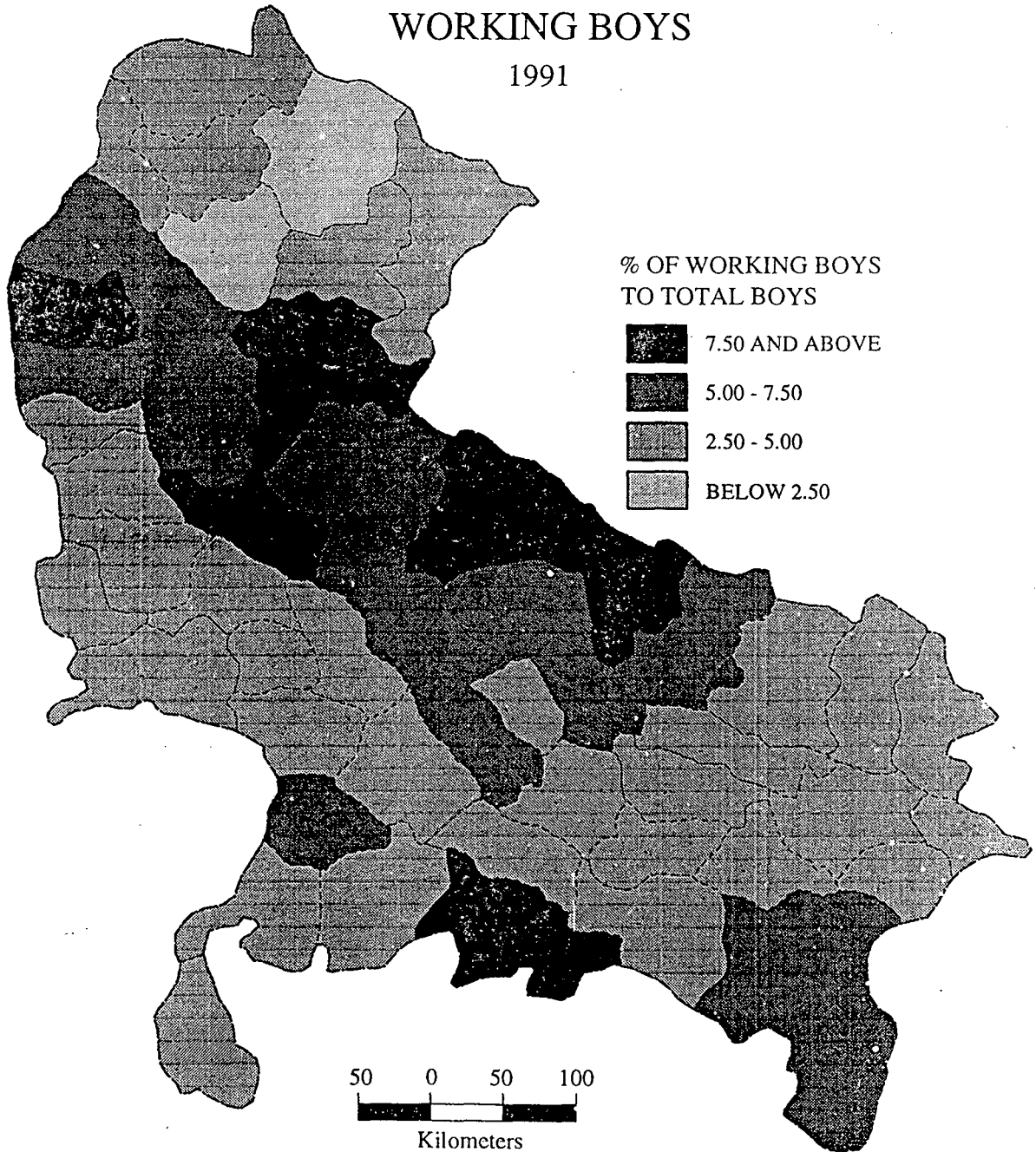
UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING BOYS

1981



MAP NO. 2.3

UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING BOYS
1991



MAP NO. 2.4

Medium Category (5 to 7.5)

There were 14 districts in 1981, which increases to 15 in 1991. Unnao and Varanasi remained in the same category during the decade. While Tehrigarwal, Dehradun, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Farukhabad, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Sultanpur, Basti and Azamgarh improved and entered to low category. On the other hand National's position deteriorated and moved up in high category in 1991.

Low Category (2.5 to 5)

There were 19 districts in 1981, which increases to 32 in 1991. Pithoragarh, Ghaziabad, Aligarh, Mainpuri, Etawah, Kanpur, Jhansi, Lucknow, Faizabad, Pratapgarh. Gorakhpur, Jaunpur, Balia and Ghazipur remained in the same category. Chamoli and Garhwal improved and entered to very low category. While Meerut and Jalaun's position deteriorated and moved up in medium category showing increases in child labour.

Very Low (less than 2.5)

There was only 1 district in this category in 1981 which increased to 2 in 1991. Almora's position deteriorated and moved up in low category showing increases in the child workers.

PERCENTAGE OF WORKING GIRLS IN UTTAR PRADESH

According to Kumuduni Sinha¹ the girls' children are largely engaged in running the household from very early age. Their nature of work includes collection of water, fuel and looking after the younger siblings.

Table 2.4

Percentage of Working Girls to total girls in districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
7.5 and above (High)	Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Garhwal	Uttarkashi, Tehrigarhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora,

¹ Sinha, Kumuduni (1993), "Female Child Labour in Bihar: Incidence and their Condition", in Singh B.P. and Mohanty S. (ed) "Children at Work, Problem and Options", R.B. Publishing Corporation, Delhi.

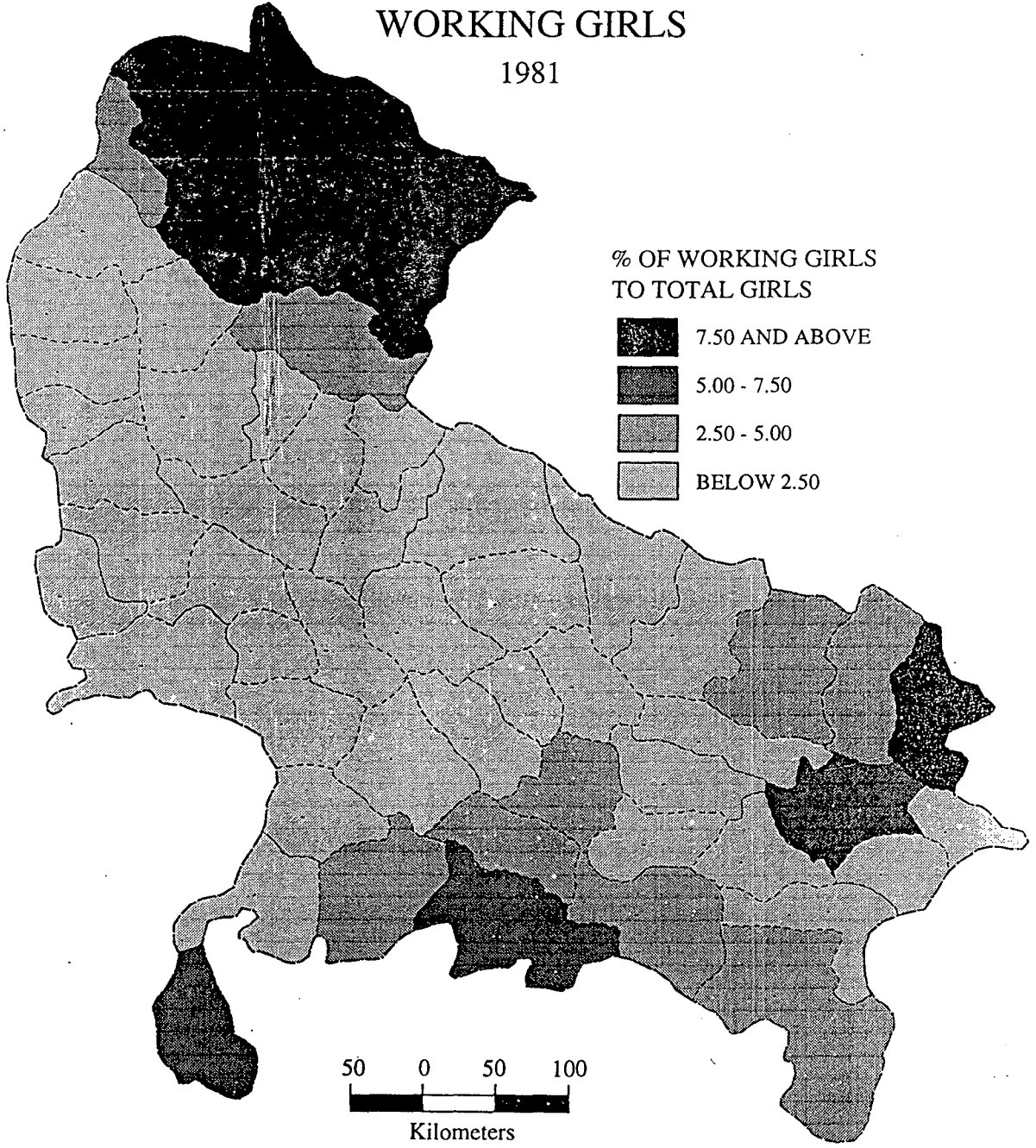
Category (Value in Percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
	Pithoragarh, Almora, Deoria	Banda,
5 to 7.5 (Medium)	Lalipur, Banda, Azamgarh	Chamoli, Nanital
2.5 to 5 (Low)	Dehradu, Nanital, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Hamirpur, Raebareli, Basti, Gorakhpur, Mirzapur	Dehradun, Garhwal, Muzaffarnagar, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Jalaun, lalitpur, Hamirpur, Raebareli, Bahraich, Gonda, Pratapgarh, Basti, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Azamgarh, Varanasi, Morzapur
Less than 2.5 (Very low)	Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bijnor, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareli, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Mathura, Agra, Ah,m Mainpuri, Farrukhabad Etawah, Kanpur, Jalaun, Jhansi, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Pratapgarh, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghazipur, Varanasi.	Saharanpur, Bijnmor, Meerut Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Budaun, Bareli, Pilibhit, Shajahanpur, Aligarh Moradabad, Rampur, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Kanpur, Jhansi, Kheir, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghazipur

*Source : (1) Social and Cultural table, census of India 1981 , Series – 22 Part IV A
(2) Working Children, Census of India , 1991.*

In 1981 girls participation rate was 2.16 percent, increased to 2.57 percent in 1991. In 1981 girls participation arate was highest in Tehrigarhwal 29.24 percent, Uttarkashi 19.5 percent and Chamoli 16.5 percent. Lowest girls participation were in Mainpuri 0.07 percent, bareli 0.14 percent and Shahjahanpur 0.17 percent. While in 1991 highest girl participation rate were in Uttarkashi 11.6 percent, Tehrigarhwal 9.7 percent and Pithoragarh 9.14 percent and lowest in Etawah 0.27 percent and Mainpuri 0.29 percent.

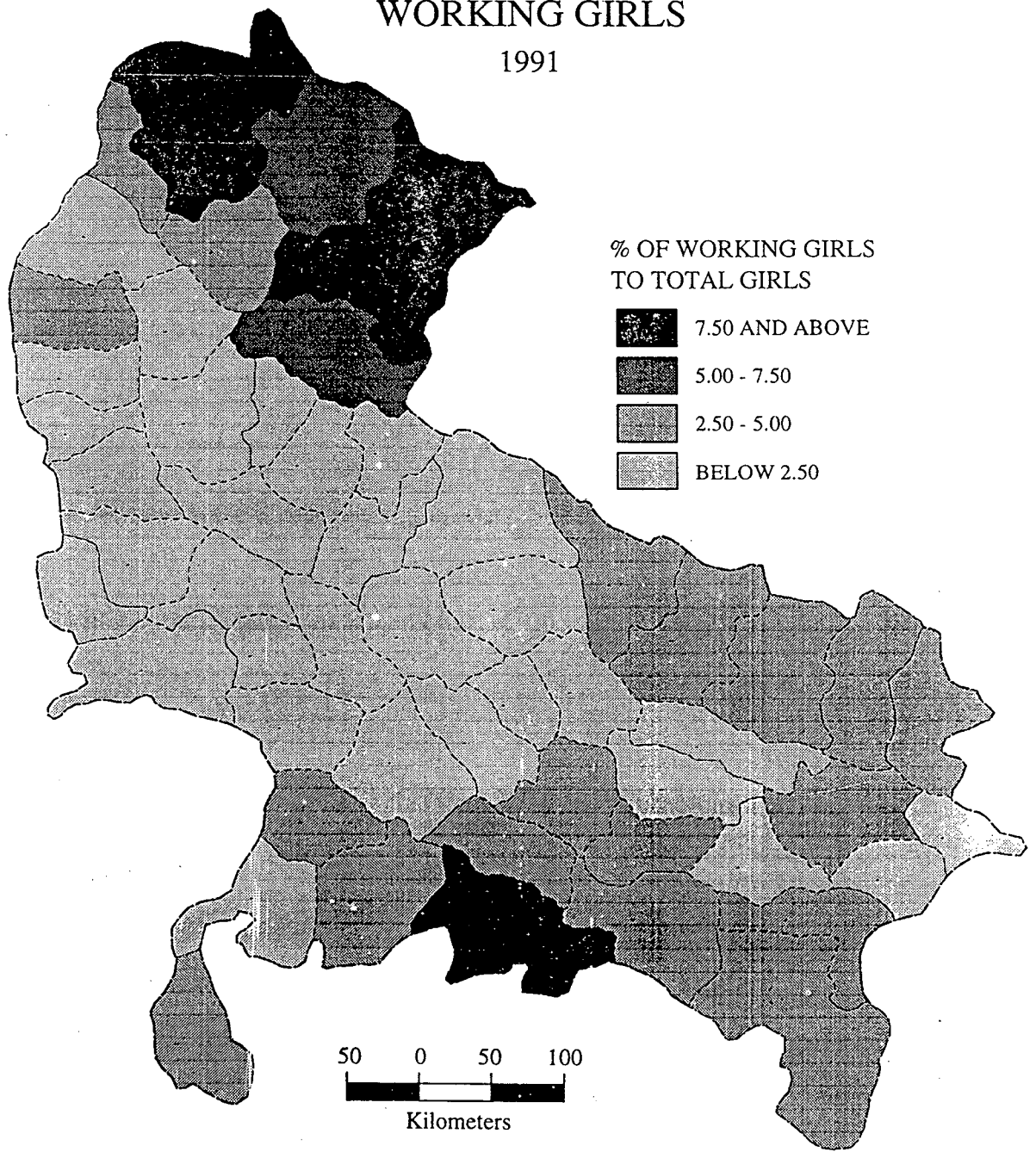
Very High (7.5 and above)

UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING GIRLS
1981



MAP No. 2.5

UTTAR PRADESH
WORKING GIRLS
1991



MAP NO. 2.6

There were 7 districts in this category in 1981, which came down to 5 in 1991. Uttarkashi, Tehrigarhwal, Pithoragarh and Almora remained in the same category. Chamoli improved and paced in medium group, While Garhwal and Deoria Improved in to low category.

Medium (5 to 7.5)

There were 3 districts in this category in 1981, which came down 2 in 1991 Lalitpur and Azamgarh improved and entered into low category, While Banda's position Deteriorated and moved up in the high category.

Low (2.5 to 5)

There were 9 districts in this category in 1981, which increase to 18 in 1991. Dehradun, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Hamirpur, Raebareli, Basti, Gorakhpur and Mirzapur remained in the same group, while Nainital position deteriorated and moved up in medium group.

Very Low (les than 2.5)

There were 37 districts in this group in 1981, which came down to 31 in 1991 shows increase in girl child workers during the decades. Muzaffarnagar, Jalaun, Baharaich, Gonda, Pratapgarh and Varanasi position deteriorated and moved up in a low category, while rest of the districts remained in the same group.

Table 2.5

Rural-Urban distribution of Working Children in Uttar Pradesh in 1981

State / Districts	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	90.79	89.16	95.74	9.21	10.84	4.26
Uttarkashi	98.78	96.02	99.88	1.22	3.98	0.12
Chamoli	97.89	94.15	98.71	2.11	5.85	1.29
Tehrigarhwal	99.72	98.89	99.97	0.28	1.11	0.03
Dehradun	86.88	83.09	96.18	13.12	16.91	3.82
Garhwal	98.52	94.11	99.90	1.48	5.89	0.10
Pithoragarh	98.89	95.80	99.74	1.11	4.20	0.26
Almora	98.58	93.55	99.80	1.42	6.45	0.20
Nainital	88.89	86.69	95.05	11.11	13.31	4.95

State / Districts	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Saharanpur	87.00	86.76	91.03	13.00	13.24	8.97
Muzaffarnagar	87.92	87.84	89.16	12.08	12.16	10.84
Bijnor	80.79	81.34	73.52	19.21	18.66	26.48
Meerut	77.37	76.50	84.29	22.63	23.50	15.71
Ghaziabad	81.18	81.52	77.64	18.84	18.49	22.47
Bulandshahr	79.77	80.17	72.65	20.23	19.83	27.35
Moradabad	84.26	84.85	71.22	15.74	15.15	28.73
Rampur	83.54	84.30	55.88	16.27	15.50	44.12
Buduan	92.37	92.44	88.27	8.93	7.56	12.73
Bareilly	84.35	84.91	44.70	15.51	14.96	55.05
Pilibhit	92.68	92.76	87.98	7.31	7.23	12.02
Shahjahanpur	86.08	86.43	64.49	13.92	13.57	35.23
Aligarh	83.56	83.76	79.27	16.43	16.23	20.73
Mathura	85.82	85.43	90.66	14.17	14.57	9.26
Agra	71.81	71.14	84.04	28.19	28.85	15.96
Etah	88.09	88.73	68.94	11.91	11.27	31.06
Mainpuri	94.30	94.24	98.61	5.70	5.76	1.39
Farrukhabad	89.27	89.80	84.55	10.73	10.19	15.45
Etawah	87.00	88.20	65.88	13.01	11.81	34.12
Kanpur	73.76	72.08	87.07	26.24	27.92	12.93
Fatehpur	95.378	94.77	98.06	4.32	5.38	1.94
Allahabad	93.63	92.67	96.18	6.28	7.33	3.47
Jalaun	87.26	85.70	93.01	12.72	14.26	7.05
Jhansi	77.41	77.61	76.75	22.60	22.39	23.29
Lalitpur	97.57	97.12	98.55	2.43	2.88	1.45
Hamirpur	93.41	92.50	95.85	6.59	7.50	4.15
Banda	95.91	94.72	97.99	4.09	5.28	2.00
Kheri	96.29	96.28	96.44	3.72	3.72	3.56
Sitapur	95.39	95.79	82.96	4.61	4.21	17.14
Hardoi	93.52	93.71	84.18	6.49	6.29	15.99
Unnao	92.23	91.38	96.52	7.10	7.80	3.50
Lucknow	67.81	66.73	77.80	32.18	33.27	22.13
Raebareilly	75.44	66.59	99.35	24.56	33.41	0.65
Bahraich	97.20	97.07	99.38	2.80	2.93	0.58
Gonda	97.08	97.01	97.65	3.14	3.24	2.35
Barabanki	94.86	94.74	95.69	5.14	5.26	4.31
Faizabad	92.21	92.06	92.70	7.75	7.94	7.12
Sultanpur	98.49	98.37	98.86	1.51	1.63	1.14
Pratapgarh	96.87	96.03	98.93	3.12	3.96	1.07
Basti	97.57	97.19	98.50	2.43	2.82	1.50
Gorakhpur	96.49	95.21	99.31	3.51	4.78	0.69
Deoria	97.68	96.99	98.50	2.32	3.01	1.50
Azamgarh	92.84	92.94	92.71	7.16	7.06	7.28
Jaunpur	95.44	95.04	96.58	4.56	4.96	3.42
Balia	95.37	94.03	97.85	4.63	5.97	2.15
Ghazipur	94.88	94.05	96.55	5.13	5.95	3.48

State / Districts	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Varanasi	81.19	78.58	93.38	18.80	21.42	6.62
Mirzapur	94.84	93.47	98.79	5.16	6.53	1.20

Source: (1) Social and cultural table, Census of India 1981, Series – 22, Part IV A.

(2) Working Children, Census of India, 1991.

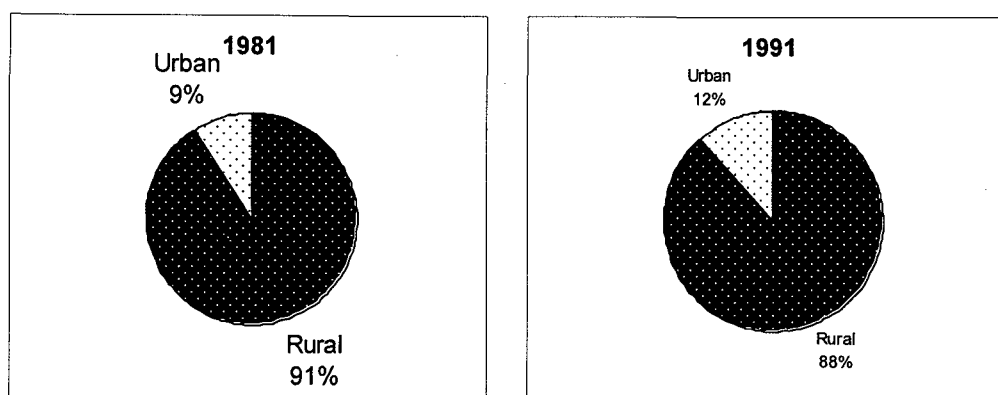
RURAL URBAN DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD LABOUR IN UTTAR PRADESH DURING 1981-91

India's 75 percent of the population lives in rural areas. Agriculture plays a very vital role in Indian economy; Backwardness of India's economy forces most of the people to live in the rural areas.² Child labor is especially prevalent in rural areas where the capacity to enforce minimum age requirements for schooling and work is lacking.

During 1981 90.79 percent of the working children are form rural areas, which decreased to 88.22 percent in 1991. While in urban areas working children increase to 11.78 percent from 9.21 percent during 1981-91. (Please see Fig 1.1)

Fig.1.1

Rural-Urban distribution of Working Children in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991



In 1981 the highest proportion of child labors in rural areas where in Tehrigarwal 99.72 percent followed by Pithoragarh 98.89 percent, Uttarkashi 98.78

² Sinha, S.K. (1991). "Child Labour in Calcutta", Naya Prakash, Calcutta, p.2.

percent, Almora 98.58 percent, Garhwal 98.52 percent and Sultanpur 98.49 percent. There were 32 districts where the proportion of working children is higher in rural areas than that of the Uttar Pradesh. The lowest proportion of the child labour in rural areas was in Lucknow 67.01 percent and then in Agra 71.81 percent, Kanpur 73.76 percent and Raebareli 75.44 percent.

While in urban areas highest proportion of the child workers was in Lucknow 32.18 percent followed by Agra 28.19 percent, Kanpur 26.24 percent and Raebareli 24.56 percent, While the lowest proportion of child worker was in Tehrigarhwal 0.22 percent, then Pithoragarh 1.11 percent, Uttarkashi 1.22 percent, Almora 1.42 percent, Garhwal 1.48 percent and Sultanpur 1.51 percent.

Table 2.6

Rural-Urban distribution of Working Children in Uttar Pradesh in 1991

State/ Districts	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	88.22	85.97	93.48	11.78	14.03	6.52
Uttarkashi	98.61	96.26	99.38	1.39	3.74	0.62
Chamoli	96.38	87.72	98.74	3.62	12.28	1.26
Tehrigarhwal	98.76	95.93	99.60	1.24	4.07	0.40
Dehradun	86.60	76.91	96.77	13.40	23.09	3.23
Garhwal	94.54	85.16	99.07	5.46	14.84	0.93
Pithoragarh	99.16	97.38	99.69	0.84	2.62	0.31
Almora	96.65	89.47	99.00	3.35	10.53	1.00
Nainital	90.34	86.17	95.87	9.66	13.83	4.13
Saharanpur	85.31	84.36	91.39	14.69	15.64	8.61
Muzaffarnagar	85.39	82.88	92.46	14.61	17.12	7.54
Bijnor	78.45	77.82	82.74	21.55	22.18	17.26
Meerut	76.97	73.94	86.06	23.03	26.06	13.94
Ghaziabad	67.04	61.14	80.94	32.96	38.86	19.06
Bulandshahr	76.94	75.18	82.36	23.06	24.82	17.64
Moradabad	78.01	78.77	72.66	21.99	21.23	27.34
Rampur	83.35	83.35	77.10	17.08	16.15	22.90
Budaun	89.26	89.83	82.43	10.74	10.17	17.57
Bareilly	77.01	77.63	70.90	22.99	22.37	29.10
Pilibhit	88.01	87.82	89.41	11.99	12.18	10.59
Shahjahanpur	85.29	85.23	86.26	14.71	14.77	13.74
Aligarh	83.19	77.58	94.39	16.81	22.42	5.61
Mathura	78.91	77.40	84.65	21.09	22.60	15.35
Agra	65.74	65.83	64.53	34.33	34.17	35.47
Etah	87.94	87.81	88.51	12.06	12.19	11.49

State/ Districts	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Mainpuri	93.09	92.87	95.56	6.91	7.13	4.44
Farrukhabad	80.38	85.10	59.62	19.62	14.90	40.38
Etawah	85.67	85.68	85.54	14.33	14.32	14.46
Kanpur	67.44	65.89	77.77	32.56	34.11	22.23
Fatehpur	96.70	95.51	98.31	3.30	4.49	1.69
Allahabad	91.40	89.09	94.37	8.60	10.91	5.63
Jalaun	77.90	74.52	88.47	22.10	25.48	11.53
Jhansi	76.19	72.57	82.65	23.81	27.43	17.35
Lalitpur	97.29	96.64	98.08	2.71	3.36	1.92
Hamirpur	93.20	90.59	96.82	6.80	9.41	3.18
Banda	95.52	93.75	97.48	4.48	6.25	2.52
Kheri	94.81	94.48	99.49	5.19	5.52	0.51
Sitapur	94.09	93.89	96.26	5.91	6.11	3.74
Hardoi	91.62	91.90	89.46	8.38	8.10	10.54
Unnao	91.44	90.90	92.99	8.56	9.10	7.01
Lucknow	51.96	49.22	62.01	48.04	50.78	37.99
Raebareli	96.00	95.00	97.32	4.00	5.00	2.68
Bahraich	95.93	95.15	97.49	4.07	4.858	1.51
Gonda	97.04	96.10	99.52	2.96	3.90	0.48
Barabanki	93.29	93.92	91.28	6.71	6.08	8.72
Faizabad	93.83	92.22	96.87	6.17	8.03	3.13
Sultanpur	97.70	97.34	98.31	2.30	2.66	1.69
Pratapgarh	95.74	93.72	98.07	4.26	6.28	1.93
Basti	96.29	96.18	96.47	3.71	3.82	3.53
Gorakhpur	94.35	91.78	98.13	5.65	8.22	1.87
Deoria	96.57	95.54	97.93	3.43	4.46	2.07
Azamgarh	91.41	90.39	92.68	8.59	9.61	7.32
Jaunpur	96.05	94.64	98.01	3.95	5.36	1.99
Balia	93.75	92.09	96.37	6.25	7.91	3.63
Ghazipur	96.60	95.56	97.92	3.40	4.44	2.08
Varanasi	77.73	72.09	88.40	22.27	27.91	11.60
Mirzapur	94.77	92.94	97.68	5.23	7.06	2.32

Source: Working Children, Census of India, 1991

In 1991 highest proportion of child worker in rural areas was in Pithoragarh 99.16 percent followed by Tehrigarhwal 98.76 percent, Uttarkashi 98.61 percent and Sultanpur 97.7 percent. While the lowest proportion was in Lucknow 51.96 percent, then Agra 65.74 percent, Ghaziabad 67.04 percent and Kanpur 67.44 percent.

In urban areas the highest proportion of child worker was in Lucknow 48.04 percent followed by Agra 34.26 percent, Ghaziabad 32.96 percent and Kanpur 32.56

percent. The lowest proportion was in Pithoragarh 0.84 percent, then Tehrigarhwal 1.24 percent, Uttarkashi 1.39 percent and Sultanpur 1.3 percent.

Girls child labour dominated over boys in most of the districts of Uttar Pradesh in rural areas, as most of the girl children are engaged in performing household activities. But in urban areas boys child labour percentage is higher in most of the districts. It may be due to maximum migration of boys to the urban areas for work.

Table 2.7

**Sector wise proportion of Child Workers to Total Workers in Uttar Pradesh
during 1991**

State/ Districts	Agricultural			Industrial		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Uttar Pradesh	80.43	79.20	85.33	19.57	20.80	14.67
Uttarkashi	96.17	88.54	98.52	3.83	11.46	1.48
Chamoli	94.83	79.06	98.81	5.17	20.94	1.19
Tehrigarhwal	96.18	83.21	99.52	3.82	16.79	0.48
Dehradun	73.13	61.50	88.77	26.87	38.50	11.23
Garhwal	86.80	70.10	97.13	13.20	29.90	2.88
Pithoragarh	95.58	82.29	98.70	4.42	17.71	1.30
Almora	95.36	76.28	99.05	4.64	23.72	0.95
Nainital	79.67	75.30	90.12	20.33	24.70	9.88
Saharanpur	75.48	77.31	54.16	24.52	22.69	45.84
Muzaffarnagar	80.20	82.35	52.33	19.80	17.65	47.67
Bijnor	77.06	77.38	73.26	22.94	22.62	2.74
Meerut	74.57	75.86	59.73	25.43	24.14	40.27
Ghaziabad	78.81	79.02	77.55	21.19	20.98	22.45
Bulandshahr	64.49	64.23	65.94	35.51	35.77	34.60
Moradabad	57.81	58.68	49.35	42.19	41.32	50.65
Rampur	71.11	71.23	70.32	28.89	28.77	29.68
Budaun	67.53	66.77	73.70	32.47	33.23	26.30
Bareilly	68.87	68.39	72.50	31.13	31.61	27.50
Pilibhit	44.56	45.28	36.90	55.44	54.72	63.10
Shahjahanpur	50.93	52.79	25.56	49.07	47.21	74.44
Aligarh	84.55	85.94	58.01	15.45	14.06	41.99
Mathura	86.96	87.74	70.83	13.04	12.26	29.17

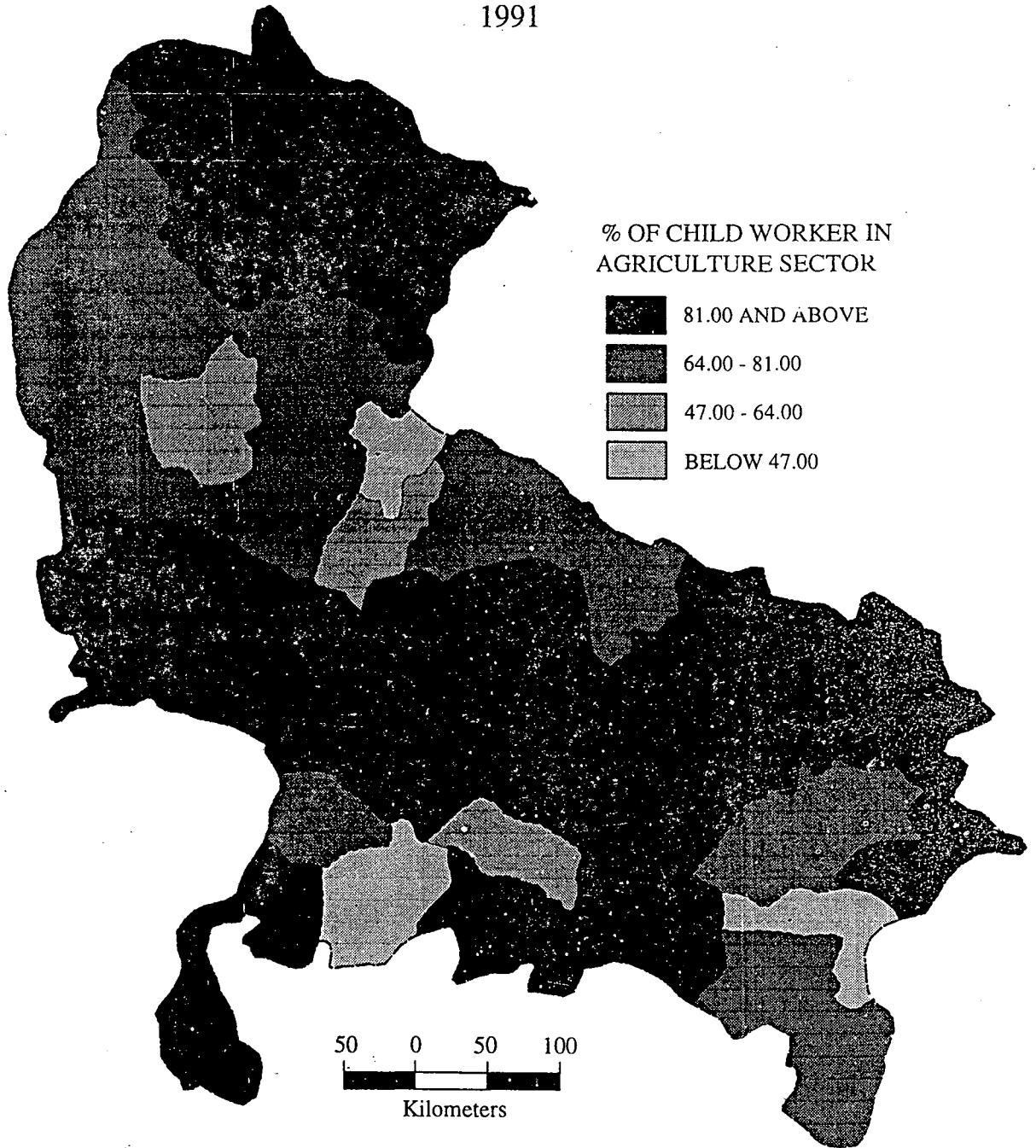
State/ Districts	Agricultural			Industrial		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Agra	84.12	84.93	61.90	15.88	15.07	38.10
Etah	84.42	85.67	57.73	15.58	14.33	42.27
Mainpuri	84.03	84.41	74.55	15.97	15.59	25.45
Farrukhabad	92.12	92.62	80.83	7.88	7.38	19.17
Etawah	91.25	91.54	87.05	8.75	8.46	12.95
Kanpur	89.06	89.44	85.83	10.94	10.56	14.17
Fatehpur	58.14	55.84	68.98	41.86	44.16	31.02
Allahabad	88.27	86.82	91.48	11.73	13.18	8.52
Jalaun	71.53	80.92	20.88	28.47	19.08	79.12
Jhansi	84.11	85.02	68.26	15.89	14.98	31.74
Lalitpur	85.59	85.39	87.10	14.41	14.61	12.90
Hamirpur	29.30	27.66	45.66	70.70	72.34	54.34
Banda	91.00	92.30	80.14	9.00	7.97	19.86
Kheri	75.67	75.73	75.41	24.33	24.27	24.59
Sitapur	91.34	90.22	94.93	8.66	9.78	5.07
Hardoi	84.92	82.06	94.49	15.08	17.94	5.51
Unnao	93.76	92.00	97.30	6.24	8.00	2.70
Lucknow	87.47	85.75	91.55	12.53	14.25	8.45
Raebareli	90.14	87.32	94.77	9.86	12.68	5.23
Bahraich	77.28	74.38	82.40	22.72	25.62	17.60
Gonda	92.96	92.82	94.49	7.04	7.18	5.51
Barabanki	93.13	92.81	95.56	6.69	7.19	4.44
Faizabad	84.81	85.89	80.15	15.19	14.11	19.85
Sultanpur	85.29	83.44	89.91	14.71	16.56	10.09
Pratapgarh	89.40	88.57	91.56	10.60	11.43	8.44
Basti	94.90	93.76	97.75	5.10	6.24	2.25
Gorakhpur	87.16	85.20	92.10	12.84	14.80	7.90
Deoria	91.88	89.379	96.26	8.12	10.21	3.74
Azamgarh	77.22	75.33	81.07	22.78	24.67	18.93
Jaunpur	74.11	70.41	82.87	25.89	29.59	17.13
Balia	90.41	88.63	94.21	9.59	11.37	5.79
Ghazipur	86.16	82.86	92.04	13.84	17.14	7.96
Varanasi	43.60	34.16	72.00	56.40	6.84	28.00
Mirzapur	74.28	66.13	92.09	25.72	33.87	7.91

Source: Economic Tables, Census of India, (1991), Series 25, Part III (B).

SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD WORKERS TO TOTAL WORKER DURING 1991

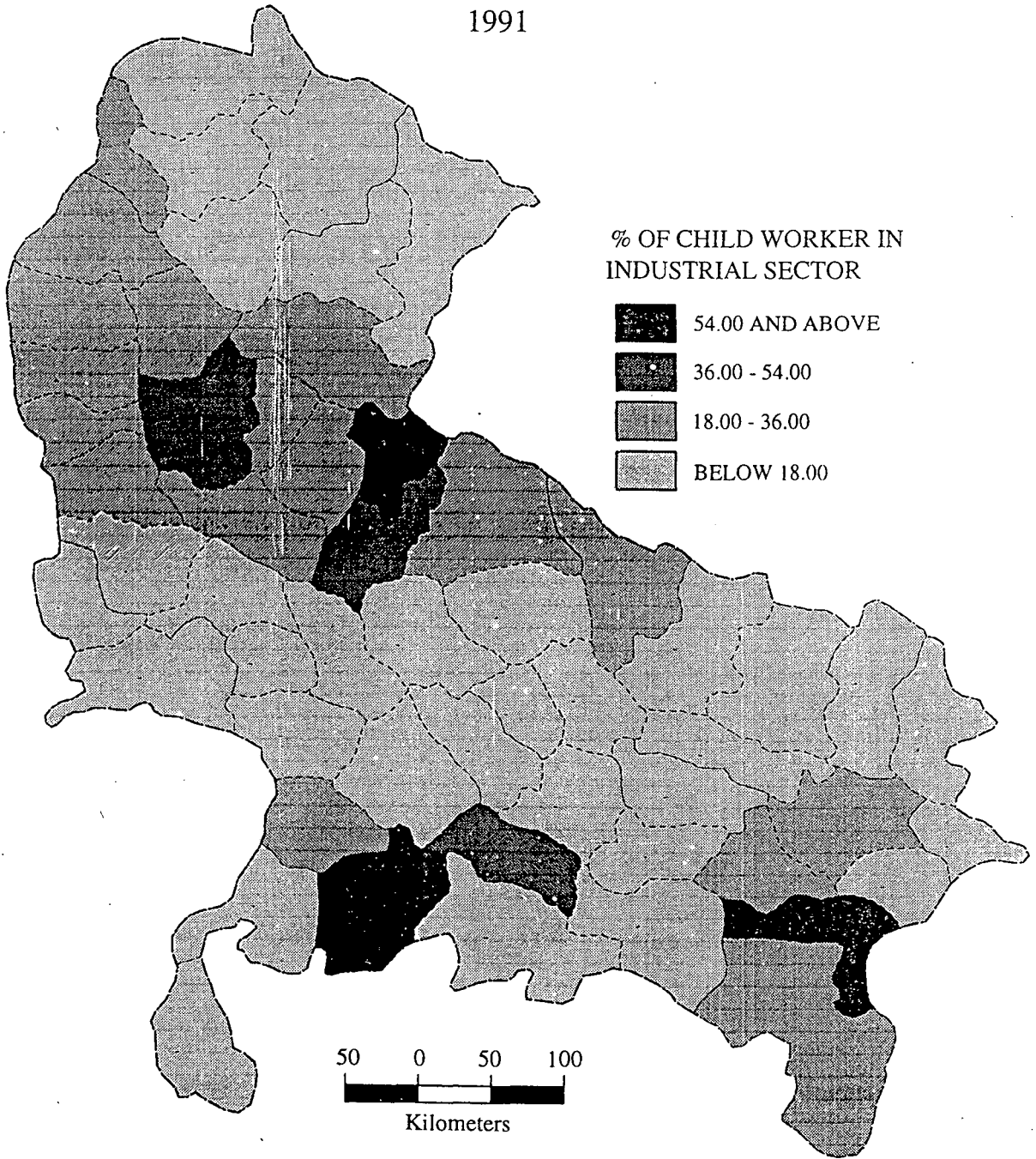
India is an agricultural country, so most of the people are engaged in agricultural Activities. Same is the case with the child worker also, as we can see

UTTAR PRADESH
CHILDREN WORKING IN AGRICULTURE SECTOR
1991



MAP NO. 2.7

UTTAR PRADESH
CHILDREN WORKING IN INDUSTRIAL SECTOR
1991



MAP NO. 20

from the table that 80.4 percent of the child workers are in agricultural sector and only 19.6 percent of them are in industrial sector. The highest percent of child workers was in Tehrigarhwal 96.18 percent followed by Uttarkashi 96.17 percent, Pithoragarh 95.58 percent and Almora 95.36 percent. The lowest percent of child workers in agricultural sector was in Hamirpur 29.30 percent, then Varanasi 43.6 percent, Pilibhit 44.56 percent and Shahjahanpur 50.93 percent, in total 33 districts are having higher percentage of agricultural worker than that of the state average.

While in agricultural sector girls participation rate is higher (85.33 percent) than that of the boys (79.2 percent). As girls are preferred in some works like paddy cultivation, nursery plantation, crop harvesting etc. Highest girls' participation was in Tehrigarhwal 99.52 percent followed by Almora 99.05 percent, Chamoli 98.81 percent, Pithoragarh 98.7 percent and Uttarkashi 98.52 percent. And the lowest girl participation was Jalaun 20.88 percent then Shahjahanpur 25.56 percent, Pilibhit 36.9 percent and Hamirpur 45.66 percent, there 27 districts in Uttar Pradesh where girls participation rate is higher than that of the state.

Boys' participation rate was higher in Basti 93.76 percent followed by Gonda 92.82 percent, Barabanki 92.81 percent, Farrukhabad 92.62 percent and Banda 92.03 percent and Varanasi 34.66 percent. But 32 districts were having higher percentage of boys' workers than that of the state.

While children's involvement in agriculture may indeed be a normal and useful part of the socialization in our country, imparting skills for the future, the reality of such work is often harsh. The combination of poor nutrition and agricultural work in childhood results in stunting, which then impairs earning ability later in life³. Even family-based vegetable farming has been shown to be a hazardous occupation for children, by virtue of exposure to infection from soil and water, the use of heavy watering cans and the lack of protective clothing. Processing of agricultural products can also pose hazards. Peeling, cutting and grading cashew nuts, for example, exposes

³ K. Satyanarayana, T. Prasanna Krishna and B.S. Narasinga Rao: "Effect of early childhood undernutrition and child labour on growth and adult nutritional status of rural Indian boys around Hyderabad", in *Human Nutrition: Clinical Nutrition*, 1986, No. 40C, pp. 131-139.

children to cuts, skin irritation and fatigue, and pain from sitting or standing for long periods.

In industrial sector highest percentage was Hamirpur 70.7 percent followed by Varanasi 56.40 percent and Shahjahanpur 49.07 percent. The lowest percentage was in Tehrigarwal 9.82 percent than Uttarkashi 3.83 percent, Pithoragarh 4.42 percent and Almora 4.64 percent. In total, 23 districts are having higher percentage of industrial child worker than that of the state.

Boys Participation rate was higher (20.8) percent than girls (14.67percent) in industrial sector. This is because of preference to the boys in this sector. Parents even don't want to send their girl child to industries, as the work is comparatively heavier. Industries are in town, where migrated boys from rural areas are available as the rate of boys' migration is higher than girls. Highest boys participation was in Hamirpur 72.34 percent followed by Varanasi 65.84 percent, Pilibhit 52 percent and Shahjahanpur 47.21 percent. And lowest participation was in Basti 6.24 percent then Gonda 7.18 percent, Barabanki 7.19 percent. Farrukhabad 7.88 percent and Banda 7.97 percent. Only 24 districts are having higher percentage of boys industrial worker than Uttar Pradesh. Girls participation was highest in Jalaun 79.12 percent followed by Shahjahanpur 74.44 percent and Pilibhit 63.1 percent. And lowest participation rate was in Tehrigarhwal 0.48 percent, then Almora 0.95 percent, Chamoli 1.19 percent, Pithoragarh 1.3 percent and Uttarkashi 1.48 percent. In total 29 districts having higher percentage of female participation in industrial sector than Uttar Pradesh.

Table 2.8

Decadal Change of Working Children, Boys and Girls in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

States / Districts	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	-0.62	-1.48	0.41
Uttarkashi	-5.96	-3.94	-7.94
Chamoli	-5.33	-1.49	-9.68
Tehrigarhwal	-8.75	-4.15	-13.57
Dehradun	-0.14	-1.64	1.53
Garhwal	-3.94	-1.40	-6.47

States / Districts	Total	Boys	Girls
Pithoragarh	-0.79	-0.18	-1.49
Almora	-0.46	0.37	-1.23
Nainital	2.73	1.51	4.06
Saharanpur	-1.12	-2.40	0.53
Muzaffarnagar	0.92	-0.36	2.56
Bijnor	-1.59	-2.97	0.14
Meerut	0.64	0.30	1.18
Ghaziabad	0.61	0.04	1.35
Bulandshahr	0.61	0.21	1.15
Moradabad	-1.18	-2.39	0.55
Rampur	-0.47	-1.73	1.20
Budaun	-1.96	-3.85	0.39
Bareilly	-0.71	-1.66	0.60
Pilibhit	-1.41	-3.19	0.75
Shahjahanpur	-0.72	-1.60	0.42
Aligarh	1.07	0.22	2.21
Mathura	-1.02	-2.15	0.50
Agra	-1.05	-1.94	0.17
Etah	0.11	-0.69	1.21
Mainpuri	-0.48	-0.96	0.22
Farrukhabad	-0.66	-1.40	0.38
Etawah	-0.19	-0.24	0.02
Kanpur	-0.32	-0.61	-0.01
Fatehpur	-0.35	-1.44	0.88
Allahabad	-0.27	-1.59	1.28
Jalaun	2.00	2.43	1.37
Jhansi	-0.13	-0.89	0.79
Lalitpur	-3.67	-5.49	-1.39
Hamirpur	-1.41	-2.96	0.55
Banda	0.24	-1.49	2.31
Kheri	-0.86	-1.83	0.47
Sitapur	-0.75	-1.60	0.44
Hardoi	-0.93	-2.18	0.70
Unnao	-0.82	-1.81	0.44
Lucknow	-0.11	-0.44	0.73
Raebareilly	-3.69	-6.18	-0.83
Bahraich	0.38	-1.56	2.89
Gonda	0.00	-1.52	1.97
Barabanki	-0.81	-1.97	0.79
Faizabad	-0.43	-1.27	0.60
Sultanpur	-0.72	-1.65	0.41
Pratapgarh	-0.06	-0.88	0.89
Basti	-1.17	-2.02	-0.15
Gorakhpur	-0.67	-1.37	0.14
Deoria	-4.80	-4.76	-4.84
Azamgarh	-2.80	-3.02	-2.56
Jaunpur	-1.20	-2.29	0.07

States / Districts	Total	Boys	Girls
Balia	-0.10	-0.39	0.20
Ghazipur	-0.74	-1.43	0.03
Varanasi	-0.39	-1.81	1.30
Mirzapur	-2.79	-5.24	0.04

Source: (1) *Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, Series – 22 Part IV A*
(2) *Working Children, Census of India, 1991*

DECADAL CHANGE DURING 1981 - 1991

We can see from the table 2.8 that states percentage decreases by (-0.62 percent), and in almost all the districts of Uttar Pradesh there is a decrease of child labour incidence with some exceptions like Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Etah, Jalaun, Banda and Lucknow, where the percentage of child workers increases during the decade. Highest increase was in Nainital (2.73 percent). During the decade maximum decrease in child labour was in the districts of Tehrigarhwal (-8.75 percent).

Boys percentage of child labour also decreases in almost all the districts except the 10 districts Almora, Nainital, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Jalaun, Ghazipur, Varanasi and Mirzapur. State percentage decreases by -1.48 percent. But girls' percentage of child labour increase over the decade by 0.41 percent. In almost all the districts of Uttar Pradesh the girls participation rate increases except 12 districts, Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Kanpur, Lalitpur, Raebareli, Basti, Deoria and Azamgarh, where the percentage of working girls decreases.

CONCLUSION

During the decade though the total child workers proportion decreased but working girls proportion has increased in the same period. Working girls proportion is higher in rural areas who are engaged mainly in primary activities, while boys are more in industrial sector. Working girls proportion is higher in Hill regions (now Uttaranchal), Eastern Uttar Pradesh and Bundelkhand, which are rather industrially backward areas of the State. The district wise analysis revealed that in 1991 highest girl participation rate were in Uttarkashi 11.6 percent, Tehrigarhwal 9.7 percent and

Pithoragarh 9.14 percent and lowest in Etawah 0.27 percent and Mainpuri 0.29 percent.

Boys participation rate is higher in urban areas, due to higher migration of boys from rural to urban in comparison to girls. In 1991 the highest boys participation were in Bahraich 9.7 percent and Rampur 9.16 percent. The lowest boys participation was in Garhwal 1.76 percent and Chamoli 1.9 percent.

Sectoral distribution analysis of child labour clearly points toward dominance of child labour in the agriculture sector. It is not surprising because the Uttar Pradesh economy is predominantly agricultural. There were 72.2 per cent agriculture workers out of total workers in this sector in 1991. While for the child labour this share was 80.4 percent. The highest percent of child workers was in Tehrigarhwal 96.18 percent followed by Uttarkashi 96.17 percent, Pithoragarh 95.58 percent and Almora 95.36 percent. The lowest percent of child workers in agricultural sector was in Hamirpur 29.30 percent, then Varanasi 43.6 percent, Pilibhit 44.56 percent and Shahjahanpur 50.93 percent.

Moreover, in agricultural sector girls participation rate was higher (85.33 percent) than that of the boys (79.2 percent). Highest girls participation was in Tehrigarhwal 99.52 while lowest was in Jalaun with 20.88 percent. On other hand All work in the agriculture may not hazardous but very often excessive involvement proves to be detrimental to childrens' growth and development.

Boys Participation rate was higher (20.8) percent than girls (14.67percent) in industrial sector. In industrial sector highest percentage was Hamirpur 70.7 percent followed by Varanasi 56.40 percent and Shahjahanpur 49.07 percent. The lowest percentage was in Tehrigarwal 9.82 percent than Uttarkashi 3.83 percent, Pithoragarh 4.42 percent and Almora 4.64 percent.

CHAPTER THREE

CHILD LABOUR AND EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

India has the dubious distinction of being the nation with the largest number of child labourers in the world. The official figure of child labourers is 11.2 million (1991 Census) but the actual number is much higher¹ and substantial part of it is in Uttar Pradesh. Many of these working under conditions those are at high cost to their physical, social emotional and spiritual development. There is a growing consensus among governments and civil society that immediate steps need to be taken to protect all children from detrimental labour through preventive measures, and by removing them from hazardous situations.

Now it is widely believed that child labour and education is intimately correlated. In fact education is key to child labour eradication. A serious lack of educational opportunities is becoming well understood as a major contributor to children's involvement in harmful work. Conversely, educators and others concerned with access to education have noted that work and a number of related factors contribute significantly to the difficulty of millions of children exercising their right to education or benefitting from it fully when they gain access. These include quality and relevance of the education system itself, cost, inflexible schedules, long work hours and other hazardous working conditions. Childhood is a critical stage of life that must be respected and honoured for itself as well as a transition to productive and fulfilling adulthood. Children deserve, need, and have the right to a nurturing and stimulating environment that fosters growth and development in all areas of their lives. Key among these is education, which includes not only access to school, but quality basic learning that is fundamental to developing critical life and learning skills. Education is also an enabling right that contributes to opening the space for the fulfillment of all other rights - to health, nutrition, leisure,

¹ For the year 2000, the ILO projects that there will be 13,157,000 economically active children, 5,992,000 girls and 7,165,000 boys between the ages of 10-14, representing 12.07% of this age group. (ILO, International Labour Office - Bureau of Statistics, Economically Active Population 1950-2010, STAT Working Paper, ILO 1997)

The Law Minister said that the country has 20 million child labourers. ("Laws alone cannot tackle child labour", Indian Express, 5 February 2000)

participation in society, and assists children in becoming self-sufficient, contributing members of society. Because deficiencies in education systems can in themselves also facilitate the perpetuation of child labour, these need to be addressed and schools made a more viable, valuable, and interesting option for children. Although this paper focuses on mostly children of primary school age, it attributes equal importance to adolescents who may be of legal working age but have been denied or did not finish primary school because of work.

Any work activity, which interferes with a child's right to education, is intolerable and must be eliminated. All best efforts must focus on preventing children from entering work that will impede or prevent their education as well as removing those who are currently working under harmful conditions and ensuring that they are provided with an enabling educational environment. The linkage between child labour and education must also be understood in the larger context of powerful social, economic, political, and cultural forces which play a major role in determining the level of child participation in both activities.

In this chapter the analysis of working children and the proportion of attending and not attending school and also the proportion of those children who were neither working nor attending school has been attempted. This chapter deals with education influencing the incidence of child labour. A number of studies have classified the causes of child work in different categories. Dis-equilibrium in the demand and supply of educational facilities for children in the age group of 5 – 14 years is another major cause of child work.² primary schools are either not available in sufficient numbers or the distance is long, discouraging the children to avail this facility. Due to this children stay at home and become prone to child work.

Countries like Japan, Taiwan, Korea, and China have made primary education compulsory after Second World War, in spite of low per capita income and

²Chaudhari, D.P., (1997), "A Policy perspective on Child Labour in India with pervasive Gender and Urban bias in School Education", *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, Vol.14, no.4, pp.85-98.

acute poverty. But within twenty years they improved a lot and secured a good position.³ China invested a lot in primary education to reduce illiteracy and made primary education compulsory.⁴ Unfortunately India failed to provide major thrust to education especially primary education in past. Now Government of India is also giving more emphasis on primary education. On November 28, 2001 the Lok Sabha unanimously passed the Constitution (93rd Amendment) bill, which made education for the children in the age group of 5 – 14 years a fundamental right. The Act makes it a fundamental duty of every parent / guardian to provide opportunities for education to all children in the 6 – 14 age group.⁵ This new legislation will hopefully will have far reaching implications.

Myron Weiner ⁶ highlighted three major reasons regarding child labour and education in India.

- (1) Child labour was not simply an unfortunate consequence of India's low per capital income but was in fact sustained by government policies.
- (2) The establishment of compulsory primary education was not in the interest of middle class who were primarily concerned with the expansion of government expenditure on higher education.
- (3) Child labour was part of the Indian government's industrial strategy to promote the small scale sector and to expand exports. Policy makers never perceived education as essential to India's modernization and development.

The reasons sighted by Weiner may not be totally correct but there is no denying in the fact Government policies and education setup in the country failed to contain or mitigate the problem.

³ Weiner, Myron, (1994), "India's case against compulsory education", Seminar 413, January, New Delhi. Pp.84-85.

⁴ Weiner Myron, (1991), "The Child and the State in India", Oxford University Press, New Delhi, p. 114.

⁵ Times of India, (2001), 29 November, New Delhi.

⁶ Weiner Myron, (1991), op.cit., p.162.

INTERRELATED FACTORS THAT DETERMINE CHILDREN'S PARTICIPATION IN WORK AND SCHOOL

The relationship between children's work and their education exists on several levels. Whether they are in or out of school, work may absorb time, energy, and resources at the expense of their basic education. On a deeper level, work and school are linked by the complex, entrenched, and powerful political, social, economic, and cultural forces which require for their maintenance: a population that is uneducated, cheap or free labour, and powerless workers. It is not only about children today, but also the adults they become. Moreover, it should be pointed out that the perpetuation of child labour is neither in the best interests of children and their families; nor is it in the best interests of the social and economic health and wealth of nations.

Poverty: cause and consequence

Poverty is cited frequently as a primary reason for child work. It is true that poor families have a greater need for survival or supplementary income from their children's work, although this contribution may be over-estimated in light of what is now known about the role of the range of factors, including poor or inaccessible education, that contribute to making work a more attractive option than school for children.

Poverty that keeps children working also serves to keep them out of school. On the most obvious plane, a child cannot be working and in school at the same time; "survival", it is argued, must take precedence over "development," and the best interests of the child are weighed by the contribution s/he makes to the family and therefore her/his own survival, illustrated by the direct and indirect costs of school. It has been calculated that "free" compulsory education covers only 20 per cent of the total cost of schooling. Other costs for books, uniforms, writing materials, transportation to school, need to be borne by families (King, 1990, Ennew, 1995; Munyakho, 1992). There is also the indirect "opportunity cost" of schooling, the loss of income incurred by a family

whose child is in school rather than working. The higher the opportunity cost of school attendance in relation to a household's income, the greater the perceived need for the child to work.

Understanding poverty as a cause of child labour must include understanding that it is also a consequence and that it is the exploitation of poverty that perpetuates child labour and prevents children from attending or learning in school. Children are desired as workers for their malleability and compliance; their young age is justification for low or no wages. While children's work may increase family income, it also helps to keep adult wages low and increase unemployment. As millions of poor children maintain the labour force at barely-survival wages, their families are kept under- and unemployed; another generation of unskilled, illiterate, powerless adults is in the making, and the structure of poverty and power disparities remains in place. Like poverty itself, the prohibitive cost of education that keeps children out of school and increases the likelihood of their remaining in hazardous work, must also be seen not as natural or even unavoidable, but as a consequence of faulty policies and priorities.

SOCIETAL VALUE AND THE PERCEPTION OF CHILDREN

The complex role of culture and tradition plays an equally important role in the interplay between child labour and education. This includes the struggle and confusion between new and old values and beliefs -- the view of children, the value of work, and the role of money and material goods as symbols of social status. The unconvincing explanation of poverty as a sole cause of child work and its link to other underlying issues are illustrated by the millions of families who, in spite of poverty, manage to find the resources to send their children to school (Salazar and Glasnovich, 1996).

In India most of the poor parents believe that children should work to support the family instead of going to school. Present schools fail to teach skills that make children suitable in acquiring jobs; Job market is also limited and confined to the limited urban areas.

Table 3.1

**Ratio of Children Working and Attending School to Total Child Workers in
Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991**

State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	3.19	3.47	2.11	2.03	2.33	1.29
Uttarkashi	3.94	12.07	0.68	0.70	1.87	0.31
Chamoli	6.17	18.94	3.36	1.19	2.77	0.76
Tehrigarhwal	8.43	28.69	2.16	1.96	4.52	1.20
Dehradun	1.36	1.54	0.92	3.91	3.61	4.22
Garhwal	14.71	34.58	8.52	4.83	6.45	4.05
Pithoragarh	7.10	20.83	3.30	2.51	5.76	1.55
Almora	6.11	21.21	2.47	1.93	3.74	1.34
Nainital	2.70	2.71	2.69	0.90	1.00	0.78
Saharanpur	1.24	1.26	1.00	2.64	2.76	1.91
Muzaffarnagar	1.13	1.13	1.01	0.38	0.41	0.21
Bijnor	2.28	2.18	3.58	2.43	2.48	1.96
Meerut	1.68	1.65	1.88	2.32	2.28	2.51
Ghaziabad	1.83	1.85	1.57	2.09	2.21	0.93
Bulandshahr	1.43	1.40	2.01	2.78	2.84	2.34
Moradabad	1.05	1.04	1.15	0.98	0.96	1.18
Rampur	0.78	0.80	0.00	1.39	1.34	2.00
Budaun	0.62	0.63	0.00	1.10	0.95	5.43
Bareilly	1.74	1.76	0.51	2.22	1.95	8.74
Pilibhit	1.83	1.83	1.29	1.23	1.10	3.91
Shahjahanpur	1.34	1.30	3.98	1.68	1.75	0.00
Aligarh	1.58	1.58	1.57	1.21	1.30	0.48
Mathura	2.01	1.78	4.89	5.66	4.46	14.66
Agra	1.10	1.13	0.49	1.76	1.65	2.99
Etah	0.79	0.75	1.92	0.78	0.82	0.00
Mainpuri	1.14	1.12	2.08	4.23	4.23	4.17
Farrukhabad	1.82	1.94	0.80	3.74	4.37	0.34
Etawah	1.14	1.14	1.09	2.41	2.43	1.91
Kanpur	1.41	1.44	1.14	4.87	3.77	14.08
Fatehpur	4.10	5.03	2.02	1.68	1.73	1.56
Allahabad	1.01	1.31	0.23	2.90	3.43	1.97
Jalaun	3.67	4.36	1.14	24.12	25.82	6.21
Jhansi	1.42	1.53	1.03	1.49	1.16	3.01
Lalitpur	5.15	5.67	4.05	1.33	1.31	1.39
Hamirpur	0.62	0.74	0.30	0.63	0.70	0.39
Banda	0.94	1.27	0.38	2.64	3.17	1.57

State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Kheri	0.86	0.88	0.00	0.77	0.77	0.83
Sitapur	0.92	0.93	0.50	2.81	2.46	7.90
Hardoi	0.64	0.65	0.34	2.90	2.79	4.28
Unnao	1.22	1.43	0.16	1.87	1.79	2.30
Lucknow	2.01	2.08	1.38	10.46	9.25	16.18
Raebareli	3.56	4.03	2.30	3.22	2.82	4.11
Bahraich	0.84	0.89	0.00	1.33	1.37	0.87
Gonda	1.42	1.56	0.36	0.49	0.49	0.49
Barabanki	0.69	0.77	0.14	1.13	1.29	0.43
Faizabad	1.59	1.84	0.77	3.62	3.71	3.39
Sultanpur	1.39	1.72	0.33	2.73	2.51	3.30
Pratapgarh	2.28	3.05	0.41	1.59	1.92	1.05
Basti	2.64	3.27	1.10	1.64	1.55	2.22
Gorakhpur	1.62	2.18	0.39	2.16	2.75	0.77
Deoria	13.14	21.11	3.65	1.73	2.10	0.95
Azamgarh	13.38	20.67	4.06	3.19	3.53	2.48
Jaunpur	5.60	6.73	2.42	1.63	1.89	1.02
Balia	1.88	2.47	0.79	6.26	6.40	5.96
Ghazipur	2.20	2.71	1.16	3.23	3.78	2.24
Varanasi	1.00	1.04	0.81	2.23	2.53	1.36
Mirzapur	0.72	0.86	0.32	1.36	1.32	1.45

Source (1) Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, series – 22, Part IVA
(2) working children, Census of India, 1991.

RATIO OF CHILDREN WORKING AND ATTENDING SCHOOL TO TOTAL CHILD – WORKERS IN DISTRICT OF UTTAR PRADESH DURING 1981 – 1991

Due to government efforts on primary education for children there was reduction in the children numbers both working as well as attending schools.⁷ We can see from the table 3.1 that the percentage of such children is very low, only 3.19 percent during 1981 which is reduced to 2.03 percent during 1991. As evident from Fig.3.1 the percentage for both boys and girls child labour is very low although in case of boys child workers it is higher. In most of the districts the proportion of children working and attending is very low but in districts like Garhwal 14.17 percent, Azamgarh 13.38 percent, Deoria 13.14

⁷ Vishwanathan s., (1995), "Hopes and Fears, The Education Scene", Frontline 6 October, p.89.

percent, Tehrigarhwal 8.43 percent, Chamoli 6.17 percent and Almora 6.11 percent shows higher work participation rate of such children. During 1981 – 1991 there were significant fall in percentage of children working and attending school in Garhwal in Azamgarh and Deoria. In 1991, Lucknow figures highest with 10.46 percent followed by Balia 6.26 percent and Mathura 5.66 percent.

Fig.3.1

Ratio of Children Working and Attending School to Total Child Workers in Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

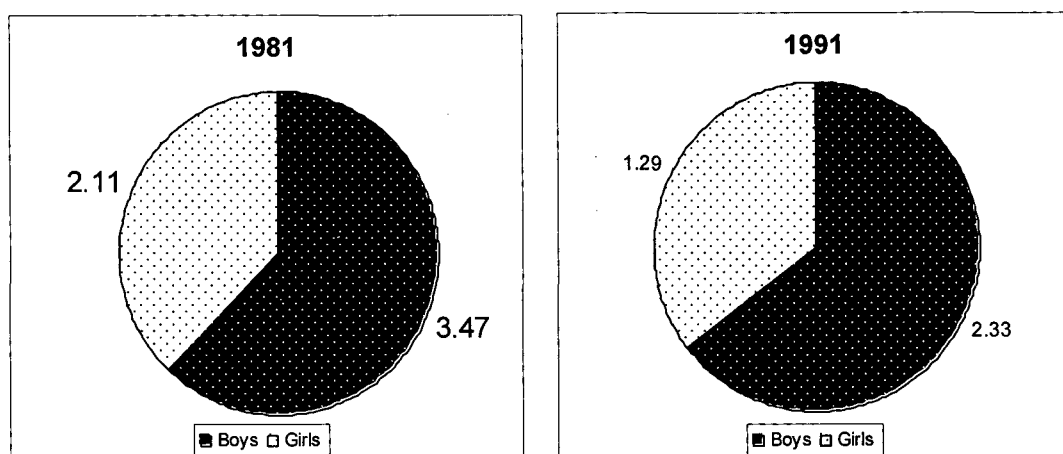


Table 3.2

Ratio of Children Working and Attending School to Total Child Workers in Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
6 and above (high)	Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Azamgarh, Deoria, Almora	Jalaun, Lucknow, Balia
4 to 6 (Medium)	Fatehpur, Lalitpur, Jaunpur	Garhwal, Mathura, Mainpuri, Kanpur
2 to 4 (low)	Uttarkashi, Nainital, Bijnor, Mathura, Jalaun, Lucknow, Raebareli, Pratapgarh, Basti, Ghazipur	Dehradun, Pithoragarh, Saharanpur, Bijnor, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Bareilly, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Allahabad, Banda, Sitapur, Hardoi,

Category (Value in percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
		Raebareli, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Gorakhpur, Azamgarh, Ghazipur, Varanasi
2 and less than 2 (very low)	Dehradun, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Agra, Etah, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Jhansi, Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Gorakhpur, Balia, Varanasi, Mirzapur.	Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Almora, Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Agra, Etah, Fatehpur, Jhansi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Kheri, Unnao, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Pratapgarh, Basti, Deoria, Jaunpur, Mirzapur.

Source (1) Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, series – 22, Part IVA
(3) working children, Census of India, 1991.

PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN BOTH WORKING AND ATTENDING SCHOOL TO TOTAL CHILD – WORKERS

High Category (6 and above)

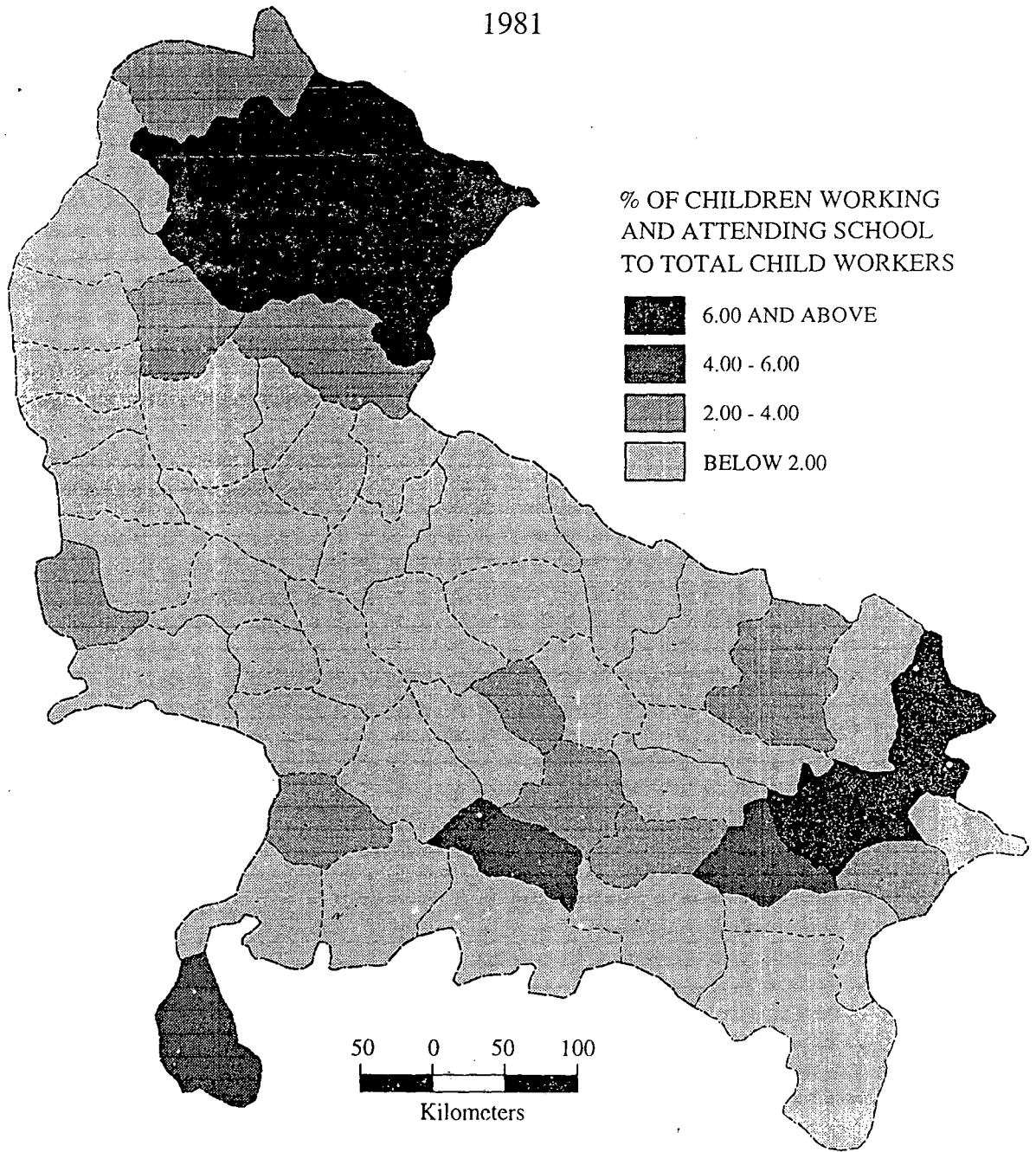
There were 7 districts in this category in 1981, which came down to only 3 in 1991. Garhwal position deteriorated and entered to medium group, and Pithoragarh an Azamgarh position deteriorated and entered to low category. While Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Deoria and Almora's position deteriorated and entered to very low category, showing decrease in percentage of children working and attending school in these districts.

Medium Category (4 to 6)

There were 3 districts in this category in 1981 and 4 districts in 1991. All the 3 districts Fatehpur, Lalitpur and Jaunpur position deteriorated and entered to very low category during the decade.

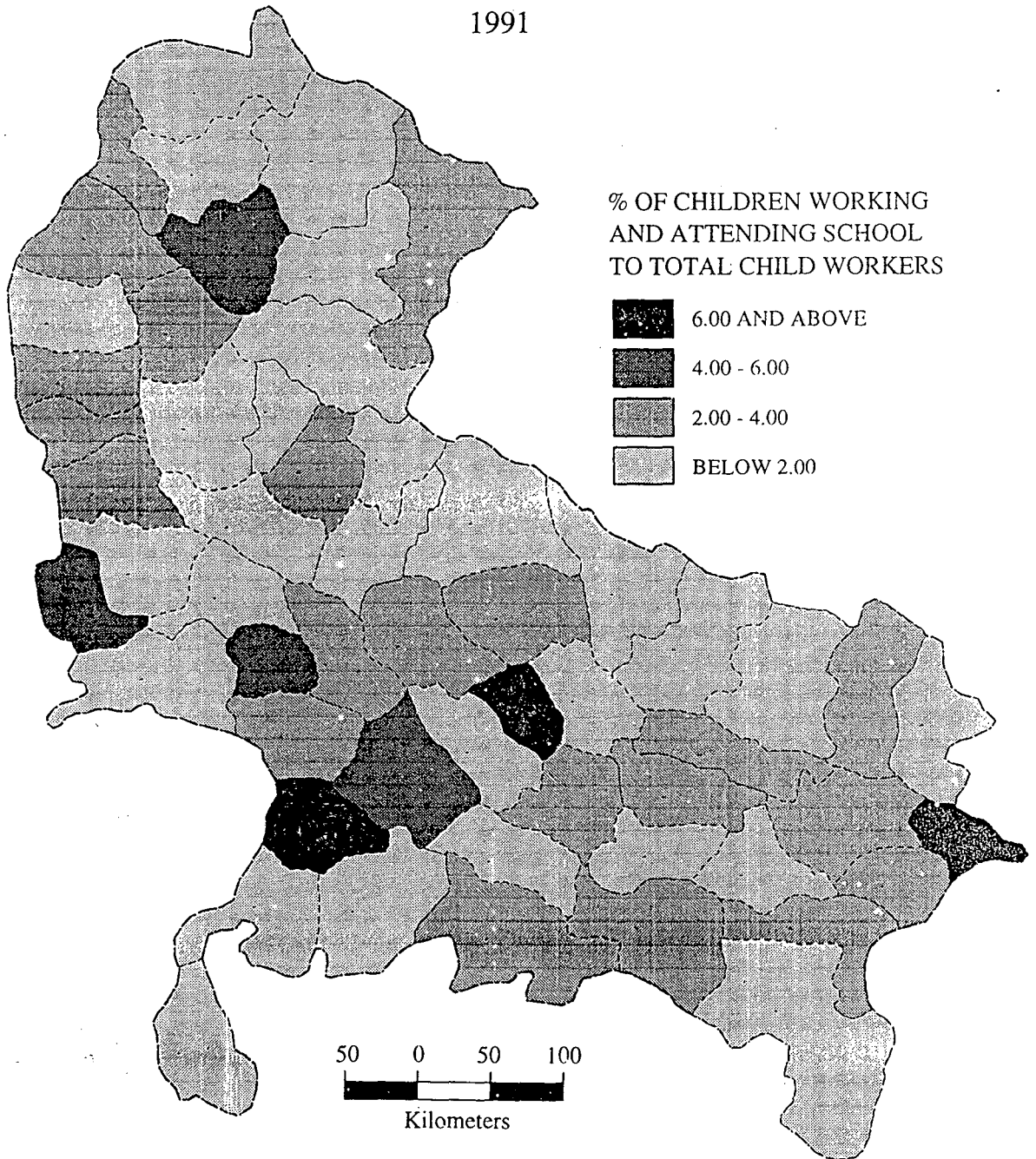
UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING CHILDREN

1981



MAP NO. 3.1

UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING CHILDREN
1991



MAP NO. 3.2

Low Category (2 to 4)

There were 10 districts in 1981 in this category, which increased to 21 in 1991. Bijnor, Raebareli and Ghazipur remained in the same group. Uttarkashi, Nainital, Pratapgarh and Basti's position deteriorated and entered to vary low category. Mathura showing increase in such children while Jalaun and Lucknow's position improved and moved up in high category showing that children are attending school as well as working to support their family.

Very Low Category (Less than 2)

There were 36 districts in this group in 1981 which came down to 28 districts in 1991. Muzaffarnagar, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Agra, Etah, Jhansi, Hamirpur, Kheri, Unnao, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki and Mirzapur remained in the same category. While Dehradun, Saharanpur, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Bareilly, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Allahabad, Banda, Sitapur, Hardoi, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Gorakhpur and Varanasi's position improved and moved up in medium category showing increase in such children in these districts. Mainpuri and Kanpur's position improved and moved up in medium category, Balia's position moved and moved up high category.

PERCENTAGE OF BOYS WORKING AND ATTENDING SCHOOL

In 1981 only 3.47 percent of total working boys were working and attending school, which went down to 2.33 percent in 1991. Highest working and attending school boys in 1981 was in Garhwal 34.6 percent and Tehrigarhwal 28.7 percent. Lowest percentage of such boys was in Budaun 0.63 percent. While in 1991 highest working and attending school boys percentage was in Lucknow 9.25 percent and Jalaun 6.8 percent. Lowest percentage of such boys was in Muzaffarnagar 0.4 percent.

Table 3.3

Percentage of Boys Working and Attending School in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in percentage)	Districts		
	1981		1991
6 and above (high)	Uttarkashi, Tehrigarhwal,	Chamoli, Garhwal,	Garhwal, Jalaun, Lucknow, Baliam

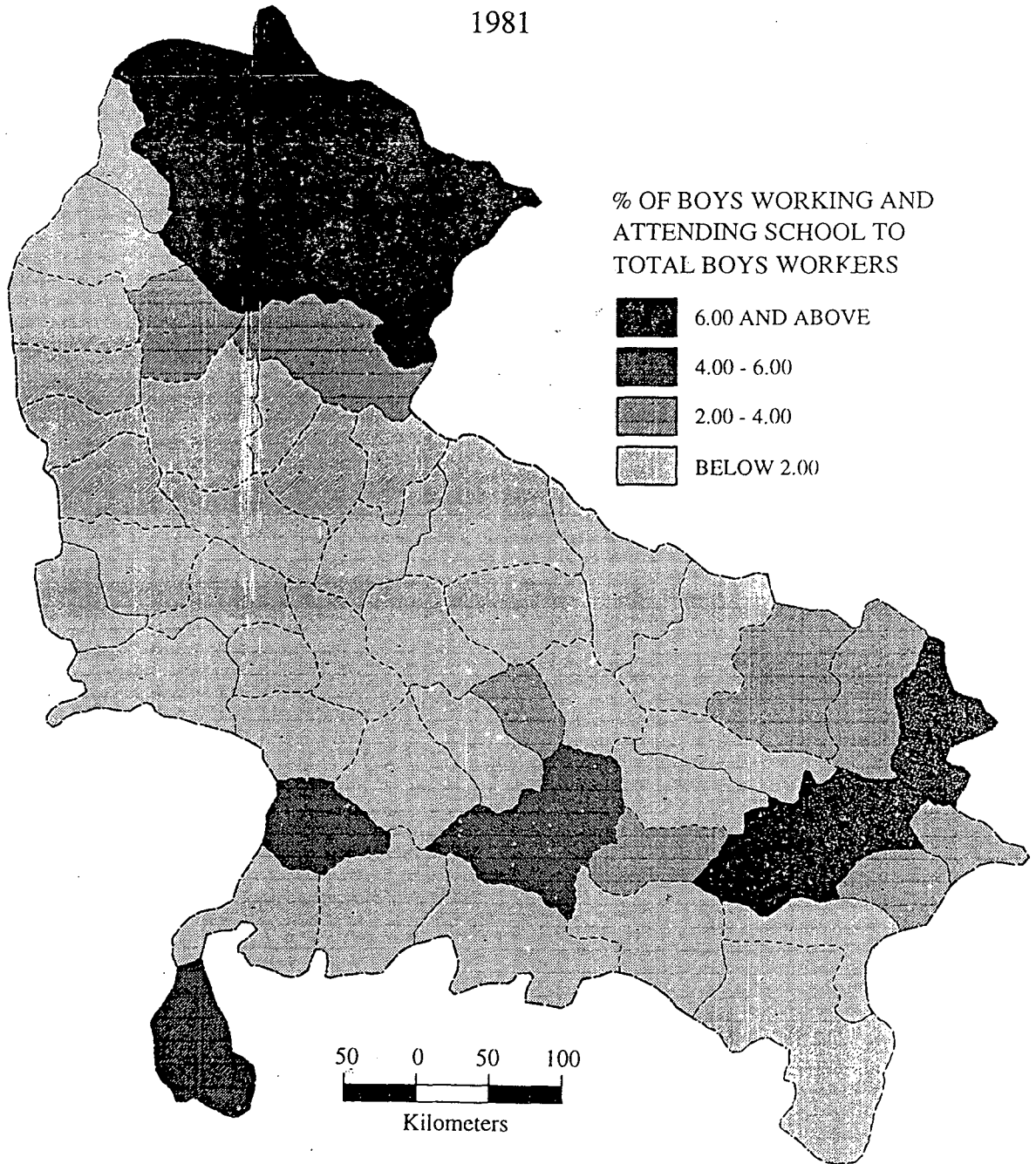
Category (Value in percentage)	Districts	
	1981	1991
	Pithoragarh, Almora, Deoria, Azamgarh, Jaunpur	
4 to 6 (Medium)	Fatehpur, Jalaun, Lalitpur, Raebareli	Tehrigarhwal, Pithorgarh, Mathura, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad
2 to 4 (low)	Nainital, Bijnor, Lucknow, Pratapgarh, Basti, Gorakhpur, Balia, Ghazipur	Chamoli, Dehradun, Almora, Saharanpur, Bijnor, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Etawah, Kanpur, Banda, Sitapur, Hardoi, Raebareli, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Azamgarh, Ghazipur, Varanasi
Less than 2 (Very Low)	Dehradun, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Mathura, Agra, Etah, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Rampur, Allahabad, Jhansi, Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Varanasi, Mirzapur	Uttarkashi, Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Agra, Etah, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Jhansi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Kheri, Unnao, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Pratapgarh, Basti, Jaunpur, Mirzapur.

Source (1) Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, series – 22, Part IVA
(4) working children, Census of India, 1991.

High Category (6 and above)

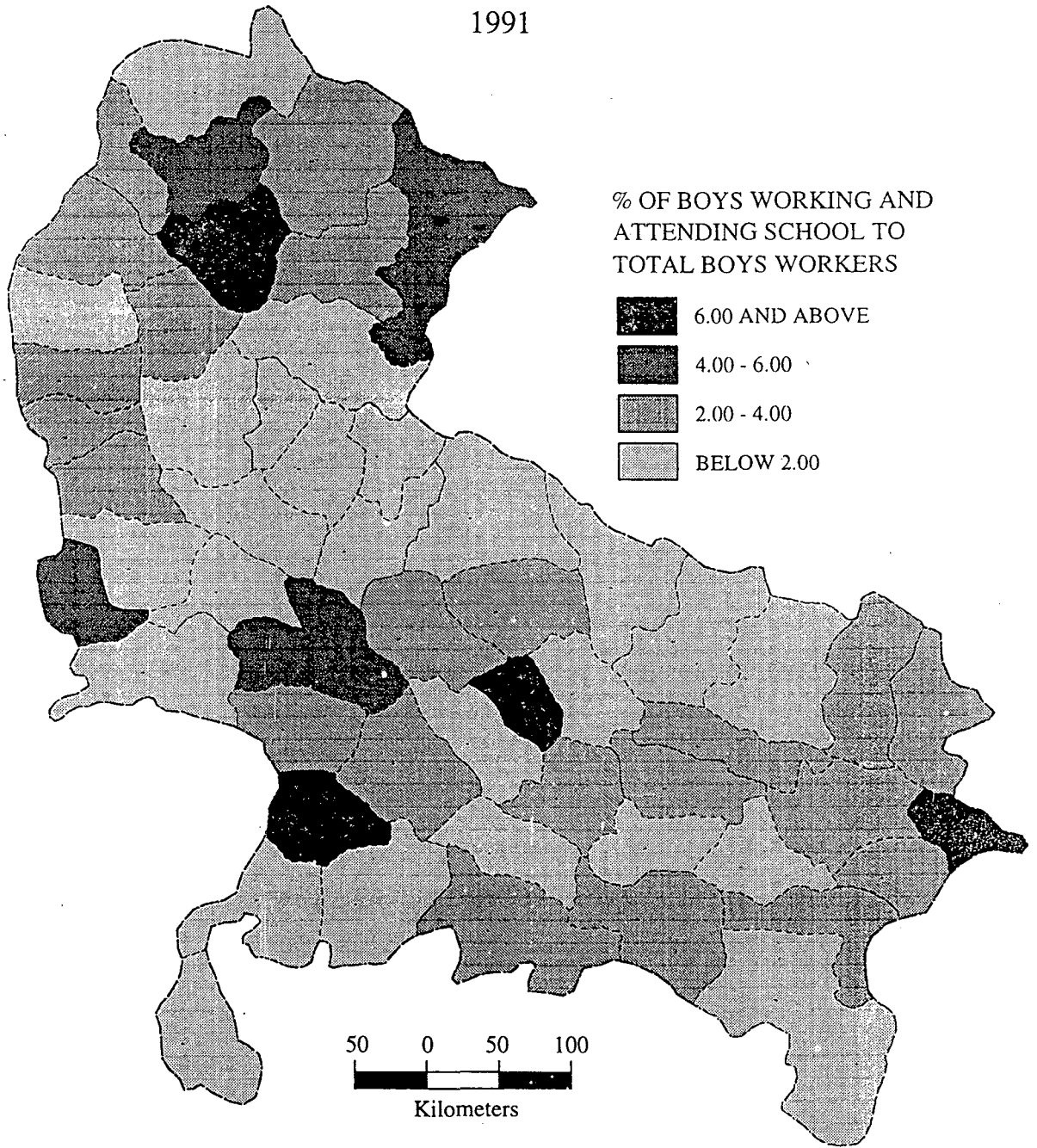
There were 9 districts in this category in 1981, which came down to 4 in 1991. Garhwal remain in the same group. Tehrigarhwal and Pithoragarh's position deteriorated and entered to medium group. Chamoli, Almora, Deoria and Azamgarh's position deteriorated and entered further to low category. While Uttarkashi and Jaunpur's

UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING BOYS
1981



MAP NO. 3.3

UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING BOYS
1991



MAP NO. 3.4

position deteriorated and entered to very low category showing significant decrease in such boys children.

Medium Category (4 to 6)

There were 4 districts in 1981 in this category, which increases to 5 in 1991. Raebareli's position deteriorated and entered to low category. Fatehpur and Lalitpur's position deteriorated and entered to very low category. While Jalaun's position improved and moved up in high category, with increase in such boy's working and attending school.

Low Category (2 to 4)

There were 8 districts in this category in 1981 but increases to 21 in 1991. Bijnor, Gorakhpur and Ghazipur remain in the same group. Nainital, Pratapgarh and Basti's position deteriorated and entered to very low category. While Nainital and Basti's position improved and moved up in high category.

Very low category (below 2)

There were 35 districts 1981 in this category which came down to 26 in 1981. Dehradun, Saharanpur, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Etawah, Kanpur, Banda, Sitapur, Hardoi, Faizabad, Sultanpur and Varanasi's position improved and moved up in low category showing increase in such boys. Mathura, Mainpuri and Farrukhabad's position improved and moved up in medium category, shows that boys have to work to support their family in these districts. Rest of the districts remained in the same category.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISCRIMINATION

In some cases, the more hazardous work is considered the province of ethnic minorities and disadvantaged lower classes, who are already the poorest segments of society. In India, for example, the continuation of caste distinctions is deeply rooted in the society and the high predominance of lower-caste children failing to enrol in or drop out of school is taken for granted by many (Weiner, 1991). Ethnic minorities, refugees, migrants, and internally displaced children are especially vulnerable, not only because of overt discrimination, but because many have no official documentation of their birth.

Legally non-existent, they are excluded from access to all basic social services, including education.

GENDER

Nowhere are the links between child labour and education more evident than in the situation of girls who comprise the vast majority of invisible child workers and two-thirds of the out of school population. Doubly excluded as displaced, minority children, many begin work as young as five, performing unremunerated and exploitative domestic labour. They are hidden as servants behind the sanctity of privacy laws in the homes of other families and burdened by the numerous and heavy chores in their own households - - which are often not even considered work. The low status of girls, which reflects the low status of women, keeps the true economic value of their work also hidden.

Whatever the factors that create a conflict between child labour and education, they are clearly reflected in the large gender gaps in education. Son preference, early marriage, and inheritance and social security laws in many countries, as well as a multitude of other important reasons related to schools themselves - (safety and distance of schools, lack of female teachers, gender insensitive curricula, etc.) stop girls dead in their educational tracks. The true value and high opportunity cost of their work, combined with poor opportunities for skilled employment (Marcus and Harper, 1997) and the prescribed role of girls as trainees for a life confined to domesticity and subservience make their education seem a poor investment for many parents. In Rajasthan, the Indian NGO SEWA, was told by 200 women that they did not want to send their daughters to school after the first standard because they needed to train them in work at home (Burra, 1989). Gender wise, the school going girls who were working also is lower as parents don't want to send them to school and engaged them in taking care of their sibling and household works. Investment on girl child education is considered unnecessary.⁸

⁸ Susmita S. "Investigating Girl Child", Yojna, May 1996. pp.42-45.

PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS WORKING AND ATTENDING SCHOOL

In 1981 girls working and attending school were 2.1 percent, which decreases to 1.3 percent in 1991. Highest percentage of working and attending school girls in 1981 were in Garhwal 8.5 percent and Azamgarh 4.06 percent and lowest in Rampur, Budaun, Kheri and Bahraich where no such girls recorded. While in 1991 highest percentage of such girls was in Lucknow 16.2 percent and lowest in Etah where no such girls recorded. Increase in girls attendance to school is due to government's and NGO's efforts.⁹

Table 3.4

Percentage of Girls Working and Attending School in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

Category (Value in percentage)	Name of Districts	
	1981	1991
6 and above (high)	Garhwal	Bareilly, Mathura, Kanpur, Jalaun, Lucknow, Sitapur
4 to 6 (Medium)	Mathura, Azamgarh	Lalitpur, Dehradun, Garhwal, Budaun, Mainpuri, Hardoi, Raebareilly, Balia
2 to 4 (low)	Chamoli, Tehri Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Nainital, Bijnor, Bulandshahr, Shahjahanpur, Mainpuri, Fatehpur, Raebareilly, Deoria, Jaunpur	Meerut, Bulandshahr, Rampur, Pilibhit, Agra, Jhansi, Unnao, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Basti, Azamgarh, Ghaziabad.
Less than 2 (Very Low)	Uttarkashi, Dehradun, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Moradabad, Rampur, Budaun, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Aligarh, Agra, Etah, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Kanpur, Allahabad, Jalaun, Jhansi, Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur,	Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Tehri Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Nainital, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bijnor, Ghaziabad, Moradabad, Shahjahanpur, Aligarh, Etah, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Deoria,

⁹ Shame of Child Labour, The Hindu, July 1999.

Category (Value in percentage)	Name of Districts			
	1981		1991	
	Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Varanasi, Mirzapur	Basti, Balua, Ghazipur, Mirzapur	Jaunpur, Mirzapur.	Varanasi,

Source (1) Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, series – 22, Part IVA working children, Census of India, 1991.

High Category (6 and above)

There was only 1 district in this category, which increases to 6 in 1991, showing increase of such girls both working and attending school; though overall decrease was recorded in such girls during the decade. Garhwal's position deteriorated and entered medium category.

Medium Category (4 to 6)

There were 3 districts in this category in 1981, which increases to 7 in 1991. Mathura's position improved and moved up in high category. Azamgarh's position deteriorated and entered to low category, while Lalitpur's position deteriorated and entered to very low category.

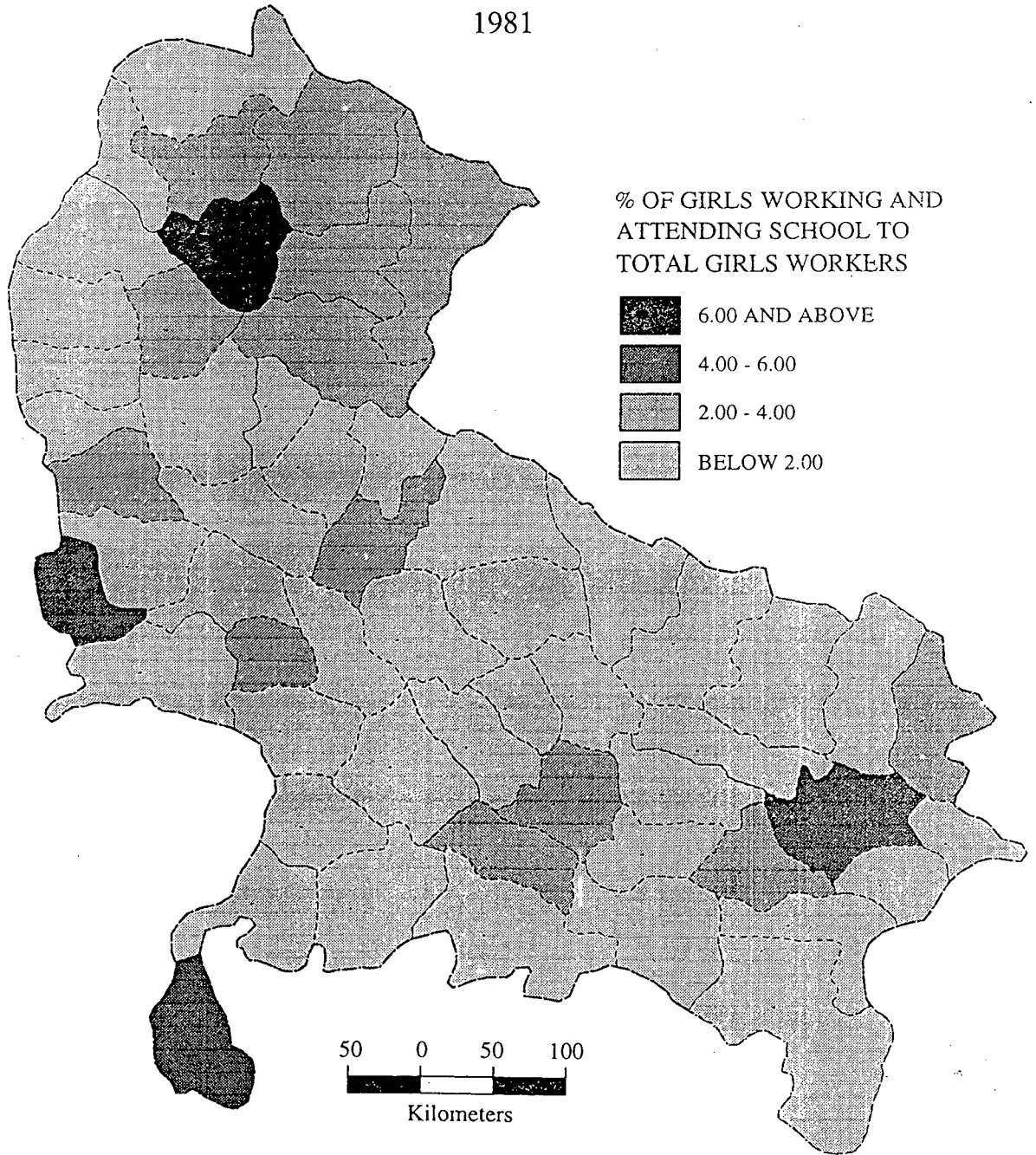
Low Category (2 to 4)

There were 13 districts in this category in 1981, and 12 districts in 1991. Bulandshahr remain at the same group. Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Nainital, Bijnor, Shahjahanpur, Fatehpur, Deoria and Jaunpur's position deteriorated and entered to very low category. While Mainpuri and Raebareli's position improved and moved up in medium category.

Very low category (less than 2)

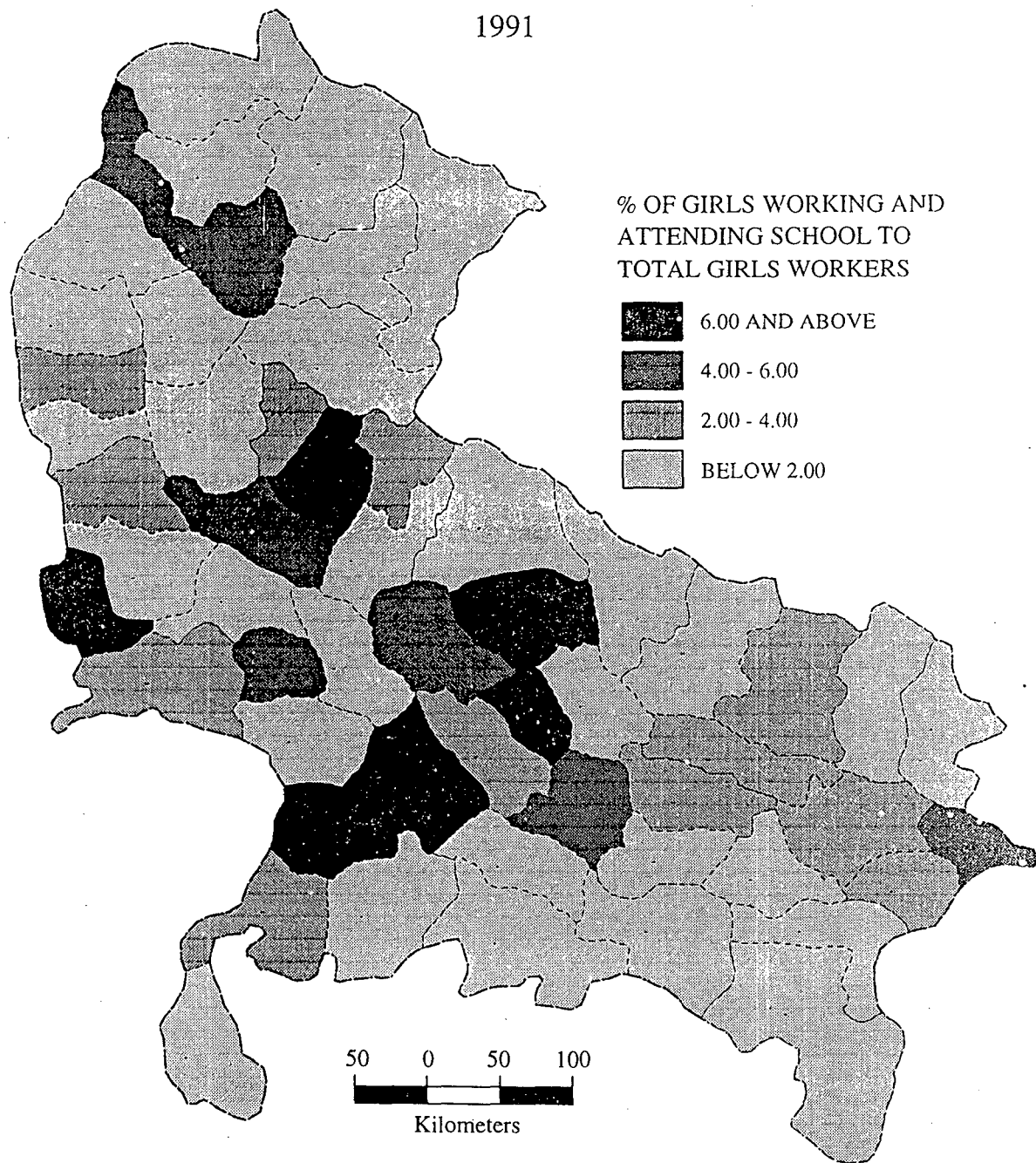
There were 39 districts in this category in 1981, which came down to 31 in 1991. Agra, Jhansi, Unnao, Faizabad, Basti and Ghazipur's position improved and moved up in low category. Dehradun, Budaun, Hardoi and Balua's improved and moved up in medium category while Bareli, Kanpur, Jalaun, Sitapur and Lucknow's position improved and moved up in high category, showing increase in working and attending school girls percentage. Rest of the districts remain in the same category.

UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING GIRLS
1981



MAP NO. 3.5

UTTAR PRADESH
SCHOOL ATTENDING WORKING GIRLS
1991



MAP NO. 3.6

PROPORTION OF CHILDREN WORKING AND NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL TO TOTAL CHILD WORKERS IN DISTRICTS OF UTTAR PRADESH DURING 1981 - 91

The proportion of children working and not attending school is higher. Poor economic condition of the family often force parents to send their children to work to support family income. Children are considered as economic assets by their parents and are engaged in productive labour and perform takes at home also.¹⁰

Fig.3.2

Proportion of Working & Attending School and Working & Not Attending School in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

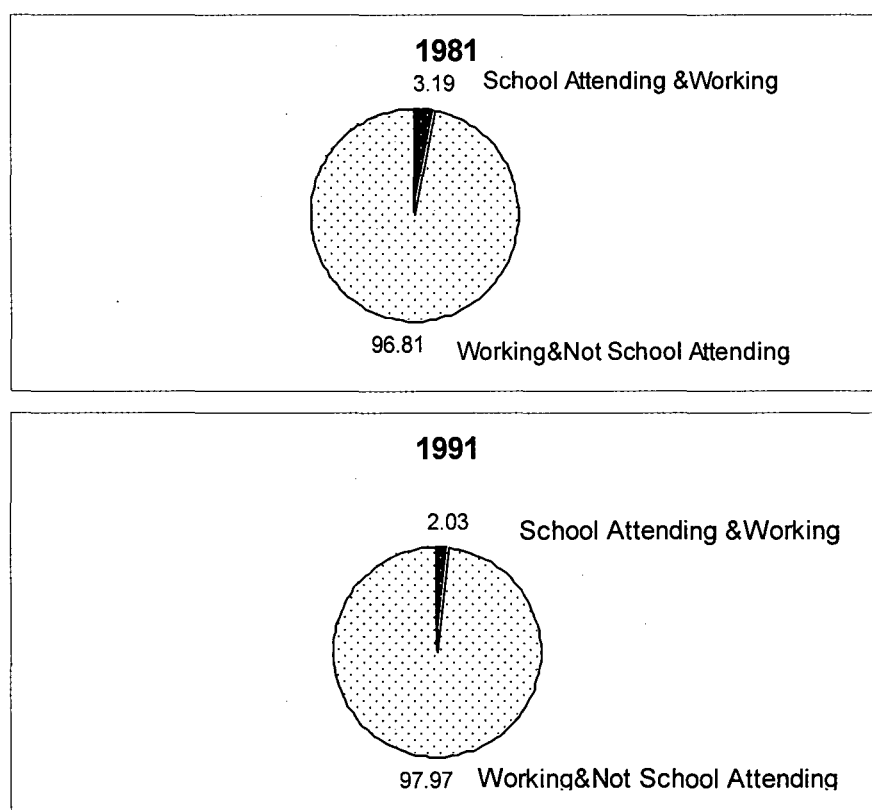


Figure 3.2 shows that proportion of children working but not attending school in comparison to working and attending school was very high 96.81 percent in 1981 which further increase to 97.97 in 1991. In 1981 43 districts were having higher percentage

¹⁰ Kumar Sudhir (1993), "Child Labour and Education", Singh, B.P and Mohanty, S. (ed) pp.59-60.

than that of the state reduced to 28 in 1991. Hamirpur and Budaun 99.38 percent, Hardoi 99.36 percent, Barabanki 99.31 percent, Mirzapur 99.38 percent, Hardoi 99.36 percent, Barabanki 99.31 percent, Mirzapur 99.28 percent, Rampur 99.14 percent, Sitapur, 99.08 percent, Banda 99.06 percent and Varanasi 99 percent were the districts showing highest percentage of children working but not attending school in 1981. In 1991 the districts with more than 99 percent of such children are Muzaffarnagar, Gonda, Hamirpur, Uttarkashi, Kheri, Etah, Nainital and Moradabad. Lowest proportions of such children were in Azamgarh 86.62 percent and Deoria 86.86 in 1981, and Jalaun 75.88 percent and Lucknow 89.54 percent in 1991.

Table 3.5

**Percentage of Children Working and Not Attending School to Total Child Workers
in Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991**

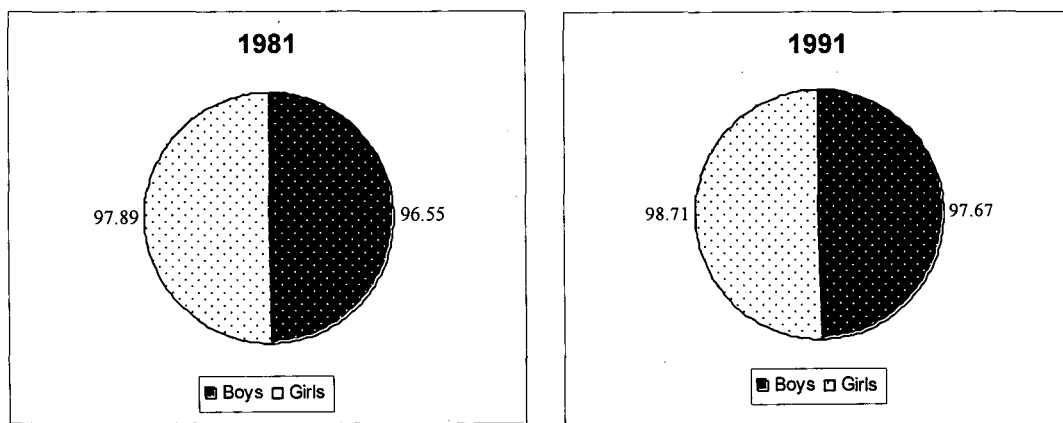
State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	96.81	96.55	97.89	97.97	97.67	98.71
Uttarkashi	96.06	7.93	99.32	99.30	98.13	99.69
Chamoli	95.83	81.06	96.64	98.81	97.23	99.24
Tehrigarhwal	91.57	71.31	97.84	99.04	95.48	98.80
Dehradun	98.64	98.46	94.68	96.09	96.39	95.78
Garhwal	85.29	65.42	91.49	95.17	93.55	95.95
Pithoragarh	92.90	79.17	96.70	97.49	94.24	98.45
Almora	93.89	82.98	98.54	98.07	96.26	98.66
Nainital	97.30	97.29	97.31	99.10	99.00	99.22
Saharanpur	98.76	98.75	99.00	97.36	97.24	98.09
Muzaffarnagar	98.87	98.86	98.99	99.62	99.59	99.79
Bijnor	97.72	97.82	96.42	97.57	97.52	98.04
Meerut	98.32	98.35	98.12	97.68	97.72	97.49
Ghaziabad	98.17	98.15	98.43	97.91	97.79	99.07
Bulandshahr	98.57	98.60	97.99	97.22	97.16	97.66
Moradabad	98.95	98.96	98.25	99.02	99.04	98.82
Rampur	99.22	99.20	100.00	98.61	98.66	98.00
Budaun	99.38	99.37	100.00	98.90	99.05	94.57
Bareilly	98.26	98.24	99.49	97.78	98.05	91.26
Pilibhit	98.17	98.17	98.71	98.77	98.90	96.09
Shahjahanpur	98.66	98.70	96.02	98.32	98.25	100.00
Aligarh	98.42	98.42	98.43	98.79	98.70	99.52

State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Mathura	97.99	98.22	95.11	94.34	95.54	85.34
Agra	98.90	98.87	99.51	98.24	98.35	97.01
Etah	99.21	99.25	98.08	99.22	99.18	100.00
Mainpuri	98.86	98.88	97.92	95.77	95.77	95.83
Farrukhabad	98.18	98.06	99.20	96.26	95.63	99.66
Etawah	98.86	98.86	98.91	97.59	97.57	98.09
Kanpur	98.59	98.56	98.86	95.13	96.23	85.92
Fatehpur	95.90	94.97	97.98	98.32	98.27	98.44
Allahabad	98.99	98.69	99.77	97.10	96.57	98.03
Jalaun	96.33	95.64	98.86	75.88	74.18	93.79
Jhansi	98.58	98.47	98.97	98.51	98.84	96.99
Lalitpur	94.85	94.33	95.95	98.67	98.69	98.61
Hamirpur	99.38	99.26	99.70	99.37	99.30	99.61
Banda	99.06	98.73	99.62	97.36	96.83	98.43
Kheri	99.14	99.12	100.00	99.23	99.23	99.17
Sitapur	99.08	99.07	99.50	97.19	97.54	92.10
Hardoi	99.36	99.15	99.66	97.10	97.21	95.72
Unnao	98.78	98.57	99.84	98.13	98.21	97.70
Lucknow	97.99	97.92	98.62	89.54	90.75	83.82
Raebareli	96.44	95.97	97.70	96.78	97.18	95.89
Bahraich	99.16	99.11	100.00	98.67	98.63	99.13
Gonda	98.38	98.44	99.64	99.51	99.51	99.51
Barabanki	99.31	99.23	99.86	98.87	98.71	99.57
Faizabad	98.41	98.16	99.23	96.38	96.29	96.61
Sultanpur	98.61	98.28	99.67	97.27	97.49	96.70
Pratapgarh	97.72	96.95	99.59	98.41	98.08	98.95
Basti	97.36	96.73	98.90	98.36	98.45	97.78
Gorakhpur	98.38	97.82	99.61	97.84	97.25	99.23
Deoria	86.86	78.89	96.35	98.27	97.90	99.05
Azamgarh	86.62	79.33	95.94	96.81	96.47	97.52
Jaunpur	94.40	93.27	97.58	98.37	98.11	98.98
Balia	98.12	97.53	99.21	93.74	93.60	94.04
Ghazipur	97.80	97.29	98.84	96.77	96.22	97.76
Varanasi	99.00	98.96	99.19	97.77	97.47	98.64
Mirzapur	99.28	99.14	99.68	98.64	98.68	98.55

Source (1) Social and Cultural table, Census of India 1981, series - 22, Part IVA working children, Census of India, 1991.

Fig.3.3

Percentage of Children Working and Not Attending School to Total Child Workers in Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991



If we see the gender wise the girls children working and not attending school is higher than that of the boys, 97.89 percent in 1981 as against 96.5 percent for boys. In 1991 the proportion of such girls is 98.7 percent as against 97.67 for boys.(Please see Fig.3.3) This indicates that the parents biased ness towards boys education has decreased and girls are also send to school due to the efforts of NGO's and Government.

The districts with more than 99 percent of boys working and not attending schools were Budaun, Hardoi, Hamirpur, Etah, Rampur, Mirzapur, Kheri, Bahraich and Sitapur in 1981, and in 1991 such districts were Muzaffarnagar, Gonda, Hamirpur, Kheri, Etah, Budaun, Moradabad and Nainital.

In 1981 girls children working but not attending school, four districts Rampur, Budaun, Kheri and Bahraich shows 100 percent such girls child and 20 districts shows more than 99 percent such girls child. But in 1991 two districts Etah and Shahjahanpur where 100 percent girls children working but not attending school and 13 districts with more than 99 percent such girls child.

PROPORTION OF CHILDREN NEITHER WORKING NOR ATTENDING SCHOOL TO CHILDREN IN DISTRICTS OF UTTAR PRADESH DURING 1981 - 1991

Education is considered as an investment for human development, essential for economic growth, but it planners this means an expenditure on funds on the education of the middle class.¹¹ India spend a smaller proportion of its GNP on elementary education compared to other developing countries. Reddy¹² says that poverty, illiteracy and high private cost of education are the main hindrances to education. But according to Pal¹³ and Pant, access to education is determined by the interaction of demand and supply of educational services and the learning process. Supply means adequate availability and quality of school facilities and demand for school education is generated by the decision that parent make based on the opportunity cost of sending children to school.

Table 3.6

Proportion of Children neither Working nor Attending School to Total Children in Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991

State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Uttar Pradesh	63.76	51.34	78.56	61.55	52.34	72.24
Uttarkashi	86.61	92.49	80.49	44.93	37.36	53.05
Chamoli	93.10	96.63	89.29	36.69	30.69	42.64
Tehrigarhwal	85.00	93.01	76.76	39.93	31.85	48.06
Dehradun	95.55	94.45	96.79	29.86	26.55	33.47
Garhwal	93.38	96.85	89.94	28.82	25.87	31.74
Pithoragarh	93.39	97.21	89.37	37.13	31.30	43.17
Almora	93.95	97.58	90.33	32.36	27.19	37.61
Nainital	95.26	93.28	97.41	42.12	35.64	49.07
Saharanpur	59.77	47.19	75.05	39.69	33.60	46.84
Muzaffarnagar	56.80	42.79	73.78	52.18	42.78	63.13
Bijnor	61.73	48.25	77.90	61.90	52.78	72.45
Meerut	53.28	40.36	68.82	52.67	45.34	60.85

¹¹ Weiner, Myron, (1994), "India's Case against Compulsory Education", seminar 43, January, p.85.

¹² Reddy, K.N., (1995), "Community Financing for Universalization of elementary education", Journal of Educational Planning and Administration, Vol. 9, April, p.182.

¹³ Pal, S.P. and Pant, D.K., (1995), "strategies to Improve School Enrollment Rate", Journal of Educational Planning and Administrative, Vol.-IX, No.1, January, p.160.

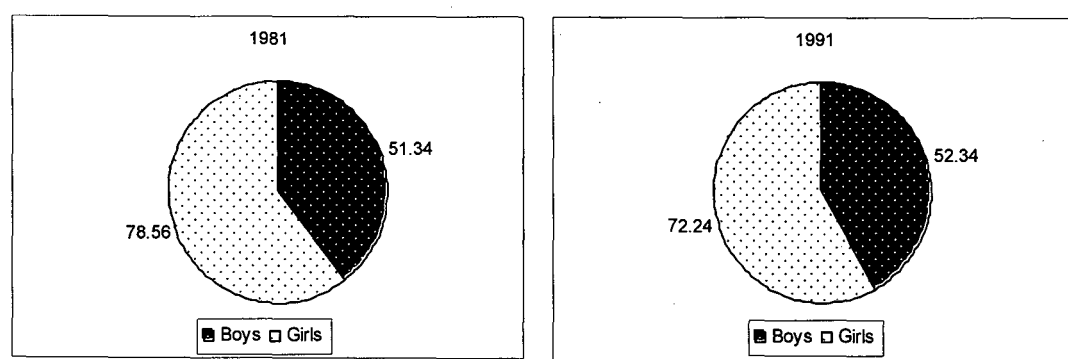
State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Ghaziabad	52.61	40.45	67.48	49.77	43.43	57.26
Bulandshahr	61.29	46.79	79.15	57.65	47.60	69.54
Moradabad	70.82	59.47	84.84	71.57	63.13	81.22
Rampur	74.94	63.58	88.67	72.88	63.75	83.59
Budaun	73.22	61.68	88.49	74.18	64.86	86.38
Bareilly	69.72	58.30	83.90	69.70	61.39	79.58
Pilibhit	71.19	57.59	87.42	70.00	60.37	81.39
Shahjahanpur	70.34	58.59	84.85	68.98	59.14	80.96
Aligarh	60.29	47.71	76.22	59.35	51.27	68.99
Mathura	59.92	43.91	80.79	56.92	44.94	71.80
Agra	58.60	46.51	73.85	59.09	50.49	69.37
Etah	64.67	52.70	80.41	61.97	52.80	73.78
Mainpuri	56.37	44.65	71.53	54.66	47.38	63.59
Farrukhabad	58.26	47.65	71.60	59.44	53.18	66.89
Etawah	51.44	41.39	64.25	54.00	47.99	61.05
Kanpur	47.87	39.66	57.12	46.54	42.21	51.42
Fatehpur	62.49	49.80	76.92	52.16	43.18	62.43
Allahabad	64.09	50.41	80.01	58.98	49.08	70.24
Jalaun	53.39	40.69	69.22	53.24	47.41	60.86
Jhansi	52.69	40.83	67.01	51.69	43.75	61.18
Lalitpur	63.17	51.71	77.52	66.36	57.71	76.60
Hamirpur	62.61	50.19	78.30	59.28	49.44	71.38
Banda	65.37	52.32	80.88	60.34	50.53	72.32
Kheri	73.24	60.97	88.33	70.30	59.68	82.91
Sitapur	71.63	59.62	86.54	71.46	62.71	81.90
Hardoi	68.79	55.91	85.23	65.98	56.17	78.29
Unnao	63.77	50.38	79.45	59.85	50.98	70.01
Lucknow	54.51	46.40	63.74	46.85	41.63	52.85
Raebareilly	64.12	51.66	78.39	57.45	47.95	67.95
Bahraich	73.51	59.93	90.76	69.77	59.43	82.69
Gonda	72.38	59.22	88.86	68.55	58.33	80.90
Barabanki	69.56	56.30	86.01	67.12	58.40	77.17
Faizabad	61.35	47.43	77.59	57.85	49.00	67.50
Sultanpur	65.08	50.49	82.37	57.89	47.21	69.97
Pratapgarh	63.08	46.55	82.16	57.43	46.64	69.57
Basti	66.01	51.93	82.48	66.71	56.38	78.34
Gorakhpur	64.61	50.34	80.87	63.40	53.10	74.78
Deoria	57.39	40.43	76.03	59.38	48.19	71.48
Azamgarh	59.86	46.21	75.00	56.83	47.26	67.21
Jaunpur	60.95	44.82	79.55	60.14	49.38	71.85
Balia	59.50	45.50	75.06	57.46	48.67	67.75
Ghazipur	61.04	45.99	77.72	60.14	50.74	70.39

State/ Districts	1981			1991		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Varanasi	59.25	45.22	75.54	57.03	47.52	67.73
Mirzapur	65.15	52.86	79.35	62.18	53.08	72.64

Source: (1) Social and cultural table, census of India 1981, Series-22 Part IV A
(2) Working Children, Census of India, 1991

Fig.3.4

Proportion of Children neither Working nor Attending School to Total Children in Districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981-1991



According to table 3.6 the percentage of children neither working nor attending school is quite high, 63.76 percent in 1981, which is decreased to 61.55 percent in 1991. (Please also see Fig.3.4) Such children are also known as 'Nowhere children'. The range of nowhere children is in between 47.87 percent to 95.55 percent in districts of Uttar Pradesh during 1981. The highest proportion of such children was in Dehradun 95.55 percent followed by Nainital 95.26 percent, Almora 93.95 percent, Pithoragarh 93.39 percent and Chamoli 93.10 percent. There were 29 districts where percentage of nowhere children is higher than that of the state. But the lowest percentage of no where children was in Kanpur 47.84 percent, then Etawah 51.4 percent, Ghaziabad 52.61 percent and Jhansi 52.69 percent.

In 1991 the highest percentage of no where children was in Budaun 74.18 percent followed by Rampur 72.88 percent, Moradabad 71.57 percent and Sitapur 71.46

percent. In almost all the districts the percentage of nowhere children decreases with few exception like Moradabad, Agra, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Lalitpur, Basti and Deoria, where the percentage of such children increased . The lowest percent of nowhere children was in Garhwal 28.82 percent then Dehradun 29.86 percent, Almora 32.36 percent, Chamoli 36.69 percent and Pithoragarh 37.13 percent. There were 28 districts having high percentage of such children. So there is a significant decrease in nowhere children in 1991 in the hill districts, which were at the top in 1981, shows that enrolment rate of children is increased and parents starts sending their children to school.

During the period the percentage of boys children has increased to 52.34 percent in 1991 from 51.34 percent in 1981 the highest percentage of nowhere boys was in Almora 97.59 percent followed by Nainital 97.58 percent, Garhwal 96.85 percent and Chamoli 96.63 percent. The lowest percentage of such boys was in Kanpur 39.66 percent, then Meerut 40.83 percent. In 1991 the percentage of nowhere boys decreases significantly in hill districts. Highest percentage of such children was in Budaun 64.86 percent followed by Rampur 63.75 percent, Moradabad 63.13 percent and Sitapur 62.71 percent. And the lowest percentage of such children was in Garhwal 25.87 percent, then Dehradun 26.55 percent, Almora 27.19 percent and Chamoli 30.69 percent.

Nowhere girls percentage decreases to 72.24 percent in 1991 as against 78.56 percent in 1981. In 1981 the highest percentage of nowhere girls was in Nainital 97.41 followed by Dehradun 96.79, Almora 90.33 percent, Garhwal 89.94 followed by Dehradun 96.79, Almora 90.33 percent, Garhwal 89.94 percent, Pithoragarh 89.37 percent and Chamoli 89.29 percent. While the lowest percentage of such girls was in Kanpur 57.12 percent, then Lucknow 63.74 percent, Etawah 64.25 percent, Jhansi 67 percent and Ghaziabad 76.5 percent.

In 1991 the highest percentage of nowhere girls was in Budaun 86.38 percent followed by Rampur 83.6 percent, Kheri 82.9 percent, Bahraich 82.7 percent, Sitapur 81.9 percent, Pilibhit 81.4 percent and Moradabad 81.2 percent. And the lowest

percentage of such girls was in Garhwal 31.74 percent, then Dehradun 33.47 percent, Almora 37.61 percent and Chamoli 42.64 percent.

Vocational education - an important part of education for all

Skill training has proved to be a necessary component in many IPEC projects to rehabilitate former child workers. It is impossible to discuss skills training in education for “excluded groups” without strongly underlining that technical education should not be regarded as “second class”. Vocational training should be given a higher status than is often the case today. The academic nature of learning in many school systems today creates an army of young people who are trained to seek employment in white collar jobs which are few and usually out of their reach. They are educated to unemployment, not to decent work. The incorporation of vocational education, especially in secondary schools, is not there only to “right the balance” of an educational system which is tailor-made to the well-to-do urban elite. It must be there because it is the only way that education can meet the requirements of the labour market. Education For All in the true sense can only be a reality if it also leads to decent employment for all. Everybody must be made to understand that skills are also best developed in the education system - not by joining the workforce at a young age. In his study on India, Weiner comments: “Some further maintain that the children of the lower classes should learn to work with their hands rather than their heads – skills, they say, that are more readily acquired by early entry into the labour force than by attending school” .

Many parents prefer their children to learn a trade and favour vocational training above more academic education. However, it has been found that it is not possible to give meaningful vocational training to children who do not have the basic literacy, numeracy and psycho-motoric skills. Moreover, many children work under the guise of vocational training but they do not learn much from simple repetitive work which may even stunt the child’s ability to grow.

It is not appropriate to think of practical skills training and basic education in “either-or” terms because they are actually closely related. Functional literacy and

numeracy skills are pre-requisites to any form of education or vocational training in later childhood. In turn, practical skills training which requires the concrete manipulation of materials and objects in the environment are pre-requisites to reading, writing and mathematics. “Learning by doing” is often applied in the most progressive schools in developing as well as industrialized countries.

Vocational skills training which aims at preparing children to enter skilled jobs at an appropriate age needs to take into account the following issues: A distinction must be made between formal trades training for older children, which is usually longer-term and systematically linked to apprenticeship programmes, and non-formal pre-vocational training of a shorter duration. Most of the formal vocational training programmes require close adult supervision, a proper workshop with tools and machinery. However, the available slots for students are limited because this type of training, if properly given, tends to be expensive.

Very often, some type of non-formal (pre-) vocational training is given to former working children in combination with or after functional literacy training. These courses usually have a short duration and provide specific skills such as silk-screen printing, handicraft production, poultry-raising or growing vegetables. This type of practical skills training can successfully teach children skills that can provide immediate economic alternatives and the necessary incentive to make education more attractive. But this should not be the ultimate goal of these programmes. They should be viewed as transitional programmes to facilitate the child’s entry into further education or vocational training.

In addition, (pre-) vocational training is sometimes combined with providing opportunities to child workers to “learn and earn”, in particular when their families rely on the children’s income for survival. In such cases, it is important to ensure that they are managed as learning centres for children rather than as disguised employment and recruitment centres.. When these learning centres function as “sheltered workshops” for children, it must be clear at all times that children’s rights and their best interests must prevail.

School as part of the solution

By and large, school is considered a key deterrent or preventive intervention to eliminate hazardous child work. The importance of education in advancing a country's economic and social well-being, advancing knowledge in pure and applied sciences, facilitating better use of human resources, improving options, creating higher standards of living, and reducing infant mortality is broadly recognized (Boyden, 1993). At its best, education transmits society's lasting values and can be a force for social transformation. Education has the potential to equip and empower children, not only with literacy, reasoning, and numeracy skills but also with critical social skills, a sense of responsibility, self-respect and respect for others, knowledge of their rights, and the capacity to actively resist exploitation. Access to quality primary education guarantees children the possibility to build a foundation for lifelong learning -- to the knowledge, skills, competencies, and values that facilitate their being able to cope with, adapt to, and participate in "fulfilling a productive life" (Carnoy, 1985 in Ennew, 1995)

Education systems have the potential to contribute to the elimination of harmful child work in several ways. They can teach children about children's rights and responsibilities with regard to work, as well as rights in general. Furthermore, teachers and others connected to the learning environment can monitor how both work and education affect children and take action to ensure that educational and any work experiences have a positive effect on children's growth and development.

School as part of the problem

As various economic, social and cultural forces "pull" children from school, factors in the education system itself play a role in "pushing" children away. Schools may be too far away or too crowded, discouraging families from sending their children, especially girls, where safety is a critical factor. Inflexible school calendars cause large numbers of children in rural agricultural areas to drop out because they are forced to be out of school to harvest or plant. Girls drop out at an even higher rate than boys because they are required to work at home. In many schools, resources go largely to infrastructure

and packaged educational curricula, which often ignore the cultural content of learning and its impact on children. (Boyden, 1993).

Learning environments vary enormously from those in which children enjoy learning and leave with useful knowledge and skills to schools where their developmental needs are rarely met. School curricula are often rigid, dull, and narrow; overly academic; and fail to address the needs of a large section of the student population, especially working children (Boyden, 1993).

One of the keys to both the prevention and cure of exploitative child labour is education. Education alone is not enough to end the abuse of children. But, as part of a broader programme aimed at reducing poverty and the other pressures that drive children into work, it is imperative.

Education, to be effective in combating child labour, must be-

- Compulsory
- Allow equal access for boys and girls
- Of high quality
- Relevant
- Free
- Realistically flexible to allow for farming seasons and its associated demands
- Involve minimal out-of-pocket costs
- Equip children with the skills for future employment

CONCLUSION

Education is linked to child labour in many different ways. The education system can contribute to the recruitment of children into the labour market by not providing enough school places for the children in school-going age, by not providing schools where the children live, by providing education where the private costs exclude some groups, or by providing education of insufficient quality or relevance.

On the other hand, education can play a key role in prevention. Provision of free, accessible, universal education of quality for all will always be a very important contribution to a sustainable solution to the child labour problem. In addition, if education is made compulsory, the education system can provide a low cost monitoring system to ensure that children continue to be in school and not at work.

Reducing the drop-out rate, creating school environments where children at risk feel welcome, and taking into consideration the factors that keep girls away from school, are all important contributions to ensuring that the education system also caters for the children most at risk.

Vocational, pre-vocational and skills training has also a crucial role to play in rehabilitation of former child workers.

The renewed emphasis on the elimination of child labour should be seen by all committed to children's rights as a real opportunity to guarantee quality Education For All children. This emphasis opens the door for expanded partnerships, allowing for the involvement of many new and non-conventional partners. It also provides for much needed action in identifying and reaching the millions of children who are not participating in education by refocusing efforts on the need for education systems to expand and diversify so that they include all children.

Partnerships must be created and sustained at all levels to change education systems and structures so that education is part of the solution to child labour and not part of the problem. For universal primary education to be compulsory, it must be accessible to all -- a responsibility of the nation through its government; the burden must not fall on families. This means implementing policies through increased resources, awareness raising campaigns, and programmes that demonstrate national commitment and send a clear message. At the same time, while the State must play a lead role in promoting and implementing quality and relevant education for all children, it cannot do so without the social mobilization of all sectors of civil society: employers and workers organizations, NGOs, community leaders, media, families, and children themselves. Properly supported

and motivated, the efforts of teachers can have a powerful ripple effect in creating a desirable and empowering environment for education among families and communities.

In the long run, combatting child labour is very much a question of attitudes. Awareness-raising activities, with the children themselves, parents, employers, and the community in general, are essential if programmes to remove children from hazardous work are to have lasting effect.

CHAPTER FOUR

**CHILD LABOUR – LEGISLATION AND
POLICIES**

INDRODUCTION

Today child labour is a global phenomenon and a harsh reality. Though the magnitude differs, the problem exists not only in under – developed and developing countries, but also in developed countries. The problem of Child Labour can be traced to the Industrial Revolution which emerged in the middle of 18th century in England and 19th century in India. It was around this time the exploitation of labour began in order to maximize the profits. Viewing child labour as a social problem and the need to protect them came to fore front when exploitation of children became very common during this era. Overtime consciousness regarding labour rights evolved and legal measures were introduced both in developed and developing countries to curb this problem mainly to protect the employment and wages of adult workers.

Throughout the centuries the attitude of law towards children has been a fluctuating one. Prior to the 19th century children were not given separate legal recognition though the jurisprudential emphasis was on the child as property. Parents were not expected to maintain their children as a legal duty. The 19th century witnessed a series of developments which transformed the legal status of the child. This transformation was mainly due to the realization that the society cannot disown the responsibility of child-care and under the doctrine of “state protection” child came to occupy the centre of the legal stage. The introduction of prevention of child labour laws and compulsory education were two important changes which effected the legal status of the child.

LEGAL MEASURES FOR PROTECTION OF CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA

The legal history on the protection of child and his working condition in India begin with the Indian Factories Act, 1881, providing minimum age of employment to seven years and restricting working hour to 9 hours. It also provided at least four holidays in a month and prohibited successive employment of child worker. The act was revised every 10 years; The Factories Act was revised in 1891¹ with the following changes-

¹ Child Labour Law- An Overview, V.V. Giri National Labour Institute. Noida, pp-24-27.

- The minimum age was increased to 9.
- Hours of work reduced to seven hours from nine hours per day.
- Prohibited of work at night during 8 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In 1901 this act was further revised and now known as the mines act-1901. Minimum age was increased to 12 from 9 years. Children's are prohibited to work in hazardous mines.

In 1911 factory Act was revised again with following changes-

- Prohibition of children to work between 7 p.m. 5.30 a.m.
- Prohibition of children to work in certain dangerous processes.
- It required a certificate of age and fitness.

In 1922 the Factories act was amended to implement the ILO convention, 1919, with following changes-

- Minimum age limit was increased to 15 years.
- Reduced working hours to six hours and also an interval of half an hour
- Was provided if child was employed for more than 5 & half hours.
- It also prohibited employment of children below the age of 18 and women in certain processes.
- Strengthened the provision for medical certificate.

In 1923, The Indian Mines Act prescribed a higher minimum age for employment in mines from 12 to 13 years.

In 1926, the Factories Act Strengthened to impose certain penalties on the parents and guardian for allowing their children to work in two separate factories on the same day.

In 1929² a royal commission on Labour was set up under the chairmanship of John Henry Whitley. The commission recommended the legal prohibition of children below the age of ten from work and to enter the name of all working children in wage books. The commission also prohibited the pledging of children. The main aim of the commission was to restrict the children from working.

² Sekar, Helen R. (1997), "child Labour Legislation in India: A Study in Retrospect and Prospect", V.V. Giri, National Labour Institute, Noida, pp-38-39.

In 1931, the Indian Ports Act amended and prohibited the children below the age of 12 in employment in ports.

In 1932, the Tea Districts Emigrants Labour Act was passed to check the migration of labourers. It also provided that no child should be employed or allowed to migrate unless the child was accompanied by his parent or an adult on whom the child is dependent.

In, 1933, the Children (pledging of labour) Act prohibited taking of advances by parents and guardians in return for bonds. Pledging the labour of their children, a system similar to that of the present day bonded labour system. The Act recommends that any bonded labour contract would be void if the labour was under 15 years of age.

In 1934, the Factories Act was again amended and elaborated certain provisions for regulating the employment of children of various age groups with regard to factories such as:

- Prohibition of employment for the children under 12 years.
- Children between 12 and 15 years. Employment restricted to 5 hours a day.
- Children between 15 and 17 years certain restrictions on employment were imposed.

In 1935, the Mines Act was amended for introduction of division of children according to age- groups. It raised the minimum age to 15 and required a certificate of physical fitness from a qualified medical practitioner for those in between 15 and 17 years of age. It also restricted working time to a maximum of 10 hours a day and 54 hours a week for work above the ground and 9 hours a day for work underground.

In 1938, the Employment of children Act was passed to implement the convention adopted by the 23rd session of the ILO, 1937 which provided a special article for India, which state that “children under age of 13 years shall not be employed or work in the transport of passengers, or goods or mail, by rails, or in the handling of goods at docks, quays on wharves but excluding transport by land. Children under the age of 15 years shall not be employed or work in occupations to which this article applies which are scheduled as dangerous on health ground by the competent authority.” So it:

- Prohibited the employment of children under 15 years in occupation relating to transport of goods, passengers mails, on railways.
- Minimum age for handling goods on docks was raised to 14 from 12 years.

➤ Requirement of certificate of age.

In 1944, the Labour Investigation Committee³ popularly known as the Rege Committee observed that child labour increased during war time. The report specially referred to the prevalence of child labour in the match industry in South India, cement industries in Rajasthan, carpet industries in Kashmir, glass industries of UP etc. The Committee recommended that prohibition of employment of children was not enough, but also essential to adopt positive measures to wean them away from industrial employment.

The first post-independence legislation on child labour in the country was the Minimum Wage Act passed in 1948. This also provided normal working for a child to be 4 and half hours. In 1948, the Factories Act raised the minimum age for employment in factories to 14 years.

The Constitution of India has several provisions for the protection of children against various forms of abuse. This prohibits employment of children up to 14 years of age and guarantees them protection against exploitation and makes provision for free and compulsory education to children. Article 15 of the Constitution tells about equality and prohibitions of discrimination on the basis of sex, religion and caste. It mentions: “nothing in this article shall prevent the state from making any special provision for women and children.”⁴ The article 23 of the constitution tells about personal liberty. It provides certain provision to prevent exploitation of weaker sections of the society by unscrupulous individual or even by the state. It prohibits Traffic in human being and forced labour.⁵ Article 24 is the most important article regarding child, provide that “no child below the age of 14 years, shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any hazardous employment.”⁶ Article 39 says, “Children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral

³ Sekar, Helen R. (1997), p-40.

⁴ Basu, D.D. (2000), Introduction to the Constitution of India, Wadhwa and Company Nagpur.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Ibid.

and material abandonment.”⁷ Article 45 says “the state shall endeavour to provide free and compulsory education for children until they complete the age of 14 years.”

After the constitution came into force many amendments had been made in various Acts. As well as various legislations related to child labour were passed. In 1948 the factory Act replaced all the previous enactments on factories and the minimum age for employment in factories raised to 14 years. In 1949, Employment of Children (Amendment) Act raised the minimum age to 14 years for employment. In 1951, the Act regarding employment of children had been amended and prohibited the employment of children between 15 and 17 years at night in railways and ports and also provided for requirement of register of children below 17 years of age.

In 1952, the Mines Act prohibited the employment of children less than 15 years in mines. The Act defines two conditions for underground work:

- A person should have completed 16 years of age, and
- Person should submit a certificate of physical fitness from a surgeon.

In 1954, the Factories Act was again amended including a prohibition of employment of person below the age of 17 years at night. The ‘night’ was defined as a period of 12 consecutive hours and which included hours between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m.

In 1958, the Merchant Shipping Act prohibited the employment of children below the age of 15 years in any ship except in schoolship.

In 1961, the Motor Transport Workers Act prohibited the employment of children below the 15 years in motor transport undertakings. The Apprentice Act was also passed in 1961 which prohibited the apprenticeship of training of children less than 14 years of age.

In 1966 the Bidi Cigar Workers Act was passed which prohibited the employment of children below 14 years of age in any industrial premises manufacturing bidi and cigars. It also prohibited the employment of children between 14 and years of age to work at night between 7 p.m. to 6 a.m.

In 1978, the Employment of Children Act was amended prohibited the employment of children below 15 years of age in occupation in railway premises, like

⁷ Ibid

under picking or cleaning of ash pit or building operation, in catering establishments and any other work which was carried on or in close proximity to or between the railway lines.

In 1979, a committee on child labour was set up under the chairmanship of *Gurupadaswamy*. By analyzing various factors, organizations, institutions, persons related to child labour, the committee recommended that the existing law regarding the prohibition and regulation of the employment of children be consolidated into a single comprehensive one, adopting uniform definitions of the child and adolescents while prescribing the hours of work, conditions of work etc.

A major breakthrough regarding child labour was made in 1986. A concrete law had been enacted in 1986 which was commonly known as the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986. The main provisions of the Act were:

- Prohibited the employment of children below 14 years in specific occupations and processes.
- Provided a procedure to divide to divide to the schedule of banned occupations or processes.
- To regulate the conditions of work of children in employment where they are not prohibited from working.
- It laid down enhanced penalties for employment of children in violation of the provisions of this act and other acts which forbid the employment of children.
- It tried to obtain a uniform definition of 'child' in the related laws.

In 1992, Child Labour Deterrence Act was passed prohibiting the impact of any product made by children below the 15 years of age.

The National Policy on Child Labour

The National Policy for Children Resolution adopted in August 1974 provides for free and compulsory education for all children, up to the age of 14, provisions of health and nutritional programmes and services, providing alternative forms of education for children unable to take full advantage of formal school education and to protect children

against neglect, cruelty and exploitation and engagement in hazardous occupation with heavy work. The National Child Labour Policy is set out under the following three heads:

1. The legislative action plan.
2. The focusing of general development programmes for benefiting child labour wherever possible.
3. Project – based plan of action in area of high concentration of child labour engaged in wage / quasi – wage employment.

1. Legislative action plan

Under the Legislative Action Plan, emphasis is on strict and effective enforcement of the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, the Factories Act 1948, the Mines Act 1952, the Plantation Labour Act, 1951, and other Acts containing provisions relating to the employment of children.

A child Labour Technical Advisory Committee has been set up to advise the Central government on addition of occupations and processes to the schedule contained in Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986.

2. Focusing of General Development Programmes for Benefiting Child Labour:

Various national development programme exists with very wide coverage in areas of education, health, nutrition, integrated child development and the anti poverty group of programmes.

Education: The National Policy on Education, 1986 set the target for all children who attain the age of 11 years by 1990 having had five years of schooling or its equivalent, through a non – formal system of education.

Health: The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Directed the State Governments to extent the coverage of the school health service programme for an intensive medical inspection of children in the areas where child labour is prevalent.

Nutrition: Department of Women and child Development have an ongoing programme for women and children i.e. integrated child development services approved on the basis of the proposals by State Governments, NGOs and voluntary agencies for welfare measures for child labour also.

Anti- Poverty programmes coverage: IRDP / NREP / RLEGP, etc. where funds are means for poverty alleviation programmes included in the coverage of the entire gamut of anti – poverty programme, the families affected by child labour.

3. Project based plan of action:

The child workers working in hazardous sectors in some specific sectors deserve prior attention because the employment processes in which they work were prohibited under the Factories Act of Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986. Hence action oriented projects have been drawn up for implementation on pilot basis It was envisaged that the project would have greater impact due to concerted efforts on many fronts.

National Child Labour Projects (NCLPS)

In pursuance of this policy, the Ministry of Labour has been implementing, since 1988 a scheme of National Child Labour Projects (NCLPs) for the rehabilitation of child labour. The major activity undertaken under the NCLP is the establishment of special schools, which provide a package of welfare measures, including non-formal education, skill/craft training, supplementary nutrition, stipend, health care etc. to children withdrawn from employment. Seven child labour projects were set up in the year 1988 after the announcement of the National Child labour Policy, 1987. As of date, there are 100 National Child Labour Projects in 13 child labour endemic States⁸ for rehabilitation of approximately 2.11 lakh working children withdrawn from hazardous occupations.

National Child Labour projects are currently undergoing in 11 districts of Uttar Pradesh. These districts are, Aligarh, Firozabad, Moradabad, Varanasi, Mirzapur, Bhadohi, Bulandshahar (Khurja), Allahabad, Kanpur (Nagar), Saharanpur and Azamgarh. In these 11 districts the sanction for 26500 children in 514 schools was given but actual

⁸These states are Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chattisgarh, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Punjab.

coverage was for 365 schools covering 21574 children. A total of Rs.76699134 was released for the state in during 2001-02 for the projects.⁹

One of the primary objectives of the Special Schools is to mainstream as many children as possible into the formal school system. According to Labour Ministry, about 1.4 Lakh children from NCLP Schools have been mainstreamed into the formal system of education in 13 Child Labour Endemic States so far.

INITIATIVE BY INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

In recent decades there has been growing international concern about child labour problem. The work done by various international organizations, public opinion and initiatives are indicative of such concern. The following section attempts to look in to such initiative and try to document and analyze them briefly.

Child Rights and Development of International Standard

The General Declaration of the Rights of Child 1924 was the first convention of League of Nations to discuss the rights of child. The Universal Declaration of Human rights, 1948, adopted by United Nations, incorporated the basic rights of children for growth and education. An independent “Declaration on Rights of Child” by United Nations in 1959, emphasized on special protection and care of child. ILO in 1919 in its first session adopted a convention on minimum age of children for admission into industrial employment. The convention No. 138 of 1973 emphasized to undertake national policy to abolish child labour and recommended special attention for safe working condition, fair remuneration, limited working hour; prohibited night work and holiday etc. On November 20, 1989, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a Convention on Rights of the Child, which has been ratified by 197 members, including India.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child

Convention on the Rights of the Child is a comprehensive set of international standards and measures intended to protect and promote the well-being of children in

⁹ <http://labour.nic.in/cwl/welcome.html>

society. The Convention recognizes the exceptional vulnerability of children, and proclaims that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance.

It is guided by the principle of a “First call for children”-a principle that the essential needs of children should be given highest priority in the allocation of resources at all times. It obligates the state to respect and ensure that children get a fair and equitable deal in society. It emphasizes the importance of the family and the need to create an environment that is conducive to the healthy growth and development of children. It advocates concerted public action by all individuals and agencies-government as well as non-governmental, local, national regional and international-to promote the rights of the child.

The Convention is a means of empowering children and creating an environment in which all children are able to live securely and realize their full potential in life. The Convention draws attention to four sets of civil, political, social, economic and cultural rights of every child. These are:

The Right to Survival

It includes the right to life, the highest attainable standard of health, nutrition, and adequate standards of living. It also includes the right to a name and a nationality.

The Right to Protection

It includes freedom from all forms of exploitation, abuse, inhuman or degrading treatment, and neglect including the right to special protection in situations of emergency and armed conflicts.

The Right to Development

It includes the right to education, support for early childhood development and care, social security, and the right to leisure, recreation and cultural activities.

The Right to Participation

It includes respect for the views of the child, freedom of expression, access to appropriate information and freedom of thought, conscience and religion.

The Right to survival

The Convention places primary emphasis on the right of every child to avoid escapable to lead a healthy life. Following are the important Article include under right to survival:

Article 6

States Parties recognize that every child has the inherent right to life. States Parties shall ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child.

Article 24

States Parties recognize the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and to facilities for the treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health. State Parties shall strive to ensure that no child is deprived of his or her right of access to such health care services.

States Parties shall pursue full implementation of this right and, in particular, shall take appropriate measures:

- To diminish infant and child mortality;
- To ensure the provision of necessary medical assistance and health care;
- To combat disease and malnutrition, including within the framework of primary health care, through, inter alia, the application of readily available technology and through the provision of adequate nutritious
- To develop preventive foods and clean drinking water, taking into consideration the dangers and risks of environmental pollution;
- To ensure appropriate ore-natal and post-natal health care for mothers;
- To ensure that all segments of society, in particular parents and children, are informed, have access to education and are supported in the use of basic knowledge of child health and nutrition, the advantages of breastfeeding, hygiene and environmental sanitation and the prevention of accidents; health care, guidance for parents and family planning education and services.

States parties shall take all effective and appropriate measures with a view to abolishing traditional practices prejudicial to the health of children.

States parties undertake to promote and encourage international cooperation with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of the right recognized in the present

Article. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

The Right to Protection

The following are the important Articles include under the right to protection:

Article 2

States Parties shall respect and ensure the rights set forth in the present Convention to each child within their jurisdiction without discrimination of any kind irrespective of the child's or his or her parent's or legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status.

States parties shall take all appropriate measure to ensure that the child is protected against all forms of discrimination or punishment on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child's parents, legal guardians of family members.

Article 19

States parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, negligent treatment, maltreatment or guardians or any other person who has the case of the child.

Such protective measures should as appropriate, include effective procedures for the establishment of social programme to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child, as well as for other forms of prevention and for identification, reporting, referral investigation, treatment and follow-up instances of child maltreatment described heretofore, and as appropriate for judicial involvement

Article 30

In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practice his or her own religion or to use his or her own language.



Article 32

States parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

States parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the implementation of the present Article. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provision of other international instruments, states parties shall in particular:

- Provide for a minimum age or minimum ages for admission to employment;
- Provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment;
- Provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present Article.

Article 33

States parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislative, administrative, social and educational measure, to protect children from the illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substance as defined in the relevant international treaties and to prevent the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of such substances.

Article 34

States parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. For these purposes, states parties shall in particular take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent:

- The inducement of coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity;
- The exploitative use of children in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices;
- The exploitative use of children in pornographic performance and materials

Article 35

States parties shall take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form.

Article 36

States parties shall protect the child against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspect of the child's welfare.

Article 37

States parties shall ensure that:

- No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without possibility of release shall be imposed for offences committed by persons below eighteen years of age;
- No child shall be deprived of his or her liberty unlawfully or arbitrarily. The arrest, detention or imprisonment of a child shall be in conformity with the law and shall be used only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time;
- Every child deprived of liberty shall be treated with humanity and respect for the inherent dignity of the human person, and in a manner which takes into account the needs of persons of his or her age. In particular, every child deprived of liberty shall be separated from adults unless it is considered in the child's best interest not to do so and shall have the right to maintain contact with his or her family through correspondence and visits, save in exceptional circumstances;
- Every child deprived of his or her liberty shall have the right to prompt access to legal and other appropriate assistance, as well as the right to challenge the legality of the deprivation of his or her liberty before a court or other competent, independent and impartial authority, and to a prompt decision on any such action.

Article 38

States parties undertake to respect and to ensure respect for rules of international humanitarian law applicable to them in armed conflict which are relevant to the child.

States parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities.

States parties shall refrain from recruiting any person who has not attained the age of fifteen years into their armed forces. In recruiting among those people who have attained

the age of fifteen years but who have not attained the age of eighteen years, states parties shall endeavor to give priority to those who are oldest.

In accordance with their obligations under international humanitarian law to protect the civilian population in armed conflicts, states parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure protection and care of children armed conflict.

Article 39

States parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social re-integration of a child victim of: any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; or armed conflicts. Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

Article 40

States parties recognize the right of every child alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law to be treated in a manner consistent with the promotion of the child's sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child's respect for the human rights and fundamental freedoms of others and which takes into account the child's age and the desirability of promoting the child's re-integration and the child's assuming a constructive role in society.

To end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of international instruments, states parties shall, in particular, ensure that:

- No child shall be alleged as, be accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law by reason of acts or omissions that were not prohibited by national or international law at the time they were committed;
- Every child alleged as or accused of having infringed the penal law has at least the following guarantees:
- To be presumed innocent until proven guilty according to law;
- To be informed promptly and directly of the charges against him or her, and, if appropriate, through his or her parents or legal guardians, and to have legal or other appropriate assistance in the preparation and presentation of his or her defense;

- To have the matter determined without delay by a competent, independent and impartial authority or judicial body in a fair hearing according to law, in the presence of legal or other appropriate assistance and, unless it is considered not be in the best interest of the child, in particular, taking into account his or her age of situation, his or her parents or legal guardians;
- Not to be compelled to give testimony or to confess guilt; to examine or have examined adverse witness and to obtain the participation and examination of witnesses on his or her behalf under conditions of equality;
- If considered to have infringed the penal law, to have this decision and any measures imposed in consequence thereof reviewed by a higher competent, independent and impartial or judicial body according to law;
- To have the free assistance of an interpreter if the child cannot understand or speak the language used;
- To have his or her privacy fully respected at all stages of the proceedings.

States parties shall seek to promote the establishment of laws, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law, in particular:

- The establishment of a minimum age below which children shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law;
- Whenever appropriate and desirable, measures for dealing with such children without resorting to judicial proceedings, providing that human rights and legal safeguards are fully respected.
- A variety of dispositions, such as care, guidance and supervision orders; counseling; probation; foster care; education and vocational training programme and other alternatives to institutional care shall be available to ensure that children are dealt with in a manner appropriate to their well-being and proportionate both to their circumstances and the offence.

Right to Development

The following are the important Articles included under the right to development:

Article 28

States parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

- Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
- Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
- Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate;
- Make a educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
- Take measures to encourage regular attendance at school and the reduction of drop-out rates.

States parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present convention.

States parties shall promote and encourage international co-operation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 29

States parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

- The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their to their fullest potential;
- The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and for the principles enshrined in the charter of the United Nations;
- The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values for the national values of the

country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;

- The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
- The development of respect for the natural environment.

No part of the present Article or Article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principles set forth in paragraph 1 of the present Article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the state.

Article 31

States parties recognize the right of the child to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.

States parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity.

The Right to Participation

The following are the important articles included under the right to participation:

States parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.

For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceeding affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

Article 13

The child shall have right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice.

The exercise of this right may be subject to certain restrictions, but these shall only be such as are provided by law and are necessary:

For respect of the rights of reputations of others; or

For the protection of national security or of public order (order public), or of public health or morals.

Article 14

States parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience and religion.

States parties shall respect the rights and duties of the parents and, when applicable. Legal guardians, to provide direction to the child in the exercise of his or her right in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child.

Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs be subject only to such limitation as are prescribed by law and are necessary to protect public safety, order health or morals, or the fundamental rights and freedoms of others.

Article 15

States parties recognize the rights of the child to freedom of association and to freedom of peaceful assembly.

No restrictions may be placed on the exercise of these rights other than those imposed in conformity with the law and which are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, public order (order public), the protection of public health or morals or the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 16

No child shall be subjected to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his or her privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor, to unlawful attacks on his or her honour and reputation.

The child has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 17

States parties recognize the important function performed by the mass media and shall ensure that the child has access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual and moral well-being and physical and mental health. To this end, states parties shall:

- Encourage the mass media to disseminate information and material of social and cultural benefit to the child and in accordance with the spirit of article 29;
- Encourage international cooperation in the production, exchange and dissemination of such information and material from a diversity of cultural, national and international sources;
- Encourage the production and dissemination of children's books;
- Encourage the mass media to have particular regard to the linguistic needs of the child who belongs to a minority group or who is indigenous;
- Encourage the development of appropriate guidelines for the protection of the child from information and material injurious to his or her well-being, bearing in mind the provisions of Articles 13 and 18.

Important new human rights instruments

In May 2000, two optional protocols to the CRC were adopted¹⁰. The Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography entered into force on 18 January 2002. It emphasizes the need "to strengthen international cooperation by multilateral, regional and bilateral arrangements for the prevention, detection, investigation, prosecution and punishment of those responsible for acts involving the sale of children, child prostitution, child pornography, and child sex tourism."

The Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict entered into force on 12 February 2002. It requires ratifying States to "take all feasible measures to ensure that members of their armed forces who have not attained the age of 18 years do not take a direct part in

¹⁰ The texts of the protocols can be accessed at www.unicef.org/crc/oppro.htm

hostilities” and establishes a ban on compulsory recruitment below 18 years. It calls upon ratifying States “to cooperate in the implementation of the present Protocol, including through technical cooperation and financial assistance” for rehabilitation and social reintegration of former child soldiers.

The Convention covers the whole range of human rights. Traditionally, these have been classified as civil and political on the one hand, and economic, social and cultural on the other. Although reference is made to this classification in article 4 of the treaty, the substantive articles themselves are not explicitly divided in this way. Indeed, the whole thrust of the Convention is to emphasise the inter-connected and mutually-reinforcing nature of all rights in ensuring what UNICEF terms the "survival and development" of children. In this respect, it can be more useful to describe the range of rights covered by the Convention as the three "Ps": provision, protection and participation. Thus, essentially, children have the right to be provided with certain things and services, ranging from a name and nationality to health care and education. They have the right to be protected from certain acts such as torture, exploitation, arbitrary detention and unwarranted removal from parental care. And children have the right to do things and to have their say, in other words to participate both in decisions affecting their lives and in society as a whole.

In bringing together all these rights in a single cohesive text, the Convention sets out to do three basic things:

- to reaffirm, with regard to children, rights already afforded to human beings in general through other treaties. Some of these rights, such as protection from torture, are non-controversial in terms of their applicability to children. Others, like freedom of expression, freedom of assembly, freedom of religion and the right to social security, gave rise to heated debate during the drafting process as to whether or not, and under what conditions, children could and should be the explicit beneficiaries. Consequently, reaffirmation was by no means a superfluous exercise, but a very necessary means of underlining the fact that children are human beings too.

- to upgrade certain basic human rights in order to take account of the special needs and vulnerability of children. An obvious example here is that of acceptable conditions of employment, where standards must be tighter for children and young people than for adults. Another is the conditions under which children may be deprived of their liberty.
- to establish standards in areas that are pertinent only, or more specifically, to children. Safeguarding the child's interests in adoption proceedings, access to primary education, prevention of and protection from intra-familial abuse and neglect, as well as the recovery of maintenance payments, are among the child-specific issues addressed by the Convention.

The Convention contains three major substantive innovations. Firstly, it introduces "participation" rights for children, which were notably absent from previous Declarations. Linked with this is the explicit recognition of the need to ensure that children themselves are informed about their rights. Secondly, the Convention takes up questions never previously dealt with in an international instrument: the right to rehabilitation of children who have suffered various forms of cruelty and exploitation, for example, and the obligation of governments to take measures to abolish traditional practices harmful to children's health. Thirdly, it includes principles and standards that have so far figured only in non-binding texts, notably those relating to adoption and juvenile justice.

The Convention also introduces two significant conceptual elements with important substantive ramifications:

- the "best interests of the child" (article 3) becomes the compulsory criterion "for all actions concerning children", necessarily in conjunction with all pertinent rights set out elsewhere in the Convention;
- the principle that parents (or others responsible for the child) should provide guidance to their child in exercising his or her rights, in accordance with the child's "evolving capacities" (article 5).

The Committee on the Rights of the Child has identified the following articles as "general principles" that are basic to implementation of all rights contained in the Convention:

- ❖ Article 2 on non-discrimination;
- ❖ Article 3 on the best interests of the child;
- ❖ Article 6 on the right to life, survival and development;
- ❖ Article 12 on respect for the views of the child,

Although the Convention is progressive overall, not every aspect comes up to expectations, of course, let alone to hopes. The fact that the prohibition on participation in hostilities covers only children under the age of 15 has been particularly widely criticised in both governmental and non-governmental circles. As a result, in 1993 the Committee on the Rights of the Child successfully called for the establishment of a Working Group to draw up an optional protocol to the Convention dealing inter alia with the upgrading of this standard. The Working Group began this exercise in October 1994.

Many NGOs have also contested the restricted rights on choice of religion afforded by the provisions of this Convention in comparison with those ostensibly granted to all human beings by the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. And several individual NGOs are dissatisfied with the way certain of their specific concerns are dealt with, or with the fact that certain issues are not explicitly dealt with at all, e.g. protection from medical experimentation and the right to pre-school education.

Nonetheless, whilst probably no organisation or government would say that it is completely happy with the text, it is indisputable that the Convention recognises substantially more and better rights for children than those that existed previously.

Strategies for Implementation of Convention on the Rights of the Child

In order to implement the convention on the rights of the child it is necessary to adopt the following strategies:

To Facilitate Implementation

- Review legislation and social development policies.
- Examine allocation of resources in national budgets.
- Support activities to inform and educate public and key partners.
- Work with mass media.
- Initiate studies on disadvantages on under-represented groups.
- Support allies.

To Educate Children About child Rights

- Informing children about their rights.
- Responding to needs of children.
- Involving children in issues about their rights.

Models for Monitoring Child Rights

- Government could monitor at the national and state level.
- Sub-national monitors.
- No-government monitors.

Monitoring Functions

- Respond to complaints about violation of rights.
- Influence legislation and policy.
- Undertake research studies.
- Review
- Submission of reports by states parties

Article 44 elucidates that states parties would undertake to submit to the committee, through the Secretary General of the United Nations, reports on the measures they have adopted: Within two years of the entry into force of the convention for the state party concerned; Thereafter every five years.

Monitoring and implementation

Within just five years of its adoption, the Convention had been ratified by almost 90 per cent of the world's governments. Such a level of adherence to a treaty in such a

short period is unprecedented in the history of international human rights law. This, together with a degree of public awareness about the Convention that is probably also unequalled in relation to other international treaties, has led to very high expectations as to its effects in practice.

Under the implementation mechanism provisions in the Convention itself, a Committee on the Rights of the Child composed of ten "independent" experts elected by States Parties (i.e. those that have ratified) monitors States' compliance with their obligations on the basis of five-yearly reports they provide as well as other information made available by reliable sources. The Committee's "monitoring" function, however, is balanced by its clear desire to set the implementation of the Convention in a non-confrontational framework of constructive dialogue and international solidarity. This approach responds to two realities: firstly, that monitoring by the Committee has a limited direct effect as such, because of the absence of sanctions that can be applied; secondly, that most countries would have little or no chance of complying with the Convention's provisions unless provided with appropriate technical and other assistance. As a result, ratification by a wide range of countries has been facilitated and maximum potential impact of the Convention has thereby been greatly assisted.

This "official" implementation procedure itself provides for some degree of involvement on the part of the non-governmental organisations (NGOs). To some extent, this is a reflection of the fact that, during the drafting of the Convention, recognised international NGOs were offered — and took full advantage of — the possibility of making an active contribution to the formulation of the text. In addition, and of their own accord, they undertook a concerted effort to promote awareness of the need for a Convention in this sphere. In order to carry out these tasks, most of them became involved in an NGO Group, coordinating their efforts, and thereby making fullest use of their combined experience. Once the Convention had been completed and had entered into force, this NGO Group reconvened with a view to ensuring that NGO input into implementation is equally constructive and effective. The NGO Group is now a privileged partner of the Committee.

Certainly, the Committee relies significantly on NGOs — especially national organisations and the "national coalitions" that they are forming in a growing number of countries — not only to provide additional information to that contained in State reports, but also to disseminate and make use of the conclusions and recommendations that the Committee prepares after reviewing those reports.

Even NGOs that have no explicitly "human rights" tradition and/or no major children's rights focus now cite the Convention as the basis or backcloth for their child-related policies. It has also been confirmed as the framework within which UNICEF programmes are to be conceived from now on. Civil society is therefore fully engaged in the battle to foster implementation, on an undoubtedly broader base than for other international treaties.

UN Committees for Monitoring Major Human rights Treaties

The child's rights form an internal part of the human rights which has its umbrella stretched in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948.

A number of existing human rights bodies are already making contributions in their own areas of competence to ensure realization of the rights of the child. Apart from the commission on Human Right, and its sub- commission on prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, there are several other Committees which are working for protection of human rights. These include:

- Human Rights Committee;
- Committee on Economic, social and Cultural Rights;
- Committee on Civil and Political Rights;
- Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination;
- Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women;
- Working Group on Contemporary Forms of Slavery (which deals with many aspects of the exploitation and mistreatment of children) and
- Committee on the Rights of the Child.

International Labour Organisation

Child labour has been an area of special concern for the International Labour Organisation since the inception of the ILO in 1919. One of the principal ways by which the ILO has expressed this concern has been through the adoption of International Conventions and Recommendations regulating the minimum age of admission of children into various kinds of employment. The first of a series of such conventions concerning the minimum age for admission to various industries was adopted at the very first International Labour Conference held in 1919. Subsequent International Labour Conferences have adopted other conventions and recommendations concerning the minimum age for admission to various other sectors of employment. In 1973, the International Labour Conference established a general minimum age convention that went beyond the earlier ones which were applicable to only limited economic sectors. This was the Convention Concerning Minimum Age for Admission of Employment and came into force on 19 June 1976. International Labour Organisation's Conventions mainly deal with:

- Minimum age for employment of children.
- Medical examination of child.
- Maximum number of hours of working.
- Prohibition of night work for children.

Regarding minimum age for employment conventions adopted by ILO¹¹ are as following:

- In 1919 the Act of Minimum age (Industry) prohibition of children Below 14 years of age in any public and private industrial undertaking other than enterprise in which family members are employees.
- In 1920, The Act of Minimum Age (Sea) convention (No.7) prohibits employment of children below the age of 14 years on vessels, except those on which family members are employee.
- In 1921, The Act of Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention (No.18) prohibits employment of children below 14 years in public or private agricultural undertaking, except outside the hours fixed for school attendance.

¹¹ Convention on the Rights of the Child- New York 1989.

- In 1921, the Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stockers) convention (No. 15) Prohibits the employment of the children below 18 years of age on vessels as Trimmers and Stockers.
- In 1932, The Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (No. 33) raised the minimum age of employment to 15 years from 14 years.
- In 1932, The Minimum Age employment (Non-Industrial) Convention (No. 33) prohibits the employment of children below 14 years of age who are required to attend primary school.
- In 1937, the Minimum Age (industry) Convention (No.57) raised the minimum age of employment to 15 years from 14 years in industrial activities.
- In 1937, The Minimum Age (Non-Industrial) Convention (No. 68) says that children below 13 years of age are not to be employed in non industrial occupations as shops, offices, hotels, restaurants, places of public entertainments etc.
- In 1965, The Act of Minimum Age (Underground work) Convention (No. 123) says that minimum age of children shall not be below years for working underground mines.
- In 1973, the Act of Minimum Age Convention (No.123) says that the minimum age.

Regarding the medical examination of children the Convention¹² says:

- In the 1921, the Act of Medical Examination of Children (Sea) Convention (No.16) says suggests the need for medical certificate of fitness by authorized doctor of children below 18 years of age for employment on vessel.
- In 1943, The Act of Medical Examination of Children (Sea) Convention (No.73) asks the requirement of medical certificate of children for the employment at sea.
- In 1946, The Act of Medical Examination of young persons (Industry) convention (No. 77) says that children below 18 years of age (16 years in India) shall not be admitted to employment in Industrial Activities without examination of physical fitness in occupation of high health risks the re-examination of fitness at the age of 21 years which is 19 years in India.

¹² Convention on the Rights of the Child (1991) New York.

- In 1946, the Act of Medical Examination of young person (Non-industrial occupation) convention (No. 78) says that children and young person below the age of 18 years should not be allowed to work in non-industrial activities unless they have been found it medically.
- In 1965, the Act of Medical Examination of persons (underground work) convention (No. 124) suggests annual examination of all young persons below the age of 21 years to work in underground mines.
- In 1919, The Act of Night work of young persons (Industry) convention (No. 6) says that persons below the age of 18 years are not to be employed during night in any public or private undertaking further this Act was revised in 1948 and defined as 12 consecutive hours of work.
- In 1946, the Act of Night work of young persons (Non-industrial) convention (No. 79) prohibits the employment of children below 12 years of age in non-industrial activities during night.

CONCLUSION

There is a lack of uniformity in the various legislations on child labour both on national as well as International level. The laws have no consensus on a single agreed minimum age of employment; age differs from country to country as well as industry to industry. In addition there are other in built loopholes in various provisions of the child labour legislations. For example Child Labour(Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986 exempts child labour in family enterprises from the ban. That is why looms for Carpet Weaving and Bidi manufacturing is largely in children's homes. Moreover the Act believes that child labour should be prohibited only in hazardous processes classification of industries is wrong Glass industry is not included in hazardous industry though there are evidences to prove that it is dangerous for children to work in it. Slate Pencil industry where workers succumb to silicosis and other respiratory ailments is too excluded from the purview of the Act. Even prosecution of the employers in the Act is possible only if the age of the child is established. In poor illiterate families to which most child labourers

belongs hardly have any proof of age. There is need to find ways to rectify these loopholes.

However the enactment of laws is only a first step. What is really important is their effective enforcement. Not only this, enactment and enforcement of child labour laws have to be accompanied by simultaneous enactment and enforcement of other social policy laws and implementation of social and economic measures.

Being a socio-economic issue, the problem of child labour must be tackled by promoting the growth opportunities for children. The public awareness against this social evil is very important. And the coordinated efforts of government NGOs, employers, trade unions and parents can be helpful for gradual elimination of child labour.

CHAPTER FIVE

**Role of International Agencies and NGOs in the Child
Labour Eradication**

Introduction

The effective abolition of child labour is one of the most urgent challenges of our time. Today, we have a better grasp of the size and the shape of the problem. According to the ILO there are more than 200 million child labourers worldwide, of which some 180 million are now suspected to be toiling in the “worst forms” of child labour – those activities that the global community has unanimously agreed are inexcusable under any circumstances and must be eliminated without delay¹. Unfortunately a large share of these child labourers belongs to India. The estimated number of working children in the country as per the 55th Round of the NSSO Survey (1999-2000) is 10.4 million².

Now there is a better understanding of the factors that give rise to child labour and of its consequences. Child labour is clearly detrimental to individual children, preventing them from enjoying their childhood, hampering their development and sometimes causing lifelong physical or psychological damage; it is also detrimental to families, to communities and to society as a whole. As both a result and a cause of poverty, child labour perpetuates disadvantage and social exclusion. It undermines national development by keeping children out of school, preventing them from gaining the education and skills that would enable them as adults to contribute to economic growth and prosperity.

A worldwide movement against child labour

In recent years, a sea change in awareness of child labour has occurred across the world and this has strengthened countries’ attitudes with regard to its abolition. Little more than a decade ago, child labour was dismissed by many as an inevitable cultural phenomenon, and by some as non-existent. Before the early 1990s, there was no tripartite consensus on the urgency of dealing with child labour. Countries were hesitant to admit that it might exist within their borders, for fear of a negative international reaction,

¹ A Future Without Child Labour, May, 2002, ILO.

² Economic Survey 2002-2003, pp221.

including possible trade sanctions. The situation at that time regarding child labour was largely one of denial, much as it has been for the related occurrence of forced labour. There is now greater understanding that the abolition of child labour is an issue at the heart of social and economic development and not at its margins.

A worldwide movement, involving various International Agencies, National governments, State and Local governments along with NGO's and employers' and workers' organizations etc has now started. All of them are working together at various levels. As pointed out in the beginning child labour is a Global problem of severe dimension existing all the countries whether they are developed or developing or transition countries although in different degrees. Therefore there is need of coordinated, sustained efforts at international, national and local levels to eradicate child labour problem from the world. This chapter primarily aims to look in to the nature, sphere of activities of various agencies, Intergovernmental, Governmental as well as Non Governmental Organizations (NGO's). An effort to understand the working of these agencies has been made. The analysis of dynamics (interlinkages and coordination among them) of these agencies at international, national and local level has been made. A special emphasis has been given to study of Role of NGOs in the eradication of child labour. At last some measures to improve the working and coordination among these agencies to make them more effective has been suggested.

YNAMIC GLOBAL PICTURE

The International Agencies Work against Child Labour

Child labour is part of a wider social reality at local, national and international levels. Only through understanding and action at all these levels, in mutually reinforcing ways, can its effective abolition be achieved. This chapter examines some of the most important developments at the international level that are helping to build an environment in which child labour can be abolished in the national contexts in which it occurs.

Key milestones in the fight against child labour

A number of key milestones and actions against child labour have been achieved with concerted effort at international and national level:

— the impetus given by the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1989;

— the long tradition of ILO standard setting and supervision in the field of child labour, dating from the very first session of the International Labour Conference in 1919 and leading up to the adoption of the umbrella Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138);

— the experience gained by national governments working with IPEC;

— increased activism on child labour by employers' and workers' organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs);

— the unanimous adoption of the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), and the subsequent campaign for its universal ratification and implementation;

— the designation of Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 as fundamental Conventions;

— research and action that have provided new insights into the causes, dimensions and means of reducing both poverty and child labour.

Along with wider recognition of the problem of child labour has come better knowledge and understanding of how to tackle it, and the determination to work together towards the common goal of its elimination.

Mainstreaming child labour in poverty reduction strategies

The ILO Report³ clearly point out, poverty and social exclusion produce fertile breeding grounds for child labour. Unfortunately, neither economic reforms nor conventional development models have yielded the promised outcomes for large sections of the population in the developing world. The average income today in the

³A Future Without Child Labour, May, 2002, ILO.

richest 20 countries is 37 times that in the poorest 20 – a gap that has doubled in the past 40 years.⁴

But a worldwide commitment now exists to attack poverty. The United Nations Millennium Summit, held in New York in September 2000, put in place the Millennium Development Goals (MDG)⁵. Progress towards achievement of each one of these goals, and, in particular, the goals to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people living in extreme poverty and to ensure universal primary education by 2015, will provide a backdrop against which the effective abolition of child labour can itself be realized.

International action for children's rights United Nations General Assembly Special Session on Children

Awareness of children's rights and commitment to their implementation grew during the 1990s, in parallel with the swelling concern for poverty reduction. The World Summit for Children in 1990 resulted in the development of national plans of action targeting nine out of ten of the world's children. Many of the Summit's goals, particularly those on health, education and gender equality, prefigured the Millennium Development Goals. For the follow-up United Nations General Assembly Special Session on Children in May 2002, the ILO, with the support of the social partners, is seeking to ensure that the outcome document clearly reflects the global commitment to the elimination of all child labour, with the use of the minimum age for employment or work as the yardstick.

UN Commission on Human Rights

The UN Commission on Human Rights adopted in 1993 a "Programme of Action for the Elimination of the Exploitation of Child Labour". Activity under this programme

⁴ World Bank: *World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking poverty* (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2001), p. 3.

⁵ The MDGs are: (1) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; (2) Achieve universal primary education; (3) Promote gender equality and empower women; (4) Reduce child mortality; (5) Improve maternal health; (6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; (7) Ensure environmental sustainability; and (8) Develop a global partnership for development.

is in an early stage. So far, the main outcome has been the provision of information by a number of governments on the situation of child labour in their countries. Child labour has also received attention by the "expert-level" Sub-Commission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, a subordinate body to the Commission on Human Rights, as well as by the Sub-Commission working Group on Contemporary Forms of Slavery. Finally, the UN Commission on Human Rights has established a Special Rapporteur to consider matters relating to the sale of children, child prostitution and pornography. The special Rapporteur reports each year to the Commission.

Convention on the Rights of the Child

The human rights of children and the standards to which all governments must aspire in realizing these rights for all children, are most concisely and fully articulated in one international human rights treaty: the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Convention is the most universally accepted human rights instrument in history – it has been ratified by every country in the world except two – and therefore uniquely places children centre-stage in the quest for the universal application of human rights. By ratifying this instrument, national governments have committed themselves to protecting and ensuring children's rights and they have agreed to hold themselves accountable for this commitment before the international community.

Built on varied legal systems and cultural traditions, the Convention on the Rights of the Child is a universally agreed set of non-negotiable standards and obligations. It spells out the basic human rights that children everywhere – without discrimination – have: the right to survival; to develop to the fullest; to protection from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation; and to participate fully in family, cultural and social life. Every right spelled out in the Convention is inherent to the human dignity and harmonious development of every child. The Convention protects children's rights by setting standards in health care, education and legal, civil and social services. These standards are benchmarks against which progress can be assessed. States that are party to the Convention are obliged to develop and undertake all actions and policies in the light of the best interests of the child.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights – civil and political rights as well as economic, social and cultural rights.

United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child⁶

The Committee on the Rights of the Child is the body that monitors how well States are meeting their obligations under the Convention on the Rights of the Child. When a country ratifies the Convention, it assumes a legal obligation to implement the rights recognized in the treaty. But signing up is only the first step, because recognition of rights on paper is not sufficient to guarantee that they will be enjoyed in practice. So the country incurs an additional obligation to submit regular reports to the Committee on how the rights are being implemented. This system of human rights monitoring is common to all UN human rights treaties.

To meet their reporting obligation, States must report initially two years after joining and then every five years. In addition to the government report, the Committee receives information on a country's human rights situation from other sources, including non-governmental organizations, UN agencies, other intergovernmental organizations, academic institutions and the press. In the light of all the information available, the Committee examines the report together with government representatives. Based on this dialogue, the Committee publishes its concerns and recommendations, referred to as "concluding observations".

The Committee also publishes its interpretation of the content of human rights provisions, known as General Comments, and General Recommendations on thematic issues or its methods of work. It also holds public discussions, or Days of General Discussion, on particular issues such as "Violence against children".

⁶For detail visit <http://www.unhcr.ch/html/menu2/6/crc/>

The NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child (NGO Group)

The NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child (NGO Group) is a coalition of international non-governmental organizations, which work together to facilitate the implementation of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. It was originally formed in 1983 as the Informal Ad Hoc NGO Group for the Drafting of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. From 1983 until 1988, members of the NGO Group were actively involved in the drafting of the Convention. In addition to participating in the meetings of the United Nations Working Group, the NGO Group also held regular consultations, twice yearly, to analyze the text of articles of the Convention which had been proposed or adopted and to draft suggested textual amendments or to recommend the inclusion of new articles. The NGO Group has been credited with having a constructive influence on the Convention's final text.

Once the Convention on the Rights of the Child had been adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, the NGO Group felt it was desirable to reorganize in order to assist in the monitoring and implementation of the Convention.

Structure

The NGO Group is presently composed of forty-one international non-governmental organizations, enjoying consultative status with ECOSOC, directly involved, by virtue of their aims and activities, in the implementation of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. While children's rights and child welfare are the primary organizational focus of some members of the NGO Group, there are other members for whom the rights of the child is one aspect of a wider mandate. These organizations include jurists, religious groups, women's rights advocates and educational associations, among others. Participation in the NGO Group allows them to engage in discussions on children's rights issues without having to devote the necessary resources to follow these issues on a full time basis. The NGO Group normally meets twice a year in Geneva in order to coordinate its action and develop joint strategies. UNICEF participates as an observer, and has provided support to the NGO Group since its inception.

The NGO Group has a Liaison Unit in order to enhance its role in promoting and supporting coordination and continuous dialogue with the Committee on the Rights of the Child. The purpose of the post of Liaison Unit is to enhance cooperation and interaction between the global NGO community and the Committee. Defence for Children International performs the role of Secretariat of the NGO Group, a position which it has held since 1983. Within the NGO Group, a number of sub-groups have been formed to work on themes related to specific articles of the Convention. The Conveners of some of the sub-groups comprise a Coordinating Committee which coordinates the activities of the NGO Group and provides advice and support to the Liaison Unit and the Secretariat of the NGO Group.

The NGO Group has the following aims:

- to raise awareness about the Convention and make its implications known;
- to promote full implementation of the Convention;
- to be an active source of information for the Committee on the Rights of the Child, concerned United Nations bodies and interested NGOs;
- to contribute to drawing up recommendations, policies and strategies in the fields of work of its sub-groups
- to make available to the NGO community information, decisions and recommendations made by the Committee on the Rights of the Child and other concerned UN bodies;
- to facilitate the creation of NGO groupings for undertaking joint activities.

Priorities and Objectives

To carry out its mandate, the NGO Group has undertaken a number of projects. First and foremost among them is to facilitate contact between the non-governmental community and the Committee on the Rights of the Child with particular emphasis on securing all relevant information for the State reporting process. This means that the NGO Group closely follows the activities of the Committee and acts as an information resource whenever needed. Members of the NGO Group are able to provide expertise on a wide range of topics and are able, through their network of national affiliates, to act as a resource for information regarding State Party compliance with the standards of the Convention. The NGO Group, similarly, keeps its members and their affiliates informed of the work of the Committee.

Second, in order to expand and consolidate their children's rights expertise, members of the NGO Group have created subgroups to follow the activities of the United Nations relating to the rights of the child. Subgroups have been formed to follow such topics as child labor, sexual exploitation, refugee children and children in armed conflict, children in conflict with the law, education and the media, adoption and family placement, and leisure and play. In their respective fields of action, sub-groups meet regularly to promote international conventions, facilitate information flow between non-governmental organizations and between non-governmental organizations and United Nations bodies, enhance national and international campaigning and draw up recommendations, policies and strategies to raise awareness.

Third, to facilitate the monitoring and implementation of the Convention at the national level, the NGO Group is working to encourage the creation and development of national coalitions of non-governmental organizations working with children. The NGO Group offers support and assistance to national coalitions as they carry out their children's rights monitoring tasks. A task force on national coalitions has been established within the NGO Group in order to explore the potential to support national coalitions.

Finally, the NGO Group has published a number of documents and booklets aimed at providing information about the content and implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Child. These publications include brochures on combating the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography; eliminating the exploitation of child labor; education on the Convention on the Rights of the Child; and a Guide for NGOs reporting to the Committee on the Rights of the Child All publications are available from the Secretariat of the NGO Group in English, French, and Spanish for a nominal fee.

Members of the NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child

Anti-Slavery International

Associated Country Women of the World

Baha'i International Community

Christian Children's Fund, Inc.

Defence for Children International

Friends World Committee for Consultation (Quakers)
Human Rights Watch
Inter-African Committee on Traditional Practices affecting the Health of Women & Children
International Abolitionist Federation
International Association for the Child's Right to Play
International Association of Juvenile and Family Court Magistrates
International Catholic Child Bureau
International Commission of Jurists
International Council of Jewish Women
International Council of Women
International Federation of Business and Professional Women
International Federation of Social Workers
International Federation of Women in Legal Careers
International Federation "Terre des Hommes"
International Inner Wheel
International Movement Against All Forms of Discrimination and Racism
International Movement "ATD Fourth World"
International Save the Children Alliance
International School Psychology Association
International Social Service
Jubilee Campaign
Lutheran World Federation
Plan International
Rädda Barnen Soroptimist International
World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts
World Federation of Methodist Women
World Federation of United Nations Associations
World Jewish Congress
World Organization against Torture/SOS-Torture
World Organization for Early Childhood Education

World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations

World Vision International

Women's World Summit Foundation

Zonta International

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)⁷

Created by the United Nations General Assembly in 1946 to help children after World War II in Europe, UNICEF was first known as the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. In 1953, UNICEF became a permanent part of the United Nations system, its task being to help children living in poverty in developing countries. Its name was shortened to the United Nations Children's Fund, but it retained the acronym "UNICEF," by which it is known to this day.

UNICEF helps children get the care and stimulation they need in the early years of life and encourages families to educate girls as well as boys. It strives to reduce childhood death and illness and to protect children in the midst of war and natural disaster. UNICEF supports young people, wherever they are, in making informed decisions about their own lives, and strives to build a world in which all children live in dignity and security.

Working with national governments, NGOs (non-governmental organizations), other United Nations agencies and private-sector partners, UNICEF protects children and their rights by providing services and supplies and by helping shape policy agendas and budgets in the best interests of children.

UNICEF's governing body of 36 nations, representing all regions of the world, establishes policies, reviews programs and approves budgets for the organization. Headquartered in New York, UNICEF carries out its work through seven regional offices and 126 country offices covering more than 160 countries, territories and areas.

⁷ For detail visit <http://www.unicef.org>

The 37 National Committees for UNICEF are private, not-for-profit organizations, primarily in industrialized countries, that support UNICEF programs. Extensive networks of volunteers help the Committees raise funds, sell the well-known UNICEF greeting cards and carry out other activities, such as the "Trick-or-Treat for UNICEF" program. These efforts help generate a deeper understanding of the rights and needs of children everywhere and provide ways for young people as well as adults to change the world for children

UNICEF Mission

- UNICEF is mandated by the United Nations General Assembly to advocate for the protection of children's rights, to help meet their basic needs and to expand their opportunities to reach their full potential.
- UNICEF is guided by the Convention on the Rights of the Child and strives to establish children's rights as enduring ethical principles and international standards of behaviour towards children.
- UNICEF insists that the survival, protection and development of children are universal development imperatives that are integral to human progress.
- UNICEF mobilizes political will and material resources to help countries, particularly developing countries, ensure a "first call for children" and to build their capacity to form appropriate policies and deliver services for children and their families.
- UNICEF is committed to ensuring special protection for the most disadvantaged children - victims of war, disasters, extreme poverty, all forms of violence and exploitation and those with disabilities.
- UNICEF responds in emergencies to protect the rights of children. In coordination with United Nations partners and humanitarian agencies, UNICEF makes its unique facilities for rapid response available to its partners to relieve the suffering of children and those who provide their care.
- UNICEF is non-partisan and its cooperation is free of discrimination. In everything it does, the most disadvantaged children and the countries in greatest need have priority.

- UNICEF aims, through its country programmes, to promote the equal rights of women and girls and to support their full participation in the political, social, and economic development of their communities.
- UNICEF works with all its partners towards the attainment of the sustainable human development goals adopted by the world community and the realization of the vision of peace and social progress enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations.

UNICEF is doing commendable job in the child labour field through its field offices in: New Delhi, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar, Chennai, Gandhinagar, Hyderabad, Jaipur, Kolkata, Lucknow, Mumbai, and Patna. It also has large presence in UP.

UNICEF works with NGO activists to end child labour

According to UNICEF liberating children from formal employment has proved easier than reaching street and slum children in India's vast and unorganized informal labor sector. In the early eighties, several NGOs, including the Global March Against Child Labour and the London-based Anti Slavery International, highlighted the practice of employing children as young as six to weave carpets for export.

This led to one of the successful initiatives of UNICEF in the UP to stop child labor. Known as 'Rugmark' it consists of inspecting carpet factories and certifying that the carpets were not made with child labour. A consumer education program was also launched in North America and Europe, and importers were pressed to join the scheme. However this is a very delicate issue which needs careful handling. It should not tarnish the image of "Made in India brand" thus hampering the interest of even those manufacturers and exporters which do not use child labour.

After carpets, UNICEF focused on other industries like sports, glass, matchstick and firecrackers industries.

One of the most successful campaigns launched by the Global March Against Child Labour has been to prevent the use of children in the manufacture of firecrackers,

which are popular during religious celebrations such as the Hindu festival of lights (Diwali). The campaign was initiated in 1995. It was quickly taken up by more than ten thousand schools and eventually resulted in a widespread public boycott of firecrackers during this festive holiday.

Another campaign by the Global March targeted the recently held World Cup soccer tournament, in Korea. The Global March pressurized FIFA, the world soccer governing body, to ensure that soccer balls and other sports equipment are not made with child labor.

This activism has certainly resulted in sharp decreases in child labor in these industries. But the news isn't overwhelmingly positive, U.P. is home to the country's "carpet belt," a section of the country known for producing carpets for export. 1.74 million children do not go to school in U.P. and of those enrolled in school, only 48% of the boys and 35% of the girls complete their education.⁸ According to Johan Fagerskjold of UNICEF's state office in UttarPradesh problem of child labor in factories persists despite the activism of NGOs and even the Rugmark label, is almost impossible to authenticate.

As a result, UNICEF is working with a local organization to gain the trust of communities, and provide alternative forms of employment for families. Mothers are told that if they work, they can send their children to school who can, in turn, earn a higher salary in the future. The NGO helps local people, especially women, to initiate microcredit projects by establishing a savings group that acts as a loan agency for the village. This eliminates the role and profits of a middleman and eases the burden on local people who might otherwise feel pressured to make their children work just to pay off the interest from the loans they have taken out to keep their shops and businesses running.

The solution to child labor in the carpet belt has to be community-based. Therefore the role of NGOs and local media becomes very important. A big part of the challenge from child labour comes from the fact that much of it takes place at home.

⁸ <http://www.unicef.org>

Activists are only just starting to penetrate home-based industries such as bidi (cigarette) making, zardosi (weaving gold and silk beads onto saris).

In Uttar Pradesh, UNICEF partnered with an NGO called Laxmi to provide non-formal education to children who work in the zardosi industry. Some employers are paying children who are as young as four. Their work day can start at 8 a.m. and end at 9 p.m.

Laxmi representatives lobby zardosi employers to send the children to school for at least a few hours a day. They also organize non-formal education for girls who work at home doing embroidery. The NGO has even enlisted some community members to contribute five rupees for the establishment of a local school so that people will feel they have a stake in its success.

The UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre

The UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre is based in Florence and is the main research arm of UNICEF, the United Nations Children's Fund, helping to shape the organization's human rights agenda for children.

Since its creation in 1988, the Centre has provided solid data on the changing needs of children in both developing and industrialized countries. Its strong focus on children's rights has helped UNICEF and its partners promote a new global ethic for children based on their fundamental human rights.

One of the Centre's main aims is to encourage the effective implementation of the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in every country - rich or poor. The Centre gives particular priority to problems of equity, economic affordability and the financing of social programmes to benefit children.

No single organization can address every aspect of children's rights. The UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre works in partnership with a large number of other organizations to maximize its impact, share its expertise and enhance its outreach with

one overall aim - to promote the rights of all children. The flow and exchange of information is central to this goal.

The International Labour Organization (ILO)⁹ and child labour

The International Labour Organization, from its inception, has made child labour one of its central concerns¹⁰. ILO work on child labour over the decades has mainly taken its cue from the phrase “protection of children” in the Preamble to its Constitution. The ILO’s prime tool in pursuing the abolition of child labour has always been, and remains to this day, the labour standards that embody the concept of a minimum age to enter into employment.

This approach responds to two concerns: to protect children from work that interferes with their full development and to pursue economic efficiency through well-functioning adult labour markets. Early minimum age standards were linked to schooling¹¹.

The Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), which built on the ten instruments adopted before the Second World War, expresses this tradition by stating that the minimum age for entry into employment should not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling. By establishing such a link, the aim is to ensure that children’s human capital is developed to its fullest potential, benefiting children themselves, their families and communities and society as a whole by the increased contribution they can, when grown, make to economic growth and social development.

Soon after the World Summit for Social Development, held in Copenhagen in March 1995, had squarely identified the elimination of child labour as a key to sustainable social development and poverty reduction, the ILO Governing Body

⁹ For detail visit <http://www.ilo.org/>

¹⁰ Two child labour instruments were among the six adopted at the First Session of the International Labour Conference in 1919: the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 5), and the Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 6).

¹¹ For example, the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920 (No. 7), the Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention, 1921 (No. 10), and the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention, 1932 (No. 33).

approved, in 1996, the development of a new ILO instrument on the subject. The aim of such an instrument was to consolidate the growing consensus, fuelled in part by the ILO's own increasing work under its International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)¹², that certain forms of child labour demanded urgent, immediate action for their prohibition and elimination. Preparatory work began in earnest for a new Convention and Recommendation¹³; and ideas for such instruments were subsequently discussed within the ILO and at other international meetings in Amsterdam and Oslo the following year.

In 1998, the adoption by the 86th Session of the International Labour Conference of the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and its Follow-up reconfirmed the effective abolition of child labour as one of the principles concerning the fundamental rights to be respected by all ILO member States, even if they had not ratified the fundamental Conventions.¹⁴

At that same session of the Conference, debate began on the proposed new child labour instruments and, as witnessed by the Global March Against Child Labour, children themselves decried their treatment at work. The unanimous adoption of the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), and its accompanying Recommendation (No. 190), marked yet another milestone in the movement against child labour.

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) was established in 1992 with an initial grant from the Government of Germany. It built on work undertaken by an earlier interdepartmental project of the ILO.

IPEC has expanded over the years, and now represents a coalition of almost 100 countries, including 26 donor governments and organizations and more than 70 countries with active programmes to combat child labour. It has, over its ten years of existence, become the largest single technical cooperation programme of the ILO and includes

¹² IPEC was established in 1992 with an initial grant from the Government of Germany. It built on work undertaken by an earlier interdepartmental project of the ILO.

¹³ ILO: *Child labour: Targeting the intolerable*, Report VI (1), International Labour Conference, 86th Session, Geneva, 1998.

¹⁴ After the Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development in 1995, the ILO reclassified the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), which only a few years previously had been seen as a technical ILO standard, as a basic human rights instrument (one of the fundamental Conventions).

government agencies, employers' and workers' organizations, private businesses, community-based organizations, NGOs, the media, parliamentarians, the judiciary, religious groups and, of course, children and their families. Almost 150 NGOs across the world have been working with IPEC through action programmes.

IPEC's aim is to work towards the progressive elimination of child labour by strengthening national capacities to address child labour problems, and by creating a worldwide movement to combat it.

IPEC's priority target groups are bonded child labourers, children in hazardous working conditions and occupations and children who are particularly vulnerable, i.e. very young working children (below 12 years of age), and working girls.

The political will and commitment of individual governments to address child labour in cooperation with employers' and workers' organizations, other NGOs and relevant parties in society – such as universities and the media – is the starting point for all IPEC action. Sustainability is built in from the start through an emphasis on in-country "ownership". Support is given to partner organizations to develop and implement measures which aim at *preventing* child labour, *withdrawing* children from hazardous work and providing *alternatives*, and *improving the working conditions* as a transitional measure towards the elimination of child labour. A phased and **multi-sectoral strategy** is applied consisting of the following steps:

- *Motivating* a broad alliance of partners to acknowledge and act against child labour.
- Carrying out a *situational analysis* to find out about child labour problems in a country.
- Assisting with developing and implementing national *policies* on child labour problems.
- *Strengthening* existing organizations and setting up *institutional mechanisms*.
- Creating *awareness* on the problem nationwide, in communities and workplaces.
- Promoting the *development and application of protective legislation*.

- Supporting *direct action* with (potential) child workers for demonstration purposes.
- *Replicating* and *expanding* successful projects into the programmes of partners.
- *Mainstreaming* child labour issues into socio-economic policies, programmes and budgets.

The 89th Session of the International Labour Conference in 2001 saw the launch of the latest development in IPEC – the first three time-bound programmes on the worst forms of child labour.

The prohibition of child Time-bound programmes were launched in El Salvador, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania, with financial assistance from the Government of the United States. Similar programmes are being prepared in 15 additional countries.

A comprehensive state-based approach to the elimination of child labour is under way in Andhra Pradesh and this aims to generate a replicable model for other Indian states to take up.

Child labour in other ILO programmes

Child labour is increasingly being taken up as an issue in other ILO programmes that have the expertise to bring to bear on the problem. These include, for example, the InFocus Programmes on Boosting Employment through Small Enterprise Development, Crisis Response and Reconstruction, Safety and Health at Work and the Environment and Skills, Knowledge and Employability, the ILO Programme on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work and the Gender Promotion Programme. The ILO Bureau for Employers' Activities and the ILO Bureau for Workers' Activities conduct and support activities against child labour by the ILO social partners.

The ILO Declaration provides a framework under which child labour can be addressed as part of broader initiatives that encompass all four fundamental

principles and rights at work.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNESCO, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, was established on 16th of November 1945. It has its headquarters in Paris, France and field offices and units in different parts of the world. It currently has 189 Member States.

The main objective of UNESCO is to contribute to peace and security in the world by promoting collaboration among nations through education, science, culture and communication in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations.

Programme for the Education of Children in Difficult Circumstances Street and Working Children

As a follow-up to the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990) UNESCO launched a World Programme for the Education of Street and Working Children, the main objective of which is to facilitate access to basic education and vocational training for these children and young people by addressing their survival and educational needs.

Programme activities set up since 1990 are:

- Awareness-raising and advocacy work among decision-makers and the general public with special emphasis on the promotion of the political will of governments to act against the social exclusion of children and young people.
- Financial support to grassroots-level projects and programmes and technical co-operation with grassroots professionals (e.g. training of street children educators and social workers; enhancement of professional capacities of the police and children's lawyers).

- Networking of projects and promotion of partnerships in Member States of the Organization to meet the priority needs of street and working children, their educators and programme managers.
- Launching special projects jointly with governments and NGOs for sustainable provision of education for street and working children.

Early Childhood and Family Education

UNESCO's Early Childhood and Family Education section co-ordinates research, activities and initiatives undertaken by UNESCO in early childhood care and education, and parent and family education. With the help of its specialized services, its roster of consultants, its partnerships with United Nations agencies, major institutes and NGOs, UNESCO

- provides various services to its Member States, United Nations agencies, foundations, organizations and individuals working in favour of children and families;
- participates in United Nations or other international initiatives in favour of children and families, in the context of the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*;
- encourages governments to integrate early childhood and family education programmes in their long-term social and economic planning;
- serves as a networking centre and clearing house for information on early childhood issues, policies, programmes and organizations, and as the lead agency for an *Inter-Agency Early Childhood Communication Strategy*.

In this context, the following are UNESCO's main programme goals guiding the planning and implementation of various activities:

- Supporting early childhood policy development
- Strengthening family support policies
- Promoting early childhood networking and partnerships
- Reinforcing early childhood communication and information

- The Early Childhood and Family Education section is a member of the Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development, the World Forum on Early Childhood Care and Education Alliance, the inter-agency Children's House Internet initiative, and the worldwide Child Rights Information Network (CRIN). 2,160 international civil servants, professionals and general staff, are members of the Secretariat. Nearly 645 work outside Headquarters in one of 73 UNESCO field offices and units around the world.
- 190 of these countries have set up a National Commission constituted of representatives of national educational, scientific and cultural communities.
- 344 non-governmental organizations (NGOs) maintain "official" relations with UNESCO. and many others co-operate on an occasional basis with the Sectors.
- 6,668 Associated School help young people form attitudes of tolerance and international understanding.

Child Protection Initiatives by the World Bank

The World Bank has acknowledged that child labor is one of the most devastating consequences of persistent poverty and trying to help reduce harmful child labor through its ongoing poverty reduction efforts and new initiatives. Housed in the Human Development Network's Social Protection Unit, the Global Child Labor Program was established to develop knowledge and identify strategies to enhance the effectiveness and impact of the World Bank's work on children through its ongoing poverty reduction efforts.

The Program functions as the Bank's focal point for child labor activities, training and capacity building. World Bank has partnership with various international organizations and NGOs to eradicate this evil.

Interagency cooperation

Cooperation between the various international organizations concerned with children, poverty and development has intensified in recent years. The structural causes of child labour, such as poverty, inequality, and deficient education, health and child protection systems, fall within the mandates of different agencies. Thus, the core mandate of the ILO in this field is complemented by those of UNICEF, the World Bank, WHO, UNDP, UNESCO and others, each of which has expertise and programme experience to bring to bear on solving the problem.

International agencies working together

By working together, synergies between agencies can be exploited. The ILO and UNICEF drew up an agreement in 1996 to strengthen existing co-operation, confirming the complementary and mutually supportive roles of the two agencies in the progressive elimination of child labour and protection of working children. This agreement provides a framework for cooperative action to ensure coherent positions on policy and practice in child labour, to convene joint regional and sub regional workshops on research for purposes of disseminating and exchanging experiences and to continue with technical cooperation and follow-up activities. In operational terms, the ILO and UNICEF implement joint programmes in Bangladesh, Brazil, Nepal, Pakistan, the United Republic of Tanzania, and collaborate in many other countries.

Developing New Strategies for Understanding Children's Work and Its Impact is an important new interagency project coordinated from the UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre in Florence, Italy. Launched in December 2000, this joint initiative of the ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank aims to improve child labour research, data collection and analysis, to enhance local and national capacity for research and to improve the evaluation of interventions. It is assessing existing information so as to identify major gaps and ways of filling them. Indicators are being developed to chart the dimensions of child labour and to relate them to income, gender, health condition and education.

Another example is the cooperation between the ILO, UNICEF, UNESCO and Education International in a project to mobilize teachers, educators and their organizations to combat child labour. This collaboration produced two outputs: an information kit for teachers, and a report¹⁵, which assembled country experiences and assessed the extent to which education systems respond to the challenge of child labour, the obstacles faced and successful strategies to overcome them.

The ILO collaborates closely with United Nations organizations concerned with human rights and children's rights, such as the Commission on Human Rights, the Working Group on Slavery of the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities and the CRC. The CRC has expressed its intention to reinforce its cooperation with the ILO on child labour, especially with respect to the trafficking of children.

The Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Child Labour

The Non – Governmental Organizations (NGOs) who have been successful in making people's participation in education and training by the use of their skills, overcoming behaviour and cultural resistance of communities may be preferably involved in tackling the problem of child labour. This is suggested because, paradoxically, although the Government adopts the techniques used by the NGOs, the process often tends to get bureaucratized leading to ineffective implementation. Many NGOs have the reputation of being able to get closer to communities. They also have the experience in running special schools with certain advantages over Governmental agencies like having a more committed work force, flexibility in operation, thorough knowledge and expertise and the preparedness to work with target groups in far flung locations. Greater social awareness with the involvement of NGOs, better low cost job – orientated education and encouraging more women joining the work force besides empowerment of women would

¹⁵ N. Haspels et al.: *Action against child labour: Strategies in education* (Geneva, ILO, 1999).

go a long way in elimination of child labour. Mass literacy programmes should be evolved to campaign against the social segment called child labour.

NGOs and community organizations have wide-ranging experience working with social needs and developing community resources. Governments and businesses want to benefit from their expertise and experience, to help ensure that their own social investments are sound and effective. By working in partnership NGOs and communities organizations can influence ways of working and gain access to greater resources to deliver their mission.

International NGOs

There are several international NGOs involved in diverse activities and programmes of child welfare and development. Most of these NGOs are partners to various intergovernmental organizations like ILO, UNICEF, UNDP, World Bank etc. in the child labour eradication.

Global March Against Child Labour¹⁶

Global March movement began with a worldwide march when thousands of people marched together to jointly put forth the message against child labour. The march, which started on January 17, 1998, touched every corner of the globe, built immense awareness and led to high level of participation from the masses. This march finally culminated at the ILO Conference in Geneva. The voice of the marchers was heard and reflected in the draft of the ILO Convention against the worst forms of child labour.

Global March movement is involved in assessing and lobbying for the ratification and implementation of the Convention. The dedicated partners¹⁷ like South Asian

¹⁶ <http://www.globalmarch.org>

¹⁷ For full list and details about partners visit http://www.globalmarch.org/whos_involve/

Coalition on Child Servitude India, Education International Belgium, Christian Aid UK, International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) Denmark, and Child Workers in Nepal (CWIN) Nepal, of the Global March movement form an effective network around the world. Acting as vigilant observers and lobbying with governments in their region, they form the backbone of the movement. The Global March International Secretariat is located in New Delhi, India. It is in the process of compiling data on the worst forms of child labour from all countries. In accordance with the recent UN Convention on the 'worst forms of child labour', the sub-categories that have been included in are: Child slavery or servitude, Child trafficking, Children forced to join armed conflicts, Child prostitution or pornography, Children used for crimes, Children used for drug trafficking and Work which harms health, safety or morals of child.

Global March movement has now begun a crusade to make education available for all. The "Global Campaign for Education" is a worldwide movement aimed at providing education for all, at the earliest. Global March has joined hands with partner associations like Education International, Oxfam International and ActionAid. The campaign soon received impetus with more partners joining in the cause. The new partners are World Vision, Social Alert, World Confederation of Teachers, Save the Children Fund UK and Public Services International (PSI).

Under this programme "Shiksha Yatra" did a whirlwind mobilisation in Buxar, Balia, Ghazipur, Mirzapur, Varanasi, Allahabad, Kanpur, Lucknow, Shahjahanpur, Saharanpur, Mordabad and Bijnore. The yatra in Saharanpur was organised by DISHA, All India Society for World Development and Mahila Pragati Sansthan and Rotary club also participated in it.

The World Confederation of Teachers (WCT)

The World Confederation of Teachers (WCT) is an ILO partner, active worldwide in the field of education and, more specifically, in the role of education against child labour. The WCT and the Asian Confederation of Teachers (ACT) consider that there is a great

need for non-governmental programmes which involve teachers in South Asia, where the incidence of children working in hazardous conditions is high. The Objectives of the WCT are to:

- Examine and analyse the child labour situation in the region.
- Formulate, develop, and implement policies on the elimination of child labour.
- Formulate and implement action plans emphasizing teachers' participation.
- Develop awareness raising campaigns for teachers about the ills of child labour.
- Develop information and campaigning materials.

Global Partnership for Youth Development¹⁸

GPYD is co-convened by the Kellogg Company, the World Bank Group (WBG), and the International Youth Foundation (IYF). IYF provides a coordinating and leadership role in realizing successful outcomes for GPYD goals and objectives. GPYD is working on different projects primarily focusing on youths' capacity building and over all development in various parts of the world. It also work for enhancing economic and social opportunities for out-of-school youth In India it is working on the project to foster entrepreneurship and employment generation for underprivileged youth by providing business mentors and loans.

Free the Children International¹⁹

Free The Children is an international network of children helping children at a local, national and international level through representation, leadership and action. The primary goal of the organization is not only to free children from poverty and

¹⁸ <http://www.bpdweb.org/gpyd/>

¹⁹ For detail visit <http://www.freethechildren.org/>

exploitation, but to also free children and young people from the idea that they are powerless to bring about positive social change and to improve the lives of their peers.

Free the Children is unlike any other children's charity in the world, as it is an organization by, of and for children that fully embodies the notion that children and young people themselves can be leaders of today in creating a more just, equitable and sustainable world.

It recognizes that education is key for breaking the cycle of poverty in India, FTC has built and outfitted new schools in the following remote and poor regions: Calcutta, TamilNadu, AndhraPradesh and Bangalore

Child Rights Information Network

The Child Rights Information Network (CRIN)²⁰ is a global network that disseminates information about the Convention on the Rights of the Child and child rights amongst non-governmental organisations (NGOs), United Nations agencies, inter-governmental organisation (IGOs), educational institutions, and other child rights experts. The Coordinating Unit is based in London, UK.

The network is supported, and receives funding from, UNICEF, Rädda Barnen, Save the Children UK and the International Save the Children Alliance.

CRIN has a membership of more than 1,100 organisations in over 100 countries. About 84 percent of our members are NGOs; and 55 percent are in the South (including 22 percent in Africa and 18 percent in Asia). In addition to working with member organisations, CRIN services the information needs of about 1,600 organisations and 60 individuals who have joined our mailing list.

CRIN's objectives are:

- To meet the information needs of organisations and individuals working for children's rights;

²⁰For detail visit: <http://www.crin.org/>

- To support and promote the implementation of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child;
- To support organisations in gathering, handling, producing and disseminating child rights information through training, capacity building and the development of electronic and non-electronic networking tools.

International Labor Rights Fund (ILRF)²¹

ILRF is an advocacy organization dedicated to achieving just and humane treatment for workers worldwide. ILRF serves a unique role among human rights organizations as advocates for and with working poor around the world. We believe that all workers have the right to a safe working environment where they are treated with dignity and respect, and where they can organize freely to defend and promote their rights and interests. We are committed to overcoming the problems of child labor, forced labor, and other abusive labor practices. We promote enforcement of labor rights internationally through public education and mobilization, research, litigation, legislation, and collaboration with labor, government and business groups.

The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU)

The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) was set up in 1949 and has 231 affiliated organisations in 150 countries and territories on all five continents, with a membership of 158 million. It has three major regional organisations, APRO for Asia and the Pacific, AFRO for Africa, and ORIT for the Americas. It also maintains close links with the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) (which includes all ICFTU European affiliates) and Global Union Federations, which link together national unions from a particular trade or industry at international level. It is working for the eradication of forced and child labour worldwide.

²¹ <http://www.laborrights.org/>

Anti-Slavery International's work on child labour

Anti-Slavery International is not a funding body, but works with organisations around the world which work specifically in the field of child labour.

Anti-Slavery International has worked on child labour since the early 1900s. It has been systematically working on child labour issues since the 1970s, mainly in research and international advocacy. Relevant ILO and UN standards underpin all Anti-Slavery International's work on child labour. It works collaboratively with other NGOs, inter-governmental bodies and trade unions, and, and focus on the worst forms of child labour and slavery-like practices.

Anti-Slavery International currently works in three main areas. Firstly, it was strong supporter of efforts to develop Convention 182, and continue to promote the involvement of civil society organisations in taking action against the worst forms of child labour. At an advocacy level we work extensively with a variety of networks and coalitions to increase awareness about exploitative child labour and the mechanisms available to combat it.

Secondly, it has developed specific expertise on the subject of children in domestic service. This has involved: publishing hard evidence about the situation of child domestic workers in several countries; developing (with local partners) good practice tools on research and advocacy for use by NGOs and others at national and local levels; consolidating and building an international network of NGOs sharing information and expertise about child domestic work issues.

Thirdly, Anti-Slavery International continues to play a significant role in efforts to combat child labour in West Africa. It is currently co-ordinating work aimed at developing the capacity of NGOs in six West African countries to end the abuse of children trafficked for domestic service, and further activities relating to the trafficking of children in other regions are planned.

Anti-Slavery International is also the convenor of a Geneva based Sub-Group on Child Labour of the NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Christian Aid²²

The organisation strives to be prophetic, challenging the systems and processes that work against the interests of those who are poor or marginalised. The dream is to pave a better future for the impoverished section of the society.

Christian Aid is a UK and Ireland based charity that funds projects to some of the poorest countries in the world. With around 600,000 supporters, it had been a major strengthening force for the poorer lot, by helping them to improve their lives. It supports local organisations, which are best placed to understand local needs, as well as giving help on the ground through 16 overseas offices. Christian Aid is the Global March Treasurer.

Christian Aid was one of the first international development non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to campaign against child labour.

It supported the South Asia Coalition Against Child Servitude (SACCS) who have led a campaign to rescue children from bonded labour in India. More recently they have also supported a number of initiatives against child labour, including the Global March Against Child Labour, the Rugmark initiative which sought to eliminate child labour from the carpet industry in South Asia, and the campaign against the use of children in the manufacture of footballs in India.

Another SACCS initiative supported by Christian aid is Mukti Ashram , responsible for providing rehabilitation to many children rescued from the carpet industry.

Save the Children

²² For more details, please visit the website: <http://www.christian-aid.org.uk/>

Save the Children is working to end exploitative child labour. But it does not believe that a ban is the answer. Most children who work do so to survive. If children were banned from mainstream jobs, many would turn to illegal, dangerous work.

Save the Children supports projects that raise family income so children aren't forced to work. Where children do work, it tries to protect them from exploitation and find ways they can combine work with education. It is also involved in improving local education so it provides children with relevant skills to break out of poverty.

Child Workers in Asia (CWA)²³

CWA was established in 1985 as a support group for child workers in Asia, and the NGOs working with them. From a small group of five organizations, it now brings together over 50 groups/organizations working on child labour in 14 countries. It facilitates sharing of expertise and experiences between NGOs and strengthens their collaboration to jointly respond to the exploitation of working children in the region. For the last fifteen years, CWA has been a venue for interaction between big and small NGOs. The network has strived to contribute to the development of the understanding of the situation of children who work and are exploited. It has tried its best to support the emergence of local actions for working children and for the promotion of children's rights.

Its objective is to ensure children's participation in the formulation of programs and policies to pursue actions for the identified priority groups of children: child domestic workers, bonded child labourers, trafficked children, and other groups of children in the worst forms of child labour. Followings are Indian partner of the CWA working on child domestic workers. Arunodhaya Centre for Street and Working Children, Chennai works towards the goal 'To create a society that will uphold the rights of children with specific reference to child domestic workers and work towards elimination of child domestic work and promote and protect their rights as children. Peace Trust India, works Child Domestic workers employed by Bureaucrats Families, in Districts head quarters of Tamil

²³ <http://www.cwa.tnet.co.th/>

Nadu. Covering 19 District worked with 15 NGO's sensitising empowering CDWs release of Child Domestic Workers, Networking with concerned.

Natioanal Domestic Workers Movement started in 1985 through the process of domestic workers coming together and organizing themselves into a collective group. The movement, based in India and covering the five states(Tamil Nadu, Andha Pradesh, Goa, Maharastra and Bihar)empowers domestic workers and stands for their dignity. It works towards recognition and justice for the domestic workers through public awareness and legislation campaigns to ensure their dignity and protect their rights.

South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude (SACCS), Volunteers for Social Justice, Jalandher, Punjab, Mahita, Centre of Concern for Child Labour, Jeevika, The Concerned for Working Children (CWC) and Volunteers for Social Justice are local NGOs working in collaboration with CWA.

THE SOUTH ASIAN COALITION ON CHILD SERVITUDE (SACCS), NEW DELHI

SACCS's main objective are the identification of the children, conducting raids, rescue operations, filing cases in courts, awareness building among parents and society, rehabilitation and follow ups.

After release immediate shelter is provided, approaching the concerning department for the necessary action for Legal Aid, Education, Restoration of childhood, Psychological help and bringing the child to the mainstream of life.

It is working in Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Tamilnadu, Punjab, Haryana and Delhi in following industries: Carpet, Brick kiln, Glass Industry, Sports, Saree, Bidi, Stone Quarries, Domestic Child Labour and Firecrackers.

The South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude (SACCS), in association with other NGOs working on the issue of child labour in India, designated 1995 as "Save the Childhood Year." More than 200 NGOs from throughout India joined in the year-long Save the Childhood campaign, which is calling for the total abolition of child labour and

child servitude. The campaign aimed at compulsory education for all children below 14 years of age and for the implementation of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

To launch Save the Childhood Year 1995, a march was organised under the auspices of “Bachpan Bachao Andolan (BBA)” - *Save The Childhood Movement*. During January 19-25, 1995 the march covered a distance of 150 kms through the main child labour areas of Delhi.

Rugmark

In India, the Rugmark Foundation is made up of carpet manufacturers, the South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude (SACCS), UNICEF and IGEP, an export promotion agency backed up by the Indian and German governments. Since the Foundation's formation in October 1994, 100 carpet manufacturers - the largest with up to 2000 looms - have applied for licenses to use the trademark. The Foundation inspects these companies before they are licensed, and periodically thereafter. Carpet importers in Germany can also support Rugmark by paying one per cent of the carpet's import price into a fund for the education and rehabilitation of former child workers in India. Several major retailing chains and carpet importers have joined the scheme, together representing about 15 per cent of Indian carpet imports into Germany.

As evident from the above description, there is large number of international NGOs working for the eradication of child labour. Many of these NGOs are active in India and UP too. Many of them are working in collaboration with local NGOs

Local NGOs

The local NGOs can play more significant and effective role in combating child labour problem because of their proximity to the victims and better understanding of the social milieu in which child labour exist. Moreover there is better acceptance of local social workers in the local community which can have apprehension regarding outsiders.

There has been a flood of NGOs in recent years. All sort of NGOs have mushroomed in every nook corner of the country. Therefore it has become very difficult to sort out genuine from spurious ones. Nevertheless, the role played by various good NGOs can not undermined because of this reason. The service being rendered by these NGOS should be appreciated and their activities relating to child labour relief and rehabilitation must be actively supported both by the Central and State Government through financial assistance in the form of projects.

A brief review of various NGOs working in the field of child labour eradication and children education and welfare has been attempted with an aim of providing the glimpse of wide reach of NGOs which are present in most of the districts of the state. Therefore with proper support and monitoring NGOs can become a powerful tool in elimination of child labour problem. NGOs work and live with the people at the grass-root level. They have flexibility in organizational structure and operations. They have a team of committed and dedicated activists who are intimately involved with the working and living conditions of people at the ground level. This flexibility and presence of a hardcore team is the greatest strength of the NGOs.

This list of NGO is although not exhaustive but it is prepared by reviewing the activities area of about 1000 NGOs working in different districts of UP. Due to large number of NGOs even brief description of their mission and work can not given. However the some of NGOs has been enlisted with their core area in order to have some understanding about their spread and work.

Akhil Bhartiya Anath Ashram is running maintaining an orphanage for the less privileged children in Mathura. Js3 runs schools for children of emigrant labourer and workers employed in Brick Kilns in Kanpur. It mobilizes support for grass roots literacy movements and assist individuals at grass roots level. It also runs health programs to assist and improve hygenic conditions in slums and in localities where emigrant labourers reside. Guru Nanak Vikas Sewa Sadan of Allahabad offers residential detoxification facility for slums, homeless, street children.

Many NGOs like, Bhartiya Gramin Chetana Gramodyog Vikash Samiti, Farukabad, Cosmic Society for Human Resource Development and Research, Pratapgarh, Dharmartha Sewa Prabandh Evam Samaj Kalyan Samiti, Hardoi Gramothan Jan Seva Sansthan Allahabad, Madarsa Bakraya Junior High School Samiti Mission, Moradabad, Manav Shiksha Prasar Samiti, Allahabad, Lucknow, are working for the rehabilitation of children of sex workers by providing better educational facilities for them. Where as some are giving special emphasis on the education of girl child labourers for example, Akhil Bhartiya Bal Mahila Ghar of Hardoi, Bal Avam Mahila Kalyan Samiti, Fatehpur, Hashmi Human Resources Developemenmt Society, Amroha Jagdish Kalyan Samiti, Faizabad.

Large number of NGOs prominently Chitragupta Shikshan Sansthan Varanasi, Akkai Polycraft Association Lucknow, Anand Welfare Institution Kanpur, Gramin Praudh Siksha Prasar Samiiti, Gorakhpur, Kapil Bal Avam Mahila Sansthan, Basti, Jagriti Bal Vikas Samiti, Kanpur, Lokmitra, Raibarreilly, are involved in education of destitute, street children and child labour engaged in different sectors. They also run residential school for them and impart training with the aim of providing better employment opportunities to them in future.

Dr Shambunath Singh Research Foundation of Varanasi addresses issues like women empowerment and child rights. It organises self help groups for the child labourers. Foundation for Legal Aid, Environment and Social Action, Ghaziabad works for the cause of protection of rights of women, children, prisoners and persons with disabilities. It provides legal aid and advice to these people.

International Budha Education Institute, Ghaziabad, Smt Chandra Kumari Shiksha Samiti, Bharatiya Shikshan Seva Sansthan, Dr Ambedkar Samaj Seva Mandal of Allahabad and Nagrik Seva Samiti, Sultanpur provide training for self employment to the children of the minority community.

Jan Kalyan Gramodhyog Seva Aashram, Robertgunj, Jan Sewa Prasikchan

Sansthan, Gazipur, Janjivika Sewa Sansthan, Raibareilly, Sahyog Samajik Sansthan, Sajuji Maharaj, Samaj Sewa Sansthan, Lucknow, Shishma, Fatehpur, Subhash Children Society, Kanpur, Abushish Gramin Sewa Sansthan, Hapur, Action for Women and Rural Development, Kanpur, Adarsh Khadi Gramudyog Vikas Samiti, Amroha, Azad Seva Samiti, Muzaffarnagar, Centre For Rural Entrepreneurship And Technical Education, Lucknow, Ganesh Gram Udyog Seva Sansthan, Gaziabad, Gram Vikas Samiti, Barabanki Gramin Sudhar Evam Shramik Seva Sansthan Rudra Prayag, Jan Kalyan Gramodhyog Seva Aashram, Robertgunj, Jagdish Kalyan Samiti Faizabad, Lokmitra, Raibareilly, work for the overall rural development with special emphasis on children education and rehabilitation and eradication of child labour. They promote employment generation and rural entrepreneurship through technical skill upgradation, training and development and formation of self-help groups.

Mahila Chetna Samiti of Varanasi works for the welfare of street children with the aim of making them more productive and law abiding citizens. It also runs de-addiction centres for alcoholics and drug addicts.

There are several other NGOs working in UP for the children welfare and development. They also work more or less with similar objectives. However the NGOs have primarily concentrated on provision of basic amenities to the deprived children while functioning at the grassroots level. Several NGOs have made effective use of the available resources and with appropriate methods generated resources on their own. However, besides service delivery, there is also a need for education of the community, particularly at the grassroots level regarding its responsibilities towards children in need of help. Not many NGOs have taken up education of people at grassroots level in an intensive manner. As a result, care and protection of children living in exceptionally difficult circumstances is perceived as the responsibilities of the NGOs and Government whereas the primary responsibility lies with the family and the community. There seems to be overdependence on NGOs for identification, care, protection and development of deprived children. The NGOs in turn find it difficult to cope up with the ever increasing clientele, given the inadequate resources at their disposal. Awareness at grassroots level

will bring about increased sensitivity on the part of the society to understand the problems of deprived child and would also help NGOs share its responsibilities with community.

There is need of better co-ordination among NGOs and various government agencies at local and regional level. In several districts there is number of NGOs working in same area providing similar service to same children whereas other needy are left. Hence, there is need of local networking among NGOs through promotion of joint forums.

Apart from this, NGOs will have to be prepared for increased participation in regional/local planning bodies as well as policy formulatin with regard to the children. The NGOs besides being supportive, can also take up advocacy and lobbying for children's rights. Not many NGOs have taken up this as one of the key functional areas. If NGOs are able to pose a united front, they would emerge as a potent force for several initiatives in the areas of child welfare and development.

Conclusion:

Child labour is very complex issue. It can be eradicated only by sustained efforts at all level. Fortunately, now there is increasing awareness about child labour problem worldwide as evident by efforts done by various international and national agencies reviewed briefly in this chapter.

NGOs can be viewed as important partners and collaborators of government. Such a partnership should flow naturally and spontaneously from both sides.

In the context of eliminating child labour, the Government should invite NGOs for an open dialogue to plan a joint strategy instead of expecting NGOs to approach the Government for a partnership role. There are a number of good, reliable and committed NGOs which are largely non-political or apolitical and are based in remote, interior and inaccessible areas, and which have been working unremittingly to establish the much

needed outreach to the deprived and neglected cross sections of society (such as the child labourers), carrying hope, faith and conviction to them.

However a large number of fake NGOs have come up mainly with aim of pocketing the financial aid provided by government and International donors. Therefore the Government should provide assistance to only such NGOs that have good track record and which are willing to work in the direction of the elimination of child labour. The help of NGOs of repute and standing at the national and state level should be taken into account in the selection of such NGOs.

The NGOs can also play the role of watchdogs. The ratifications of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and other child related conventions by the Government have given the NGOs a powerful tool to monitor the status of children in the country. Not only this, they can also bring about awareness among people, motivate the parents not to allow their children to work, rather put them in school. They must be made literate and trained to be able to look after their needs later in life. This can be done through print, electronic and through folk-cultural media. It can also be done through songs, slogans, nukkad nataks (street theatres), skits, posters, role play and simulation exercises.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Child labour is a big problem that has remained intractable, even after more than 50 years of our having become independent. The prevalence of it is shown by the child work participation rates which are higher in Indian than in other developing countries.

The present study has attempted to highlight the factors which influence the incidence of child labour in UP. Children work for a variety of reasons. The one of the most important is poverty. Children work to ensure the survival of their family and themselves. Though children are not well paid, they still serve as major contributors to family income.

Children are often prompted to work by their parents. Some parents also feel that a formal education is not beneficial, and that children learn work skills through labour at a young age. These views are narrow and do not ~~take the~~ long term developmental benefits of education into account.

Schooling problems also contribute to child labor. Many times children seek employment simply because there is no access to schools (distance, no school at all). When there is access, the low quality of the education often makes attendance a waste of time for the students. Schools in many areas especially in backward districts and rural areas suffer from problems such as overcrowding, inadequate sanitation and apathetic teachers. As a result, parents may find no use in sending their children to school when they could be home learning a skill (for example, agriculture) and supplementing the family income. Because parents have so much control over their children, their perception of the value of school is a main determinant of child attendance. Parents who are educated understand the importance of schooling; therefore they are more willing to send their children to schools.

Traditional factors are also important. The established female role in our country dictates that women will not fit into traditional roles if they become educated. Our social structure, caste system also perpetuates the problem. For example, people of lower castes are expected to perform manual labor and therefore are more apt not to attend school.

Rapid rural-to-urban migration is the cause for the increasing rate of child labor in urban areas. Families leave the severity of agricultural working conditions for cities in order to search for economic opportunities that often do not exist. As result bad economic situation force children and their families into urban poverty; children are soon required to work.

UP is a vast state with a lot of socio-economic diversity, and disparity therefore, a wide range of variations in the incidence of child labours have been observed in the state. It has been noticed that over the decade the child work participation rate has declined. It was 4.59 percent in 1981 which decreased to 3.97 percent in 1991. The highest participation rate in 1981 was in Tehrigarhwal with 15 percent and lowest in Etawah, Kanpur and Bulandshahar with 2 percent each.

In 1991, Banda has highest proportion of working child (i.e. 8.32 percent) whereas Tehrigarhwal performed very well and improved its position as the percentage of child workers over the decade had declined drastically from 15 percent in 1981 to 6.24 percent in 1991. Mainpuri has lowest child participation rate of 1.59 percent.

The situation in Banda remained bad as it maintained high percentage of child labour during 1981-1991. On the other hand percentage of child labour remained low and further declined in Mainpuri, Etawah and Kanpur. Although most of districts experienced a declining rate of child labours, Nainital, Muzaffarnagar, Jalaun, Ghaziabad and Bulandshahar showed increased rate of child labours.

As pointed out in the chapter two, the girl child participation rate has increased during the decade. In 1991 it rose to 2.57 percent from 2.16 percent in 1981. The problem of girl child labour is more acute than the boy child labour, studies have revealed that the girl children are largely engaged in running the households from a very early age. Their nature of work includes collection of fuel, fetching water and looking after the younger siblings. Traditional socio-economic factors play a major role in

deciding the work pattern of girls. As a matter of fact, despite some improvement in female condition the sons continue to play a dominant role in all aspect of life. Adverse sex ratios, female infanticide, deliberate negligence of girl child in the younger age, lower nutritional and educational status and even the nature of works performed by the girls are some of the indicators which shows discrimination against girls. School attendance of girls is far less than the boys, even the dropout rate of girl is more than that of boys. These factors lead to higher incidence of girl child labour.

This study shows that incidence of full-time child labour in UP has been declining in the decade but continues to be an overwhelmingly rural phenomena. There is preponderance of rural boys still working within the family modes of employment. Numerically, a large segment of rural girls are in *nowhere* category. Those employed as child workers are also mainly in the family modes of employment.

The child work participation rate is much higher in the rural areas, although it declined to 88.22 percent from 90.79 percent in 1981. Most of these child labour are engaged in the primary sector. In 1991, the highest proportion of child workers in rural is in Pithoragarh, 99.16 percent; the lowest percentage is in Lucknow, 51.96 percent. The districts which has higher percentage of child labour in rural areas are Uttarkashi, Chamoli, Tehrigarhwal, Garhwal, Pithoragarh, Almora, Nainital, Budaun, Mainpuri, Fatehpur, Allahabad, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Banda, Kheri, Sitapur, Unnao, Raebareli, Bahraich, Gonda, Barabanki, Faizabad, Sultanpur, Basti, Pratapgarh, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Azamgarh, Jaunpur, Ballia, Ghazipur, Mirzapur. On the other hand the districts having marginally lower percentage of child labour in rural areas Lucknow, Agra, Ghaziabad and Kanpur.

The study of the sectoral distribution of child labour in 1991 census reveals that 80.43 percent of the total child labourers are engaged in the agricultural sector, and only 19.57 percent are in the industrial sector. The district with highest percentage of child labour in agricultural sector is in Tehrigarhwal 96.18 percent and lowest is in Hamirpur

29.30 percent. In Hamirpur, Varanasi and Pilibhit the child labour share is higher in industrial sector than that of the agricultural sector.

The study of educational aspects and working status of the child labour in chapter two reveals that the proportion of children both working and attending school is very low in all the districts. It was 3.19 percent in 1981, which decreased to 2.03 percent in 1991. In 1991, highest proportion of such children is in Lucknow 10.46 percent and lowest in Muzaffarnagar 0.38 percent.

The proportion of such children who working and not attending is very high and further increased to 97.97 percent in 1991 as against 96.91 percent in 1981. Moreover, “no where” children who were neither working nor attending school is also very high. It was 63.76 percent in 1981 which reduced to 61.55 percent in 1991.

Most of the children are engaged in main worker category. In 1991, 81.04 percent are in main worker category and 18.96 percent in marginal category. Boys are mainly engaged in main worker category. 92.45 percent of the boys are engaged in main worker category as against only 54.34 percent among the girls. Thus girls constitute the majority in marginal work category with 45.66 percent as against 7.55 percent of the boys are engaged in this category

Despite the laws and measures dealing with child labour, the stark reality is that children are exploited lot. In the fourth chapter, a brief history of various legislative acts regarding child labour have been discussed beginning with the Factories Act, 1881, which prescribed the minimum age for employment and fixed working hours for children employed in a factory. Since then the legislative history has come a long way till the enactment of child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986. However this act is not very comprehensive as it exempts from prohibition over 90 per cent of child labour in India. This Act also fails to meet the ILO guideline concerning the minimum age of employment set at fifteen years of age.

Although, the Constitution of India clearly states that child labour is wrong and that measures should be taken to end it. But No concrete efforts have been made at the national or state level to withdraw from hazardous employment except a comprehensive National Child Labour Policy in 1987, which provided a broad framework for tackling the issue of child labour through legislative action plan, general programmes and project oriented action plan in areas prone to child labour. However, the children are still employed because the legal measures are cleverly violated and bypassed by the employers due to weak law enforcing machinery at different levels.

Fourth chapter indicates that although policies are in place that could potentially reduce the incidence of child labour, enforcement is a problem. If child labour is to be eradicated, the government and those responsible for enforcement need to start doing their jobs. Policies can and will be developed concerning child labour, but without enforcement they are all useless.

Efforts of the Government of India in establishing a National Authority for the Elimination of Child Labour created machinery for co-ordination among nine major Ministries of the federal government are important steps in the right direction. However, the fragmentary nature of our approach to different facets of child welfare, rural education, rural development and child labour policies at the local level needs to be recognised and machinery for a co-ordinated effort at the village level has to be put in place. Without such a co-ordinated effort, we can not successfully deal with the issues of child development of which child labour is a part. On the broader developmental front, successful rural development strategy demands ensuring that the foundational building blocks of human resource development are created effectively.

Over the past decade, the issue of child labour has risen to prominence on the international agenda. To examine the role and work done by various international agencies was one of the objectives of the study.

An increase in the number of organizations dedicated to the elimination of child labour, public debate and media attention, industry-based initiatives such as “codes of conduct” and social labeling schemes are all responses to growing awareness that the exploitation of children’s labour is a violation of their most basic human rights.

Mobilization at the global level is emerging as a significant force. Consumer groups, human rights and child-centered NGOs, trade unions and employers have organized diverse efforts around the common goal of protecting children from exploitative child work. These global initiatives have raised awareness about the complex problem and are contributing to an international climate that is conducive to action on behalf of working children.

Growing voluntary movements of both consumer groups and segments of the corporate sector have gained momentum in recent years in both Europe and North America. There have also been efforts to insert a social clause, prescribing international sanctions against countries that violate basic human and labour rights, including the use of child workers, in international trade agreements through the World Trade Organization.

Organized labour has been particularly strong in this area, viewing the social clause as one of the most effective strategies to combat child labour. However, developing countries including India are very much apprehensive to such effort. There is fear among them that these can prove to be neo- non tariff barriers to the international trade. Moreover, such move can actually worsen the condition of child labour as just banning the child labour without providing rehabilitation and support may force them in to worst kind of activities like child prostitution.

The growing global concern about children exposed to exploitation has also found expression in the various conventions passed by two of the most relevant intergovernmental agencies, the ILO and UNICEF.

The virtually universal ratification of the CRC, linked to an effective implementation and reporting process, has provided both a new global impetus and perspective. Although most of these initiatives were independently conceived and carried out, their cumulative effect has been to make child labour one of the dominant issues of our time.

Policy Implications

The study brings out a number of patterns of policy interest observable in the dynamics of child labour in India at the national and the state levels. Firstly, the subset of child population defined as child labour in 1986 Act is small and declining, contrary to the alarmist view being projected in the media in India and overseas. In absolute terms, the total number is less than 10 million children with a labour force participation rate of less than 5 per cent. Urban, industrial child labour which is focus of global interest and rural wage based non-agricultural child labour combined is about one million children. In case of Uttar Pradesh, child work participation rate was 3.97 percent in 1991.

Secondly, variations across states in the incidence of child labour and its rates of decline over the last three decades are rather large. States like Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab are leading in substantially reducing the incidence of child labour while others like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh continue to have a rather sluggish decline though variability among laggards also is quite substantial. Within Uttar Pradesh also there are lots of variations in the incidence of child labour. For instance, highest was in Banda 8.32 percent, followed by Nainital 7.47 percent, Uttarkashi 7.43 percent. And the lowest proportion was in Mainpuri 1.59 percent and Kanpur 1.67 percent. In UP child worker proportion has decreased to 3.97 percent from 4.59 during the decade 1981-91.

Thirdly, there is a huge gender bias in the incidence of child labour. In urban areas, there are more boys than girls work as child labourer. Though in percentage terms, these are substantially lower than in rural areas. In rural India, the proportion of boys

working as child labourers has declined from over 10 per cent in 1961 to over 5 per cent in 1991.

The gender difference is substantially larger in the states of the northern India but relatively smaller in the rest of India. A large majority of girls still work within the agricultural sector of rural India. Same is true for Uttar Pradesh also.

Fourthly, incidence of child labour disaggregated into different occupational classifications suggests that almost 80 per cent Indian child labourers are working in the agricultural sector. Of the remaining 20 per cent, less than 6 per cent work in industrial activities which are the centre of attention for the elimination of child labour from developed countries. In Uttar Pradesh, 80.43 percent of the total child labourers are engaged in the agricultural sector, and only 19.57 percent are in the industrial sector.

Fifthly, incidence of child labour is only a small fraction of the proportion of child population which is stifled in India. A much larger subset of deprived children, those who are neither in schools nor in labour force namely *nowhere children*, consist of over 90 million children in 1991. Such children accounted for 61.55 percent of total children in Uttar Pradesh.

For policy-makers the challenge should be not only to eliminate the child labour but elimination of children's deprivation. Combining the two, the number of children who ought to have received priority attention in 1991 is much larger. Gender bias in this also is very large. Thus we need to expand schooling facilities to accommodate additional boys and girls who will be released from child labour. A substantial number of this expansion has to be in the rural areas of the backward districts.

Lastly, despite the staggering numbers, situation in state is far from hopeless. The positive examples of the districts with declining proportion of children in labour force suggest that exemplars are within state.

At the community level, with a degree of socio-political urgency, the problem can be handled within one generation with a major shift in public policies on child development, of which child labour policies are a sub-set. The cost of doing nothing would be enormous. In that case, in the year 2010, India would have the dubious distinction of having world's largest concentration of illiterate workers of all ages with rather poor capacity to deal with the technology of a globally integrated and highly exploited Indian economy and a major chunk will belong to UP. Much brighter scenarios are feasible and ought to be the core of our policy agenda.

Developing a Strategy to eradicate child labour

The problem of child labour is multidimensional and multifaceted. In order to eliminate the problem of child labour an integrated approach is required. The following action priorities can be adopted for the child labour eradication:

Free, accessible and good quality education for all is a key tool in preventing all forms of child labour including the worst forms. Elimination of child labour is closely linked with "Education for All". But the children already abused in the worst forms of child labour can not wait for the system to be established. They must be provided relief immediately on a priority basis.

Even when the school system is in place, children can not easily leave the workplace and enter the workplace. Non-formal education is therefore an indispensable tool in the rehabilitation of former child workers. But it can not be used in isolation. First of all, children removed from the worst forms of child labour will often need extensive help to rebuild their self-confidence and social skills. Secondly, reading and writing alone seldom opens the door to the labour market, so literacy must be combined with skills training for those children who for some reason or the other can not enter the formal system after rehabilitation. Third, income substitution in some form will often be necessary in cases where the child provided a substantial part of the family income.

The state of education in UP also needs to be improved. High illiteracy and dropout rates are reflective of the inadequacy of the educational system. Poverty plays a role in the ineffectiveness of the educational system. Dropout rates are high because children are forced to work in order to support their families. The attitudes of the people also contribute to the lack of enrollment -- parents feel that work develops skills that can be used to earn an income, while education does not help in this matter. Compulsory education may help in regard to these attitudes. The example of Kerala shows that compulsory education has worked in those areas. India is making progress in terms of educational policy as well as improvement in the literacy rate. The results of 2001 are quite impressive and it can be hoped there will be corresponding decline in the incidence of the child labour too. The literacy rate in UP also improved to 57.36 percent in 2001 from poor 41.6 percent in 1991. However there is need of further improvement especially female literacy rate which is still 42.98 percent. There is need of better implementation of ongoing education programmes for instance, if the DPEP which is undergoing in 54 districts of UP is implemented properly then it will be a great step in achieving universal education, and eradicating child labour.

Vocational, pre-vocational and skills training has a crucial role to play in rehabilitation of former child workers. But from this we can also draw important conclusions on what content is necessary in universal education, if it is to function effectively as prevention of child labour. "Education For All" should lead to Decent Work for Men and Women.

The strategic use of mass communication channels and the involvement of journalists and other communicators can be critical to spreading ideas and creating new social norms conducive to human rights to a large population, in a short period of time. Local and national media can be utilized to promote awareness of the problem and to mobilize the widest possible support for the initiatives undertaken at all levels for the eradication of the worst forms of child labour and for the welfare of underprivileged children. Rallies, demonstrations, conferences and seminars etc can be used for the purpose. Traditional and innovative methods, such as theatre, dance, and music, to reach out to vulnerable groups, including parents and child labourers can be also used.

Legislation has been able to control child labor in the formal sector to some degree. As a result, child labor is most prevalent in the highly unmonitored, informal and rural sectors. Because much of child labor is either in the informal sector or illegal, there is a lack of accurate data on this subject. Further quantification is necessary in order to learn more about this problem. The lack of enforcement of labor restrictions perpetuates child labor.

There has been a great deal of attention on 'hazardous' work by children. The Child Labour Prohibition and Regulation Act 1986 listed 18 industries as hazardous and banned the employment of children in them. A further list of 35 industries has been notified during 1998. There may cover less than 20% of child workers. This focus tends to divert attention from the thousands of children who are in occupations not listed, such as domestic service. There are large numbers of children in domestic service but they are among the most invisible child labourers and are therefore difficult to survey and analyse. Child domestics are often ignored by policy-makers and excluded from the coverage of legislation.

However, all occupations can be hazardous given the age of the child, lack of safety measures, and the callous attitude of employers. Most programmes whether by Governments or NGOs tend to be for children engaged in most hazardous activities. So majority of child labourers engaged in domestic services and other unorganized service largely left unattended. Therefore there is need of comprehensive legislation on child labour covering all types of child labour although priority can be given to worst form of child labour. Needless to say, such laws should enforce properly, if we want to have a future without child labour.

If a goal of to decrease the supply of child labour, that must happen at the source: the family. There is need of family empowerment. The families need to be enabled to protect and provide for their children. If families are to understand that child labour is a contributing problem and not a solution to poverty, they must be supported to find solutions that include increased family income and purchasing power. To better understand the harmful long-term impact of child labour on the well-being of the child

and the family, families must also be in a position to demand quality education for their children and make use of opportunities that will enable them to keep their children away from harmful work and in school. With social support and assistance, there is all possibility that families will become campaigners against child labour and supporters of education when they perceive its relevance and its importance.

Educating children and their families about the dangers and risks involved in child labour in relation to their health, safety and development is also very important. The education of children about their rights and child labour problems should be integrated within the curriculum of all formal and non-formal education.

The problem of child labour cannot be solved with out the participation of children. They have their own analysis of society; they have their own strategies not only for survival but also their conditions of work, their conditions in life. Therefore we also must take their views and suggestion in to account while formulating any strategy for the child labour eradication.

Civil society organizations and other local institutions and actors can work together with local governmental authorities to change attitudes and practices. Dialogue and negotiation can be encouraged by creating or strengthening indigenous community groups where families have a safe space to examine their own practices and develop ideas for change.

In our society, women and girls face discrimination in access to health, education, employment and in all other areas. In addition, they are victims of some oppressive and rigid customs and traditions that perpetuate their disadvantage. Women lag behind men in regard to education, literacy, health, and persons living in absolute poverty. All these factors lead to more vulnerable conditions for the girl child labourers. There fore there is need for special focus on girl child workers.

Similarly there is need of elimination of caste system which hampers the efforts to eradicate child labour. NGOs, Civil society organizations and other local institutions and actors can play important in this area.

If the appropriate role of government is to create conditions for the fulfillment of citizens' aspirations, it is most often the role of NGOs and civil society organizations to help strengthen communities' capacities to articulate their claims and make their demands known. Where powerful economic or political interests may resist the elimination of child labour, NGOs can create a countervailing public constituency that makes government action possible, even necessary. NGOs have, in fact, led the movement against child labour and promoted principles of child rights over the past several decades. Awareness raising or other social mobilization activities are frequently an integral part of their work. NGOs can also expose child labour abuse; and monitor follow-up action taken by the respective authorities

A key challenge is not only to learn from and replicate experience, but to build networks, to share information, widen awareness, and more importantly increase pressure on government leaders to perform their policy making, legislative, and supportive role in addressing child labour. The London-based Child Rights Information Network is a good example of the type of coalition building in which NGOs need to engage.

The fifth Chapter which review the work done by various agencies, Intergovernmental, Governmental as well as Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in the field of child labour eradication clearly highlight the need of better coordination among these agencies especially at local level. This study indicated wide reach of local NGOs which are present in the almost all the districts of Uttar Pradesh. They can be very useful in eradication of child labour provided they are better equipped, trained and supported by government and international agencies to meet the challenge of child labour eradication. Moreover, there is need of a regulatory framework to check the spurious NGOs which exist in plenty in the state.

Promoting productive employment for youth is closely linked to the abolition of child labour in two main ways. First, the general prospect of future unemployment or underemployment discourages children and their parents from investing in education and skills training, thus helping to perpetuate child labour among younger children. Second, the lack of decent work opportunities for young people leaving school and entering the labour market for the first time means they may fall prey to unprotected, hazardous work, thus themselves becoming child labourers.

Creating a broad social alliance is a necessary condition for the elimination of child labour. It must reach from the highest levels of global power and influence to the hardest to reach, poorest and most powerless communities and families. This includes all branches and levels of government; civil society organizations, employers and trade unions, consumer groups, the media, families, children, teachers, health professionals, social workers and street educators.

It would be more appropriate to deal with the issue in wider spectrum and broader perspective. Development schemes must be evolved and implemented specially for the parents of child labour with a view to make the families economically sound and in turn it will pave the way to withdrawing of children from hazardous occupations. Greater amount of public awareness is to be created besides addressing to the basic needs. Both Government agencies and NGOs learn to work together and focus attention in the direction of possible elimination of child workers from hazardous occupations. Rights of children must be protected and silent dehumanization is to be averted. Besides, there must be some amount of political will to tackle this social evil and ensure just society and thereby fulfilling the constitutional obligations. Finally solution to the problem of child labour lies in Universalisation of primary Education (UPE) in its letter and spirit with the intention of ensuring balanced human resource development in the contemporary Indian society.

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Category wise web-site addresses on child labour and related issues

Child Labour - Main UN Agencies

Name of Organization and Website address

1. International Labour Organization (ILO): <http://www.ilo.org/childlabour>
2. ILO Child Labour Homepage <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/comp/child/>
3. UNICEF Child Labor Links Page <http://unicef.org/aclabor/explore.htm>
4. UNICEF <http://www.unicef.org/>
5. UNICEF & CRC, Translating Principles into Law
<http://www.unicef.org/pon96/cotransl.htm>
6. UNICEF, Child Labor Information
<http://www.unicefusa.org/issues97/jan97/labor.html>
7. UNICEF, Philippines <http://www.unicef.org/philippines>
8. UNICEF International Child Development Centre, Florence, Italy
<http://www.unicef-icdc.org/>
9. UN High Commissioner for Human Rights <http://www.unhchr.ch/>
10. United Nations Optical Disk System <http://www.ods.un.org/>
11. Public Information <http://www.un.org/>
12. United Nations Gopher www.ipl.org/ref/RR/static/law20.60.00.html
13. World Bank http://www.worldbank.org/html/hcovp/workp/%20wp_00056.html

Child Labour - Other Organizations

1. Save the Children Fund (UK) <http://www.oneworld.org/scf/>
2. Anti Slavery International <http://www.antislavery.org/>
3. Child Workers in Asia (CWA) <http://www.cwa.tnet.co.th/>
4. Global March <http://www.globalmarch.org/>
5. Childnet International <http://www.childnet-int.org/>
6. Child Rights information Network <http://www.crin.org/>
7. Free the Children <http://www.freethechildren.org/>
8. Women for Social Progress <http://www.wirc.mn/ngo/ngo26.htm>

9. Institute for Labor Studies <http://www.info.com.ph/~ilsdole/ilsdole.htm>
10. International Child Labor Study Office
http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/lib/bookshelf/e_archive/ChildLabor/
11. Global March Against Child Labor
<http://www.globalmarch-us.org/issues.htm>
12. NCL's Crusade Against Child Labor <http://www.stopchildlabor.org/>
13. Child Labour @ SCF
http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/functions/wedo/pubs_clab.html
14. Human Rights Watch World Report <http://hrw.org/research/worldreport.html>
15. Coalition to Fight Against Child Exploitation
<http://www.capcat.ksc.net/org/face.html>
16. Child Labour Resource Guide
<http://vocserve.berkeley.edu/CenterFocus/CF8guide.html>
17. Child Labour in India
<http://www.geocities.com/CollegePark/Library/9175/inquiry1.htm>
18. Department for International Development <http://www.dfid.gov.uk/>
19. Child Labor Resources <http://www.osjspm.org/sweatshp.htm>
20. Peace Trust <http://www.peacetrust.org.in/>
21. Child Labour <http://www.globalmarch.org/>
22. South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude <http://www.saccsweb.org/>
23. Educational International <http://www.ei-ie.org/>
24. Christian Aid <http://www.christian-aid.org.uk/>
25. International Confederation of Free Trade Unions <http://www.lo.dk/>
26. Government of India, Labour Ministry <http://labour.nic.in>

Child Sexual Exploitation/Trafficking in Children

1. International Labour Organization (ILO) <http://www.ilo.org/>
2. Save the Children Fund (UK) <http://www.oneworld.org/scf/>
3. Global Alliance Against Trafficking in women
<http://www.inet.co.th/org/gaatw>
4. Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children
<http://www.un.org/Depts/Treaty/>

Slavery/Child Servitude

1. Anti Slavery International <http://www.antislavery.org/>
2. American Anti Slavery Group <http://www.iabolish.com/>
3. Free The Slaves <http://www.freetheslaves.net/>

Homeless Children and Street Kids

1. European Network on Street Children Worldwide
<http://www.hri.ca/children/reports/index.shtml>
2. Street Kids International <http://www.streetkids.org/>
3. Street Kid-L Resource Page <http://www.jbu.edu/>
4. UNESCO <http://www.unesco.org/>
5. Habitat II: UN Conference on Human Settlements, Istanbul 1996
<http://www.undp.org/un/habitat/>
6. Cities and Children <http://www.unicef.org/voy/meeting/urb/urbhome.html>

Journal with Relevance to Children

1. Child Development Abstracts and Bibliography Online Edition
<http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/CDAB/home.html>
2. Child Maltreatment
<http://www.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/cb/publications/cm99/>
3. Global Journal of Child Research
<http://www.sagepub.co.uk/journals/Details/jc0077.html>
4. Future of Children <http://www.futureofchildren.org/>

