CHILD WORK FORCE IN INDIA — A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

Dissertation submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

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1981

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"Child Work Force in India - A Preliminary
Analysis' submitted by Parveen Kumar Nangia in
fulfilment of six credits out of the total
requirements of twenty-four credits for the
Degree of Master of Philosophy (M.Phil) of the
University is a bonafide work to the best of
my knowledge and may be placed before the
examiners for their consideration.

Supervisor

Chairman 8 6.81.

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ACKNOWL DGLILINTS

My thanks are due to the Centre for the Study of Regional Development which gave me an opportunity to work under the guidance of Prof. Asok Mitra, who, despite his busy schedule, supervised my work thoroughly and provided me his valuable suggestions. I am highly grateful to him. I am also grateful to Prof. Loonis Raza and Dr. Sudesh Mangia for giving me an opportunity to work in the 'Child Atlas Project' and allowing me to utilise its data and maps for this research. Constant encouragement by Dr. S. Nangia and frequent discussions with her proved to be very fruitful. I also express my thanks to Dr. S. Srivastava, Ar. J. S. Rastogi and Mr. O. P. Batra for the help they provided me in the collection of data and to hr. Murli Dhar for the computation work. I am grateful to Dr. G. K. Chaddha who helped me in the understanding of the statistical techniques and the interpretation of the computer results. I shall fail in my duty if I do not express my thanks to my project colleagues, especially to hr. T. J. Acharya and Er. Om Butt Tyagi who provided no cortographic assistance and to Hiss Ritu Lhingra, Er. Dhajon Lal and Mr. Padam Singh for a variety of help they provided from time to time. I am theo the natural to my friends har. Sachidanand Sinke, Ar. H. H. Qasmi and Mr. Anil Bahuguna

for a number of result oriented discussions. My thanks are also to Lr. Chinmay Noth for preparing the photo copies of the maps and to Lrs. Kunjarma Verghese and Mr. George Verghese for the pains they took in typing the script. Last, but not the least, I am grateful to Prof. G. S. Bhalla, the Chairman, Centre for the Study of Regional Development, for solving my administrative and technical problems relate to M.Phil dissertation.

Parveen Nangia

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SECTION-I - INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION TO THE TOPIC

(a) Child Labour:

There is no uniform definition of a child. generally, persons below the age of fifteen years are considered children and from 12 to 17 or 18 years as adolescents. Adolescence is a biological phenomenon which varies from person to person. As the universally accepted method of dividing the age cohorts is 5 years interval, i.e. 0-4, 5-9, 10-14, 15-19 and so on, we find it easier for numerical measures to define a child upto the age of 14 and an adolescent to be in the age group 15-19. Keeping this in view the age group 0-14 has been here called child. (However, for different pieces of legislation, the child has been defined differently from state to state. The Acts which have been formulated to prevent the exploitation of the young define a child as a person under 16 years in Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Punjab, under 18 years in Saurashtra and West Bengal, under 16 years in Telangana but under 14 years in the rest of In the Union Territories, a boy is defined Andhra Pradesh. as a child if he is under 16 years and a girl if she is under 18 years. In States such as Nagaland, Orissa,

Sikkim and Tripura, children's legislation have yet to be enacted.

The work which is imposed upon a child is often dictated by the needs of his family, under exploitative conditions that call for greater physical and mental resources than the child possesses. This is called child labour. It is monotonous, strenuous, harmful and unduly prolonged. It is a source of worry and inevitably implies the lack of schooling, relaxation and general well-being of the child. This is the fate of both self-employed and wage-earning children, who grow up prematurely in misery, instead of leading a carefree existence in an atmosphere of study, companionship and play during what should be the happiest days of their lives. ²

*On scientific grounds it can be asserted that work as a direct fulfilment of the child's natural abilities and creative potentialities is always conducive to his healthy growth. But work when taken up as a means for the fulfilment of some other needs becomes enslaving in character and deliterious in its impact. Labour is the work of the latter type irrespective of the degree of strain involved in it. When the basic

^{1.} UNICEF, Child in India, 1979.

^{2.} Mendelievich, Elias (ed.), Children at Work, International Labour Office, Geneva, 1979, pp.3-4.

attributes of work, i.e. purpose, plan and freedom are conspicuously absent, it becomes labour. Labour in case of the child, especially, is harmful because the energy that should have been spent on the nurturing of his latent powers is consumed for purposes of his survival Child labour thus assumes the character of a social problem in as much as it hinders. arrests or distorts the natural growth processes and prevents the child from attaining his full-blown manhood. Premature hard-labour by the children not only reduces their physical vigour and energy but also aggravates defects and ailments in them, e.g. throat and lung infections, cardiac weakness, nervous problems In one sentence it can be said that the child labour is *economically unsound, psychologically disastrous and physically as well as morally dangerous and harmful. 4

(b) Origin of Child Labour:

Child labour is not a new phenomenon. It has existed in one form or the other since historical time in all the societies of the world. It is only in the present age that people have started perceiving it as a social problem.

^{3.} Singh, Musafirs Kaura, V.D. and Khan, S.A.; Working Children in Bombay - A Study, National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development, New Delhi, 1980, pp.1-2.

^{4.} Ibid., p.9

In the past, joint and extended family systems were the main institutions of Indian society. In such an atmosphere the child was viewed with tender feelings and treated with warmth, and compassion. The school based education was a rare phenomenon in the olden days and was confined only to the privileged classes of the society. Generally, children learnt in the family and through work. They first joined the elders out of their curiosity and then developed interest in it and derived pleasure out of it. They learnt the adult roles smoothly, almost unconciously through observation and association. There was no threshold of occupational entrance. Their transition on the occupational continuum was gradual, progressing from simpler to more complex tasks with the acquisition of physical and intellectual maturity. Agriculture and agriculture-based crafts and trades were all family enterprises and the child participated in them as a helper or an apprentice. 5 As, at that time, the child worked under the direct guidance of his parents or master craftsman, therefore, his work was a sort of wocational training and not of the exploitative nature. Such work did not deprive him of his physical and mental growth, rather it inculcated in him a positive self-image by preparing him to assume adult role in future.

^{5.} Ibid., p.2

With increasing urbanization and industrialization the whole social scenario changes. The joint families, which are more capable of providing social and economic security, start disintegrating. Everyone in the family has to struggle hard to survive. industrial revolution in the West created such vast demands for jobs that even children had to be pressed into service. The exploitative nature of the elite societies compelled children to participate in the labour force in these countries also which were under their domain. Earlier, the work which was done by the child to learn something under the protection of his parents, now had to be done for his or his family's sheer survival without enjoying the benevolent protection of his guardians. Many a times he had to work at a distance quite away from his home in an atmosphere which was totally alien to him. Generally, he is exposed to the health hazards and is treated in an inhuman way. Sometimes such opressions generate in him the anti-social feelings and convert him into a delinguent. Therefore, the proper caring of the children is essential not only for themselves but for the society as a whole.

Realising the child labour as a social evil, the International Labour Organization enunciated several welfare measures which were embodied in its

several conventions and recommendations. These conventions have been ratified and adopted by many of the member countries of ILO, especially the developed countries, but several underdeveloped countries like India, have not been able to adopt many of such conventions because of their social and economic set up which was distorted by their colonial past. The result is that in these countries the children are kept deprived of the basic amenities like education, nutritional food, medical facilities etc.

(c) Definition of a Worker:

In the 1961 Census, 'work' implied the 'production of economic goods or services either for consumption or for sale or for exchange." The basis of work was determined differently in different types of industrial categories. 'In several works like cultivation, livestock, dairying, household industry etc., it was some regular work of more than one hour a day throughout the greater part of the working season. In regular employment in any trade, prefession, service, business or commerce (a person) should have been employed during any of the fifteen days preceeding the day of enumeration. '7

^{6.} Mitra, Asok, Lalit Pathak, Shekhar Hukherji; , The Status of Women: Shifts in Occupational Participation, 1961-71.

^{7.} Ibid.

In 1971 there was a little change in the Census definition of work. As given in economic tables and quoted by Mitra, A. et.al. 'work' implied *participation in any economically productive work by physical or mental activity. *8 The basis of work had also undergone some change by this time. Here, in certain works which are "carried on throughout the year such as cultivation, livestock keeping, plantation work, some type of household industry etc., a person's main activity should be ascertained with reference to such work in the last one year even if he was not economically active in the week prior to enumeration.... The reference period is one week prior to the date of enumeration in the case of regular work in trade, profession, service or business. 9 In both these censuses 'work' included 'not only actual work but effective supervision and direction of work. 10

The persons who were engaged in other house-hold duties and who were performing only marginally in the economic activities, not as full timers, were considered as non-workers. Beggars, pensioners, rent-receivers, prostitutes, students and persons doing household duties etc. fall in this category.

^{8.} Ibid.

^{9.} Ibid.

^{10.} Ibid.

2. IETHODOLOGY

It has been tried to establish a causal relation—ship between the economically active children and the socio—economic factors which play a responsible role in pushing these children in the work force. As the data for most of these indicators are not available at the district level, therefore, this analysis has been done at the State level only. The following indicators have been used in this study — percentage of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children, literacy rates, school coverage, schooling facilities, student—teacher ratio, wastage rates, population below the poverty line, married children, orphans, crude birth rate, crude death rate and expectation of life at birth.

At first, the correlations have been worked out between the percentage of working children and the above mentioned indicators taking them one by one. At the second stage, the stepwise regression exercise has been done. The indicators have been used in the following form.

(i) Scheduled Children:

The number of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children has been added and their percentage share has been seen in the total child population.

(ii) Literacy Rates:

The literacy rates of the total population, excluding 0-4 age group and children in the age group 0-14 have been calculated.

(iii) School Coverage:

The school coverage or the average area covered by a school has been derived at after dividing the total area of the State by the total number of the schools.

(iv) Schooling Facilities:

Schooling facilities is the number of schools per thousand of the population.

(v) Student-Teacher Ratio:

Student-teacher ratio is the number of students per teacher.

(vi) Wastage Rates:

The students who drop out from the school or who fail are considered to have gone waste. It has been seen what percentage of students goes waste over their school span of eight years (class I to VIII). As the work force data is of 1971, therefore, the data for the students in class I has been collected for the year 1964-65, to check how many of them must have gone waste by the time they reach class VIII in 1971-72.

The 'Life Tables' gives us the probability of dying at each age. Normally a child in class I is of 6 years age. Thus, if we multiply the enrolement of class I with the probability of dying at the age 6. we get the number of deaths of students from the age 6 to 7. When we subtract this mortality from the enrolement of class I, we get an estimate of enrolement in class II in the next year. As now these children are 7 years old, we apply the probability of dying at age 7. The number of these deaths is subtracted from the estimated enrolement of class II to get the prospective enrolement in class III next year. We keep on doing this till we get the prospective enrolement in class VIII in the academic year 1971-72. Mathematically this formula can be expressed as

$$E_{i} - E_{i} P_{i+5} = E_{i+1}$$
(i = 1, 2, 7).

where R_i is the enrolement in class i and

P is the probability of dying at the age 5+i as age i varies from 1 to 7.

Once we get the prospective enrolement in class VIII, it becomes easier to find out the wastage rates. We also take the actual enrolement in class VIII in the same year, i.e. 1971-72. By using the following formula we get the wastage rates.

Prospective Actual
Enrolement Enrolement
in class VIII - in class VIII
in 1971-72 in 1971-72

Prospective Enrolement in class

VIII (1971-72)

Wastage Rate = (Appendix Table-2)

(vii) Population below the poverty line:

This indicator is already available in the percentage form, i.e. the percentage of population below the poverty line.

(viii) Married Children:

The percentage of married children to total child population has been considered for this exercise.

(ix) Orphans:

The percentage of orphans in the child population has been taken separately for paternal, maternal and combined orphans.

(x) Birth rate and death rate, per 1000 persons have been taken into account.

The percentage values of the above mentioned indicators have been used to find out the correlation of child labour with these factors. A stepwise regression exercise has also been done with some of these variables for which absolute values could be obtained.

For map making choropleth technique has been adopted for most of the maps. Pie diagrams and bar diagrams have also been used for the purpose.

3. DATA BASE:

Depending upon the work to be done, the data have been collected from different sources. The data for the working children are collected from the General Economic Tables, Part II-B(i), publications of the Census of India, 1961 and 1971.

The data for scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children are obtained from the special tables for scheduled led castes, Part V A(i) and special tables for scheduled tribes, Part V A(ii) for the years 1961 and 1971, both published by Census of India.

For literacy rates, the data are available in the Literacy Statistics at a Glance, Directorate of Adult Education, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Govt. of India, New Delhi, 1979.

To find out the average area covered by a school the area statistics have been taken from the General Population Tables Part II A, Census of India, 1971 and the number of schools from the Third All India Educational Survey, NC RT, 1973.

The total population figures used for the indicator on schooling facilities per thousand population, have been taken from General Population Tables, 1971.

The data for student-teacher ratio have been obtained from Education in India, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Govt. of India, 1972-73.

The data for population below the poverty line have been procured from the mimeograph of UNICEF Conference on 'An Analysis of the Situation of Children in India. 1980.'

For married children the data are available in the Social and Cultural Tables, Part II C(ii), Census of India, 1971.

For orphan children the figures have been collected from Pathak et.al. 'Projections of Orphan Children in India: 1971-1991' in Srinivasan et.al. (Ad.) Demographic and Socio-economic Aspects of the child in India (pp.655-662).

The data on birth rate and death rate have been obtained from vital statistics of India, 1973, Office of the Registrar General, India, New Delhi.

For expectation of life at birth the data have been collected from the Year Book of Family Welfare Programme in India, 1978-79.

The data on children in the work force have been collected and analysed at the district level. For all the other variables the unit chosen is state level.

4. R_S_ARCH D_SIGN

This exercise has been attempted to understand the nature of child labour in India, child labour laws, a brief discription of demographic characteristics of child population, spatial variagion in the distribution

of child work force in primary, secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy and the male-female and rural-urban participation rates of the child work force.

The exercise has been designed in such a way so as to see the distribution of working children at the district level for the year 1961 and 1971. The participation of child workers in different sectors and their male-female and rural-urban ratios have been discussed for the year 1971 only. However, 1961-71 comparison has been made in the sectoral distribution of male, female, rural and urban child workers at the national level. This temporal variations in the working children has also been studied at the state level for all the nine industrial categories. Only 1971 data have been used to work out the regressions and correlations of child work force with different variables.

In the next section of this chapter, I shall discuss the demographic profile of the children in India in which I shall deal with the birth rate, death rate, growth rate, male-female, rural-urban and scheduled caste scheduled tribe distributions of the child population. This will create a background to the problem of child labour which would be easier to understand when we come to that section.

The next chapter provides a theoretical frame-work to the problem of child labour in the form of Literature Survey, formulation of hypotheses and child labour laws.

The 3rd chapter is focussed on the study of pattern of child work force in India. In the first part, the spatial and sectoral distribution of the working children in India is analysed both at the State as well as the district level. In the next section, the correlations and regression trends of a few selected variables related to child labour, have been discussed. This chapter also highlights some significant consequences of the child labour.

The last chapter gives a summary, suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of the situation of children in India.

SLCTION-II - DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILL OF THE CHILD IN HIDIA

India's population comprises one sixth of the total population of the world. If all the 1550 million children of the world were made to stand in a queue, then every sixth child will be an Indian. Thus 248

million children of India do not lag behind their elder population in comprising 16 per cent of their share in the world total. 11

In every one and a half second, a new child is born in India, thus making a total of 21 million births every year. If we subtract the annual total mortality of 8 million from this, we get a net increase of 13 million infants every year. If the 3.2 million deaths among the children per annum could be averted then the net share of the children in the total population would have been much higher. 12

Going back to the second decade of this century, we find that entire population of India was 252 million in 1911. But in 1977, the estimates showed the child population to reach at a level of 255 million, which is further expected to cross the level of 279 million, the recorded population in 1931 census, by the end of this century. 13

(a) Distribution:

The distribution of population and henceforth of the children, in different states and Union Territories

^{11.} The Population Reference Bureau Inc. 1976, World Population Data Sheet, Washington, D.C., 1977.

^{12. &}quot;The Child in India," (Document 3) The Indian Journal of Public Administration (edited by) T.N.Chaturvedi, July-Sept. 1979, vol.XXV, No.3, pp.922-30.

^{13.} UNICEF, New Delhi, International Year of the Child, 1979.

depends upon many factors. These factors can be classified as (i) geographical, (ii) economic, (iii) political, and (iv) social and demographic.

The geographical factors comprise of the area, terrain, climate, proximity of water bodies, soils, other physical resources and the space relationships among the different objects.

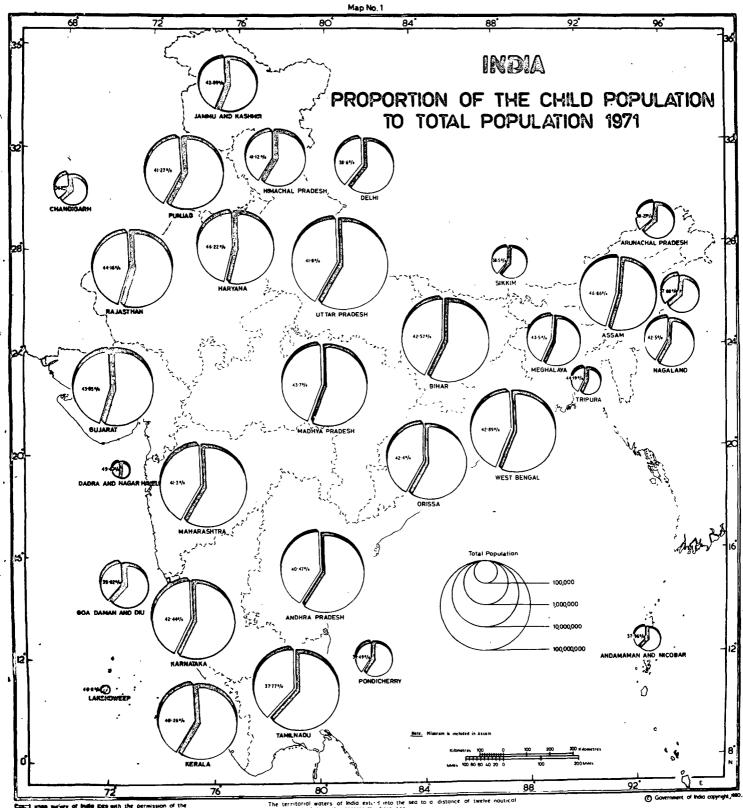
The economic factors include not only the economic activities but also the level of technology associated with them, the availability of goods and the costs of transportation.

The political factors are the special preferences given to the development of any area.

The social and cultural factors include the attitudes and aims of people, the forms of social organization and the objectives which the society seeks to attain. They also include the vulnerability of any society to accommodate a fresh group in it. The demographic factors comprise the different birth and death rates and the currents of migration which vary from area to area and from time to time.

(b) Proportion of the Child Population to Total Population:

In 1961, 40.99 per cent of the population of India was below 15 years of age. Assam had the highest proportion of children (44.81 per cent) followed by Dadra and Nagar Haveli (43.67 per cent). Among the States, the



miles measured from the appropriata base line.

The Boundary of Meghaloya shown on this map is as interpreted from the North-Eastern areas (Reorganisation) Act, 7771, But has yet to be verified.

the lowest proportion was in Tamilnadu, as 37.6 per cent and among the Union Territories in Andaman and Nicobar Islands as 36.27 per cent.

More population had become young in India in 1971, when children comprised 42.02 per cent of the population of the country. Assam retained its highest position by an addition of 2.05 per cent in its proportion of 1961, but was now followed by Haryana which had 46.22 per cent population below 15 years of age. Chandigarh, which was also a new addition in 1971 like Haryana, had the minimum proportion of the child population as 34.76 per cent, followed by Pondicherry, 37.55 per cent. Among the States Tamilnadu had maintained its lowest position by increasing its child population by a very small margin of 0.17 per cent.

(c) Male-Female Distribution:

In 1961, 40.89 per cent of the male population of India was counted as the child population, which increased to 41.86 per cent in 1971. Manipur had the youngest male population according to 1961 Census (43.83 per cent), and Andaman and Nicobar Islands had the oldest male population (29.8 per cent). The Islands of the Bay of Bengal maintained their lowest position by raising the male child population to 31.99 per cent, whereas the top position was replaced by Assam which now counted 46.46 per cent of the males as children.

Table-1.1 - Percentage of Child Population to Total Population

S.No.	State/Union	1961			1971		
	Territories	P	M	F	P	M	F
	INDIA	40.99	40.89	41.11	42.02	41.86	42.19
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21.	A. P. Assam(1) Bihar Gujarat Haryana(2) H.P. J & K Kerala M.P. Naharashtra Hanipur Meghalaya(3) Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamilnadu Tripura U.P. West Bengal	39.53 44.81 42.30 42.87 38.07 40.61 42.62 40.80 40.64 43.12 42.13 38.69 39.06 43.54 42.63 37.60 42.86 40.47 40.91	39.51 42.70 43.40 43.21 37.15 39.45 43.61 40.93 40.18 43.83 41.48 37.89 39.30 42.92 42.59 37.74 42.11 40.62 39.20	39.56 47.23 41.20 42.50 39.06 41.66 41.14 42.41 42.53 42.54 38.83 44.67 37.45 40.31 42.86	40 • 48 46 • 86 42 • 57 43 • 05 46 • 22 41 • 20 42 • 89 40 • 26 43 • 70 41 • 37 42 • 55 42 • 44 37 • 88 41 • 89 41 • 89	40.41 46.46 43.37 46.00 41.00 41.54 41.04 43.66 40.81 42.25 41.75 35.98 42.45 41.75 35.98 42.26 44.34 37.74 43.50 42.08 41.19	40.54 46.20 41.76 42.71 46.47 41.42 44.43 39.49 43.95 44.95 40.42 41.64 43.97 37.80 41.57 44.80
22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	A. & N. Islands Arunachal Pr.(4 Chandigarh(5) D. & N. Haveli Delhi Goa, Daman & Diu Lakshadweep Pondicherry	43.67 40.47	29.80 43.30 38.05 39.22 42.75 37.03	46.74 43.95 43.50 35.40 39.07 36.28	37.96 37.55 34.76 45.49 38.63 38.09 40.81 39.49	31.99 36.17 32.37 45.66 36.75 38.59 42.41 39.74	47.22 40.72 37.95 45.31 40.98 37.58 39.16 39.24

Source: Social and Cultural Tables, Part II-C(ii), Series 1, India, Census of India, 1971.

- (1) Undivided Assam
- (2) It was a part of Punjab
- (3) Part of Assam

- (4) Full count was not done in 1961
- (5) No data is a vailable.

Similarly female child proportion had increased from 41.11 per cent in 1961 to 42.19 per cent in 1971 among the female population of India. Assam had shown a decline from 47.23 per cent to 46.2 per cent and was replaced in top position by Andaman and Nicobar Islands which comprised 47.22 per cent of the females below the age of 15 in 1971. The lowest position was taken away by Goa, Daman and Diu from Pondicherry.

Thus the overall picture shows that the population in 1971 has become younger as compared to the population in 1961. This change is found nearly equal in males as well as in females. When analysed at the State level, it is observed that the proportion of child population has imcreased in all the States from 1961 to 1971 except in Kerala, Manipur, Nagaland, Punjab and Delhi. This may be due to various reasons, for example in Delhi, Punjab and Kerala it might be because of the increasing urbanization, industrialization, literacy rates and availability of medical facilities etc.

And in the two north-eastern States, it might be because of the low birth rate.

(d) Rural-Urban Proportions:

In 1961, 41.43 per cent of the rural and 38.99 per cent of the urban population of the country was in the age group 0-14. It increased to 42.77 per cent and 39.02 per cent respectively in 1971. Thus, the

X:9B.44

increase in the value by 1.34 in the rural areas was much higher than 0.03 in the urban areas. Such difference may be counted because of two facts.

rirst, the higher birth rate in the rural areas and secondly, the increasing age specific inmigration in the urban areas.

rable-laz Percentage of Child Population to Total Population

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	***	Male	Female
1961	Rural	41.73	41.13
	Urban	37.27	41.01
3.003	Kural	42.99	42.52
1971	Urban	37.53	40.76

component increased from 41.73 per cent to 42.99 per cent and the rural female component increased from 41.13 per cent to 42.52 per cent during this period.

Thus the male and female child population increased almost equally in the rural areas. But in the urban areas the trend was different. The proportion of the male children increased from 37.27 per cent to 37.53 per cent, whereas the proportion of the female children experienced a decline from 41.01 per cent to 40.76 per cent. One plausible explanation for this phenomenon seems to be a negligible percentage of the migration of the female children to the urban areas

Tor economic reasons. Another explanation which seems to be quite logical is that when elders migrate to the urban areas in search of a job, they prefer to take their male children with them who can get better education in urban environment or who can share their responsibility of earning or for whose security they do not have to bother much even if he stays alone at nome during the hours of the day. The necessity of taking a child arises in a migrant as the former removes his loneliness to some degree at an alienated place and helps him to cook his food and do some other petty household duties.

(e) Detailed Age Distribution:

Out of the total children of India 36.7 per cent were in the age group 0-4, 35.9 per cent in 5-9 and the rest 27.37 per cent in the conort 10-14 in 1961. These percentages changed to 34.53, 35.0 and 29.85 per cent respectively in 1971. Thus the percentage of population declined considerably in 0-4 age group and marginally in 5-9, but 10 increased in 10-14 age conort. It shows that our pirth rate has declined and within one child population the population is becoming more aged. Similar changes have been found both in rural and urban population on comparing the 1961 and 1971 data.

Table-1.3: Percentage of the Children in Different Age Groups to Total Children

S.No.	State/Union	1961			1971		
	Territories	0-4	5 - 9	10-14	0-4	5 - 9	10-14
	INDIA	36.70	35.91	27.37	34.53	35.60	29.85
1. 23. 45. 67. 89. 10. 12. 12. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 22. 24. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29	A.P. Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana H.P. J & K Kerala M.P. Maharashtra Manipur Meghalaya Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Sikkim Tamilnadu Tripura U. Pradesh W. Bengal A.& N. Islam Arunachal Pr Chandigarh D.& N.Haveli Delhi G.D.& Diu Lakshdweep Pondicherry	- 41.00 -	35.60 37.73 35.64 37.64 37.64 37.65	28.95 25.37 25.84 27.19 31.01 24.78 29.60 28.47 27.24 27.60 25.43 22.11 28.47 30.67 27.76 24.77 26.76 27	34.17 36.27 34.50 34.50 34.50 34.60	3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	29.69 28.31.65 30.54 31.78 30.33.31.70 29.67 29.67 29.53 30.54 29.53 30.53 30.53 29.53 30.53 29.53 29.63 29.

Source: Social and Cultural Tables, Part II-C(ii), Series 1, India, Census of India, 1971.

In 1971, the youngest child population (0-4) was found in Andaman and Nicobar Islands (38.9 per cent of the children) followed by Arunachal Pradesh. Lakshdweep etc. The minimum population in this age group was found in Punjab (31.46) followed by Sikkim, Tripura and so on. Among the children, the oldest population (10-14) was found in Sikkim (33.93 per cent), Punjab (33.92 per cent) and its percentage was least in Arunachal Pradesh (25.27 per cent). Such distribution depends upon the birth rate of the place and the medical facilities available and their utilization by the population of that area. tly it is also an indicator of the level of education and poverty of the people. The higher the proportion of children in the work force, the higher the birth rate and consequently the proportion of population below the poverty line and lower the educational and medical consciousness of the people.

(f) Sex Ratio:

In India, the sex ratio is measured as the number of females per thousand males. This ratio has been decreasing since 1901. In the first Census of this century it was observed to be 972.14 It kept on

^{14.} Source: Handbook of Social Welfare Statistics
1976. Department of Social Welfare,
Government of India. (Taken from Census
of India 1971, series 1 - India, Part IIA (i))

decreasing constantly and became 941 in 1961. It further declined to 930 in 1971. Sex ratio of the children in the 0-14 age group decrease from 946 in 1961 to 937 in 1971. Thus it was higher than the general population in both the Censuses. Among the rural children, it decreased from 949 to 938 but increased among the urban children from 929 to 931. This increase may be due to less negligence towards the female children in the urban areas and the availability of more medical facilities there.

Table No.1.4 shows that the sex ratio of children is more in favour of females in Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Manipur, Meghalaya and Orissa but it is nowhere more than 1000 among the child population. The highest ratio was observed in Dadra and Nagar Haveli (998), followed by Meghalaya and Manipur (992) in 1971. The lowest child sex-ratio was in Chandigarh (841). Uttar Pradesh (868) and Haryana (875) too showed very low sex-ratio.

Meghalaya and Mizoram are the only States which have the urban sex ratio of the children in favour of the females (1033). This ratio is minimum in Arunachal Pradesh (805).

Table-1.4 : Sex Ratio of Children

S.No.	State/Union			Sex Ra	tio (0-	 14)	
	Territories	То	tal		ral		ban
		1961	1971	1961	1971	1961	1971
	INDIA	946	937	949	938	929	931
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 67. 89. 112. 123. 14. 15. 16. 178. 190. 21.	A. P. Assam Bihar Gujarat Haryana H. P. J & K Kerala M. P. Maharashtra Manipur Meghalaya Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamilnadu Tripura U. P. W. Bengal	982 969 943 924 975 975 975 978 978 978 978 978 978 978 978 978 978	979 989 918 919 875 975 975 975 977 9778 969	985 946 930 975 975 975 985 975 985 985 985 985 985 985 985 985 985 98	981 984 921 971 971 971 971 986 987 981 981 981 981 981 981 981	966 933 907 9905 9912 9912 9912 9912 9912 9912 9912 991	9746 9359 91036 9138 9139 9159 9159 918 918 918
22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	A. on. Islands Arunachal Pr. Chandigarh D. on. Haveli Delhi Goa, Daman of Di Lakshadweep Kizoram Pondicherry	955	950 969 878 998 893 963 984 976	958 798 N.A 975 873 969 932 1006 986	950 974 841 998 858 963 918 975	90 2 955	950 805 882 rban 897 963 rban 1033

Source: Computed from Social and Cultural Tables, Part II-C(ii) Series 1, India, Census of India, 1971.

One characteristic feature of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Chandigarh is that though their general sex ratio is very low, 644 and 749 respectively, their child sex ratio is fairly high 950 and 878 respectively. The gap between the two sex ratios is significient in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. One of the plausible explanations could be the lack of medical facilities resulting in high female mortality in the reproductive age group which brings down the general sex ratio.

change, either in the positive direction or in the negative direction, in total, rural as well as in urban population, from 1961 to 1971. The determinants of the sex ratio of any place are (i) the sex ratio at birth, (ii) differential mortality by sex, and (iii) the sex ratio of the net migrants. The combined effect of these three factors is responsible for the overall sex ratio of the place. 15 On the basis of 1971 sex ratio, Asok Eitra divided the States of India into three groups. These are, (i) the States which are well above the national average, like Bihar, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu, Kerala, Karmataka and Madhya Pradesh. These are the States which have been experiencing a

^{15.} Bhende, Asha, A and Kanitkar, Tara; Principles of Population Studies, Himalayan Publishing House, 1978, p.147.

continuous outmigration. (ii) The States which are below the national average, e.g. assam. West pengal. Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana and Jammu and Kashmir. Some of these States are those which have been experiencing chronic immigration. especially that of males. (iii) States which are close to the national average. Gunat and Maharashtra tall in this category. 16 All the States which are above the national average have undergone a decline in the sex ratio from 1961 to 1971. If these States are facing male selective outmigration, as is shown in many studies, then their sex ratio should have increased over the passage of time, which is just the reverse. It means the cause of declining sex ratio lies somewhere else. In most of the States which rall below the national average the sex ratio has increased from 1961 to 1971 whereas it should decline if the States are facing male salective immigration. Prof. Mitra has attributed the declining sex ratio to masculinity of sex ratio at birth, higher mortality in the early years of remale population and higher remale mortality in the early years of reproductive age group. 17 In case of the child population the mirst two causes are quite relevant. Sex ratio has started increasing at places which have more medical tacilities like one urban areas. Thus mortality and

^{16.} Mitra, Asok, India's Population Aspects of Quality and Control. Vol.1, AFPF/ICSSk Book, Aprinav Publications, 1978, pp. 276-77.

^{17.} Ibia.

migration become important lactors in the determination of sex ratio.

tion in the sex composition of the child population. They tried to find out the contribution of the several factors to the imbalance in the sex composition of child population with the help of Spearman's correlation coefficients. The following variables were considered for their correlation matrix to find out the relationship with the sex ratio of the child population in the age group 0-14.

- i) Sex ratio at birth.
- ii) Sex ratio of infant death.
- iii) Sex ratio of deaths in the age group 1-4.
 - iv) Sex ratio of death in the age group 5-14.
 - v) Proportion of deaths reported in the age group 0-14 to the total deaths.
- vi) Proportion of married females to total females in the age group 10-14.

They found a strong association of sex ratio at birth, extent of child marriages in females in the age group 10-14 and proportion of deaths in the age group 0-14 to the total deaths with sex ratio of the child population. They also formed a negative but weak correlation between sex ratio of children and

sex ratio of deaths among infants and children in the age group 1-4.18

(g) Scheduled Caste Children:

The percentage of the scheduled caste children in the child population depends upon the share of the SC population in the total population of that area. In 1971, 14.62 per cent of the population of the country was scheduled caste and 14.94 per cent children of the total child population fell in this category. The share of SC children was little lower, at a level of 14.61 per cent in 1961. Thus the increase in the proportion of SC children was much less as compared to the increase in the share of the total children to the total population. This might have been due to the poor economic conditions of the population of this category, which can afford the use of medical facilities to a considerably lesser degree.

The highest proportion of the children in the scheduled caste category was recorded in Punjab, which otherwise also leads in the total share of SC population. But the State had undergone a drastic change from 38.31 per cent in 1961 to 27.36 per cent in 1971. This might be attributed to two factors. First , the partition

^{18.} Jain, M.K and Bhargava, P.K., "Inter-State Variations in the Sex Composition of the Child Population" in Srinivasan, K., Saxena, P.C. and Kanitkan, Tara (Ed.) Demographic and Socio-Economic Aspects of the Child in India, pp.51-62.

of the State in 1966 and secondly, the proximity of Delhi, where lot of children migrate as they get better employment opportunities. The latter argument can be ascertained to the fact that the proportion of SC children has increased in the capital from 14.21 per cent to 18.39 per cent during the same period.

A general look at the figures in Table No.1.5 shows that the share of scheduled castes in the child population is on a higher side in the Northern India, barring Jammu & Kashmir, medium in Southern India except Kerala, low in Western India, i.e. Gujrat and Naharashtra and very low in the north-eastern part of the country, where there is predominance of scheduled tribes rather than scheduled castes.

(h) Scheduled Tribe Children:

The scheduled tribes in India comprise nearly half of the scheduled castes of the country, 6.94 per cent of the total population. But the share of ST children is little higher than this. They form 7.27 per cent of the child population.

The main geographic concentration, of the scheduled tribes is in the hilly north-eastern region and forest covered central part of the country, comprising parts of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Oris sa, Bihar and West Bengal. The States of Jammu and

Table 1.5: Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Children

S.No.	State/Union Territories	of chil to 1	entage SC ldren total Ldren 1961	of ST cen children tal to total cen children		backward class (SC + ST)	
	INDIA	14.94	14.61	7.27	6.94	22.21	21.55
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	A. P. Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana Himachal Pr. J & K Kerala M. P. Maharashtra Manipur Meghalaya Mysor e Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamilnadu Tripura U. P. W. Bengal	13.09 6.19 14.26 7.07 20.09 22.32 8.25 8.09 13.01 6.4 1.61 0.36 13.25 15.22 27.36 14.54 18,48 12.12 21.37 20.9	13.63 5.31 14.09 6.75 18.84 22.61 7.82 8.15 12.94 5.97 1.61 13-18 16.6 18.53 9.37 20.57 19.74	4.06 11.02 8.82 14.86 - 3.93 - 1.3 19.18 6.27 32.45 83.73 0.80 93.14 23.64 - 12.71 0.80 29.34 - 5.99	3.76 9.84 9.8 14.01 4.55 1.26 21.38 6.46 31.52 85.64 0.83 96.79 24.11 - 12.18 0.79 32.98 5.67	17.15 17.21 23.08 21.93 20.09 26.25 9.39 12.66 9.39 14.05 93.14 38.36 27.28 41.39 41.39	17.39 15.19 23.09 20.76 18.84 27.82 12.42 34.33 14.09 41.09
22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	A. & N. Islan Arunachal Pr Chandigarh D. & N. Havel Delhi G. D. & Diu Lakshadweep Mizoram Pondicherry	13.88 i 1.76 18.39 2.1	1.58 14.21 - 0.0 15.2	18.07 83.9 87.98 1.06 N.A 95.28	25.48 - 89.1 - 98.72 98.87	18.07 83.9 13.88 89.74 18.39 3.16 - 95.3 15.32	25.48 - 90.68 14.21 98.72 98.87 15.2

Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and the Union Territories of Chandigarh, Delhi and Pondicherry have no scheduled tribes.

The highest proportion of the Scheduled Tribe children is recorded in Mizoram (95.3 per cent), followed by Nagaland (93.14 per cent). Among the States which have at least some ST population, it is least in Tamilnadu and Karnataka (0.80 per cent). This proportion was very high in Lakshdweep in 1961, at a level of 98.72 per cent, second highest among all the places. But unfortunately the data is not available for this Union Territory for the year 1971, therefore its rank cannot be located.

(i) Backward Class Children:

The combined population of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribe is considered as the backward class population. Large variations are observed in the different States when we take only SC or ST population because some of the States are dominant in any one of them and do not have the other. When combined together and identified as backward classes, their proportion becomes a good indicator of the socio-economic backwardness of that State. 21.56 per cent of the population of the country has been scheduled as backward in the tribal area as scheduled tribe and in the other areas as scheduled castes. 22.21 per cent

of our children belong to the backward classes. Their percentage varies highly in different States. The minimum recorded percentage in 1971 was 3.16 per cent in Goa, Daman and Diu and maximum 95.3 per cent in Mizoram.

(j) Migration:

Children do migrate, when it is a family migration and they have to accompany their parents or when they have to go out in search of education or jobs. 1971 Census recorded 17.55 per cent migrants below the age of 15 years. Their percentage varied from as high as 35.11 in West Bengal to as low as 9.63 in Bihar and But the analysis for rural and urban child migrants revealed that the migration rates were much higher in the rural children than in the urban children. nearly three times. This difference is markedly high in Chandigarh, Arunachal Pradesh and Tripura. Chandigarh as the population is mainly urban, a high percentage of the child migrants in urban areas (94.15 per cent) is quite a normal phenomena. Similar explanation is logical for the basically rural areas of Arunachal Pradesh and Tripura.

The overall higher percentage of the rural child migrants to the total child migrants can also be ascertained to the fact that women go to their parents house for delivery and hence the child is registered as a

migrant because the migration is visualised from the angle of place of birth. This one reason has inflated the figures, otherwise the proportion of the child migrants would have been much smaller in the total migrant population of India. This reason has been found to be dominating in a study conducted by the Demographic Training & Research Centre, Bombay in 1966. The Centre selected a few villages from Maharashtra and observed that nearly four fifth of the male children migrated because of the movement of the mother. whereas for female children, this proportion was just one fifth. The major cause of the rural female child migration was the marriage, which alone covered nearly three fourth of the female children. Only 3 per cent of the male children migrated because of the economic reasons, whereas no female migrated because of economic reasons. The children who accompanied their parents as dependents formed nearly one sixth of the males and only 4.3 per cent of the females. 19 This study further revealed that the major cause for the out-migrating children, whether male or female, was that children had to go because some other members of the family had left. Lack of job opportunities and educational facilities were the other factors responsible for male child outmigration. Among females, marriage was second predominant cause in younger girls (less than 9 years) and major cause among elder female children.

^{19.} Narain, V., A.Sebastian, P.Hanumantharayappa, Rural Migration Pattern in Southern Maharashtra (Bombay: Demographic Training δ Research Centre 1970) (typed) taken from Sebastian, A., Child Migrant δ Child Migrant Labour in Srinivasan, K., et.al (Ed.) Demographic and Socio-economic Aspects of the Child in India.

Table-1.6: Percentage of Child Migrants to Total Migrants-1971

S.No	Territories (Percentage of Child digrants to total migrants	Percentage of rural child migrants to total child migrants	Percentage of urban child migrants to total child migrants
	India	17.55	74.38	25.61
1. 23. 456. 78. 910. 112. 115. 117. 119. 21. 22.	Andhra Pradesh Assam Bihar Gujarat Haryana Himachal Pradesh J and K Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra Manipur Kerala Meghalaya Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Sikkim Tamil Nadu Tripura Uttar Pradesh West Bengal	11.86	72.38 .86.10 .76.34 .60.04 .69.57 .81.75.34 .75.34 .59.31 .84.04 .81.70.93 .86.07 .70.76 .44.54 .58.65 .90.40 .81.61 .89.61	27.62 13.89 23.65 39.52 30.44 18.18 24.16 24.76 40.79 8.65 15.98 15.98 29.06 34.01 13.92 24.25 25 26.2
23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30.		21.06 13.26 18.42 23.39	81.97 93.81 5.84 12.55 1.00 68.12 1.00 58.03	18.02 6.18 194.15 287.44 31.87 41.96

(k) Change in the Child Population (1961-71):

The population of children increased by 27.9 per cent from 1961 to 1971. Its State-wise break up showed that the change was as high as 67.1 per cent in Delhi and as low as 4.87 per cent in Pondicherry. This change was considerably higher in the urban areas than in the rural areas (38.32 per cent as against 25.7 per cent). The percentage change in the child population is exceptionally high in some cases. like urban Mizoram where it is 177.5 per cent or urban Pondicherry, where it is 142.1 per cent. Such changes can be caused by many factors. The major causes among them are the low base of population in 1961, the high birth rate and the decreasing death rate due to increase in medical facilities and socio-economic awareness of the population especially in the urban areas and accelerating mobility because of the industrialization and urbanization.

It is clear from Table 1.7 that in none of the States or Union Territories the proportion of the children to the total population has gone down. It means that our population is becoming younger and younger day by day. In fact, India is one of those countries which have the youngest population. It shows that we are passing through that stage of demographic transition where the growth rate is very high

Table-1.7: Change in Child Population

S.No. State/Union Territories	lation	n from 1961	Child Popu-
	Total	Rural	Urban
India	27.9	25.7	38.32
1. And hra Pradesh 2. Assam 3. Bihar 4. Gujarat 5. Haryana 6. Himachal Pradesh 7. Jammu and Kashmir 8. Kerala 9. Madhya Pradesh 10. Maharashtra 11. Manipur 12. Meghalaya 13. Mysore 14. Nagaland 15. Orissa 16. Punjab 17. Rajasthan 18. Tamilnadu 19. Tripura 20. Uttar Pradesh 21. West Bengal	25.4 43.54 22.09 35.7 40.9 29.81 20.81 20.	21.71 41.59 20.0 27.0 16.94 40.38 43.89 17.5 25.4 28.41 23.71 32.4 31.0	33.43 74.3 46.17 38.71 25.21 49.59 43.4 28.01 54.14 41.46 107.35 29.95 32.07 119.31 87.72 19.54 36.27 50.46 32.61 30.75
22. A. and N. Islands 23. Arunachal Pradesh 24. Chandigarh 25. D. and N. Haveli 26. Delhi 27. Gca, Daman and Div 28. Lakshadweep 29. Miz oram 30. Pondicherry	N.A 33.16 67.1	95.61 counting N.A. 33.16 38.13 24.95 31.66 15.39 5.76	68.08 in 1961 N.A. No urban 47.1 120.89 No urban 177.49 142.09

the birth rate is still high whereas the death rate has started declining due to technological development.

The percentage change in the child population is higher in case of SC and ST population. The increase in the scheduled tribes is still higher than the scheduled castes. Their higher growth rate may be attributed to the fact that they have still maintained their higher birth rate whereas it has started declining in case of the general population.

(1) Mortality and Morbidity Among Children:

Mortality and morbidity are the important indicators of the presence of the hygienic and environmental sanitation. They also reflect the availability and the utilization of health facilities in an area. If the facilities are available, their utilization depends upon the socio-economic status of the household and the level of their literacy.

(i) Infant Mortality Rate:

No doubt, infant mortality rate in India has come down to a considerable extent, but still it is very high as compared to many other countries. It was 204 in 1911-15 and came down to as low as 125 in 1978 for the country as a whole (Table 1.8). A large variation in the rural-urban distribution of ILR

Table-1.8: Infant Mortality Rates, 1911-78

Peri od	Infa	nt Mortality Portate	eri od	Infa	nt Mortality rate
1911-15	204	(5 years average)	1970	129	SRS
1916-20	219	11	1971	129	11
1921-25	174	1 11	1972	139	n
1926-30	178	11	1973	134	•
1931-35	174		1974	126	n
1936-40	161	11	1975	140	•
1941-45	161	* ** **	1976	⊥ 29	n
1946-50	134	- 11	1977	129	(Survey)
1951-61	146	(Acturial Report)	1978	125	•
1961-71	129	·			

Source: Survey on Infant and Child Mortality, 1979, A Preliminary Report, Office of the Registrar General India, New Delhi, p.32

(139 in rural areas and 80 in urban areas)²⁰ reflects the large variation in the availability of medical facilities and the socio-economic canditions of the rural and urban population.

According to table No.1.9, infant mortality rate varies from as high as 184 in rural U.P. to as low as 58 in rural Kerala. Among the urban areas it is highest

^{20.} Source: The Registrar General, India (taken from An Analysis of the situation of Children in India, UNICEF Conference, (Mimeo), 1980.)

Table-1.9: Infant Mortality Rates

S.No. State/Union	Infant	Mortality	Rates
Territories	Rural	Urban	Total
India	139	80	129
1. Andhra Pradesh 2. Assam 3. Gujarat 4. Haryana 5. Himachal Pradesh 6. Jammu and Kashmir 7. Karnataka 8. Kerala 9. Madhya Pradesh 0. Maharashtra 1. Orissa 2. Punjab 3. Rajasthan 4. Tamil Nadu 5. Uttar Pradesh	127 126 159 122 129 73 99 58 145 91 130 115 152 121 184	97 100 100 54 56 26 60 47 88 61 81 75 73 81	122 124 146 112 127 68 89 56 138 83 127 108 142 110 178
.6. Delhi	102	45	55
.7. Goa,Daman δ Diu	80	35	69

Source: The Registrar General, India (taken from An Analysis of the situation of Children and Youth in India, UNICEF Conference, April 1980, New Delhi).

in U.P. (121) and lowest in J and K (26). The infant mortality rates in the rural areas are above the national average in Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In the other States, it is lower than the national average. Among the urban areas Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Tamilnadu and Uttar Pradesh are above the national average. This shows that these States

which comprise about 2/5th to 1/3rd of India's population are really backward as far as social awareness and medical facilities are concerned. Urban situation would have been better had the urban slums not aggravated the infant mortality to a considerable extent.

Infant mortality rates are higher among the males than among the females. This is because of the low biological resistance of the males. The difference between the two sexes is higher in the urban areas than in the rural areas (males 94 and females 85 in urban and males 138 and females 134.5 in rural). This shows that in rural areas, female mortality is much higher as compared to that in urban areas. This indicates the value systems, social customs and the parental care which has a differential treatment for children of either sex, especially in rural areas.

(ii) Age-Specific Death Rates:

About 30 per cent of the total infant deaths occur in the first week of the birth. About 21 per cent from the first week to the end of first month, about 27 per cent from the first month to the 6th month and rest 22 per cent from 7th to 12th month. 22 This shows

^{22.} Source: Vital Statistics of India, Office of the Registrar General of India, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi, 1973

that the first week is really dangerous for children.

After that their resistance develops and their mortality depends upon the nutrition and care which they get
from their parents.

As we move from 0-4 age cohort to 5-9 age group the death rate shows a dramatic decline. It falls down from 58.1 to 5.2 per thousand in rural areas and 32.3 to 3.2 per thousand in urban areas. The decline trom 5-9 age group to 10-14 group is comparatively much smaller. The high rates in the first cohort are inflated due to the high infant mortality.

A paper presented at the UNICEF conference in 1980 on the 'Analysis of Situation of Children in India' has quoted Gopalan giving the causes for high infant mortality rates. According to him, "The two major factors which contribute to the present poor state of health of our children are undernutrition, resulting from inadequate diets and infections arising from insanitary environment. There is a close synergistic interrelationship between these two ractors. Undernutrition increases the susceptibility to infections, and infections in their turn, aggravate malnutrition by further reducing the intake and absorption of food. This vicious cycle of undernutrition and infection is the characteristic feature of the "poverty syndrome" in which large part of the child population is now

entangled. 23

(iii) Causes of Death:

To facilitate the work, the SRS has divided the causes of death into eight main groups. Among these groups the infant deaths which were due to the causes other than violence, diarrhoea, cough, swelling and fever took away maximum lives of the infants (52 per cent). The second highest share was that of the coughs (17.6 per cent). Violence or injury had the lowest share of deaths, only 0.3 per cent, in this age group. As we go up in the age groups the share of this cause

Table-1.10: Percentage Distribution of Deaths by Age and Cause, 1971

S.No	. Cause	Age	group in	years	15-1-2-21-1
		0-1	1-4	5-14	
1.	Violence and Injury	0.3	2.6	12.0	
2.	Diarrhoea	7.4	16.1	12.1	
3.	Cough	17.6	25.0	15.9	
4.	Swelling	0.6	6.0	8.3	
5.	Fever	10.4	29.6	35.5	
6.	Other Infant deaths	52.1	-	-	
7.	Other clear symptoms	7.4	4.3	5.9	
8.	Rest	4.2	16.4	10.3	

Source: Causes of Death, 1971, Registrar General's Office.

23. UNICEF, An Analysis of the Situation of Children in India, UNICEF Conference on Country Programming Exercise, 1980 quotes Gopalan, C., 1979;

The Child in India, 13th Jawaharlal Nehru Memorial Lecture, New Delhi.

goes on increasing, so much so that it reaches 12 per cent in the age group 5-14. Among the children who have crossed the age of infancy, the maximum number of deaths are taken away by fever.

An overall picture shows that the major causes of death among the children are, apart from infant deaths, diarrhoea, cough and fever. The diarrhoea is caused by poor insanitary conditions and contaminated water and different types of cough and fever are due to infections. As the children enter the school, the control of their parents gets reduced. They eat all those rubbish things which are sold by petty shop keepers and catch infections. In many cases, this infection leads to death.

Therefore, any policies made for reducing child mortality should also aim at preventive health care and nutritional supplement. The major cause of high mortality is poverty which should be eradicated to have healthy children with a high expectation of life.

Table 1.11 shows that according to the Revised Draft Sixth Plan 49 per cent of the total population of India (50 per cent of the rural and 43 per cent of the urban population) is below the poverty line. According to another estimate in 1972-73, maximum rural population of Orissa was considered to be poor (71 per cent) followed by West Bengal (64 per cent) and Tamilnadu (63 per cent). He ghalaya had the least population below poverty line (20.6 per cent). The urban position was little better,

Table 1.11: Percentage of Population Below the Poverty Line 1972-73

S.No.	States	Rural		Urban	
1.	Andhra Pradesh	57.7		43.7	
2.	Assam	48.2		33.7	
3.	Bihar	55.8		43.4	
4.	Gu jarat	43.9		34.0	
5.	Haryana	21.5		29.9	
6.	Jammu and Kashmir	36.1		51.6	
7.	Karna taka	52.3		45.8	
8.	Kerala	57.8		52.7	
9.	Madhya Pradesh	61.3		44.8	•
10.	Maharashtra	53.9		34 .3	
11.	Manipur	24.7		24.2	
12.	Meghalaya	20.6		10.8	
13.	Nagaland	NA		3 .3	
14.	Orissa	71.1		43.4	
15.	Punjab	21.5		21.8	
16.	Ra ja sthan	47.5		39.3	
17.	Tamil Nadu	63.0		52.5	
18.	Tripura	42.6		18.7	
19.	Uttar Pradesh	53.0		51.6	
20.	West Bengal	64.0		35.9	
21.	All Union Territories	37.6		26.7	
22.	India	54.1		41.2	
		Rural	Urban	Total	
I	ndia (1977-78) <u>2</u> /	50	43	49	

Source: 1/ Economic Times, 13 March 1980

^{2/} Revised Draft Sixth Plan, Planning Commission, GOI

where Kerala had the highest proportion poor population (52.7 per cent) and Nagaland the lowest (3.3 per cent).

The States with a higher density have a larger proportion of population below the poverty line with nearly half of the population as poor, it is not easy to reduce mortality. We cannot expect an improvement in the quality of life from those who do not have money to buy even their meals. Such families cannot educate their children. They rather push them in the labour force at an early age to uplift their economic status.

(m) Projected Population of Children:

Different estimates have been made by different agencies for the future population of the children. One of these estimates shows that the 2.3 million population of the children in 1971 will boost upto 2.64 million in 1981. 2.70 million in 1986 and 2.73 million in 1991. By the beginning of the last decade of this century, the rural children would have gone upto 2.12 million from 1.88 million in 1971 and the urban children to 0.61 million from 0.42 million in the last Census. estimates show that the rural population of children will start declining after 1986, whereas the total and urban will keep on rising but at a decreasing rate. The major effect of this decline will be felt in the 0-4 and 5-9 age group in the rural areas only. These estimates have

Table-1.12: Lstimates of future Child Population (in hundreds) by age and Rural Urban Residence in India

Age Group	Rural/ Urban/ Total	1971	1976	1981	1986	1991
0-4	R U T	728180 15 <i>6</i> 500 884680	749340 171090 920430	749590 181390 930980	742470 190400 932870	740670 201910 942580
5 - 9	R U T	631440 139770 771210	684550 160900 845450	708660 176570 885230	712970 188170 901140	709160 198850 908010
10-14	R U T	521210 128020 649230	594070 154990 749060	646850 178780 8256 <i>3</i> 0	671930 196700 868630	6774 <i>9</i> 0 210 <i>33</i> 0 8878 <i>2</i> 0
Total (0-14)	R U T	1880830 424290 2305120	20 27 960 486980 2514940	2105100 536740 2641840	2127370 575270 2702640	21 27320 6110 90 2738410

Source: Demographic and Socio-Economic Aspects of the Child in India, 1979. Appendix Table 1.1, p.613

been given presuming that the birth rate will decline by 1991 not only in urban areas but also in rural areas and that the rural to urban migration will increase to that extent that its impact would start appearing in the form of decreasing population in the first age cohorts in rural areas whereas it will keep on increasing in the urban areas.²³

^{23.} Srinivasan, K., Tara Kanitkar, P.C. Saxena; Demographic and Socio-Leonomic Aspects of the Child in India, 1979, Appendix Table 1.1, p.613

CHAPTER - II

THEORETICAL FRAME BORK

SECTION-I: LITERATURE SURVEY AND FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

1. (a) Literature Survey:

Various studies have been conducted to analyse the extent of child labour and its impact. According to the official data. more than 52 million children of the world are economically active. But the actual number of such young workers is much higher than the official figures. Thousands of children are employed when as young as 5 years in match industry, carpet weaving, to bacco factories or beedi manufacturing. Many of these children are forced to go to their work in the unearthly hours of morning, sometimes as early as 3 a.m. and they return home late in the evening around 7 p.m." 2 For this exhaustive work they are paid from 50 paise to Rs.2 a day. They are kept deprived of the basic amenities like health services, nutritional food, educational facilities, adequate housing, clothing recreation etc. Such is the fate of children in many of the developing countries. Though society and the

^{1.} Simai, Mihale, "Situation of Children in New Global Realities in the Year 2000." New Perspective:

Journal of the World Peace Council, vol.9, 6/1979,p.34

^{2.} Chaturvedi, Madhur, "Child Labour: The Shame of a Nation," The Illustrated Weekly of India, vol.C 129, oury 20-26, 1980

^{3.} Ibid.

the States are aware of such atrocities on children, they are not in a position to do anything as the socioeconomic canditions of these nations require the hard labour of children to fulfil their basic needs.

In the following paragraphs, some available literature on child labour is reviewed. From the point of view of the extent of coverage, these studies, articles, and unpublished papers can be classified into two main groups, i.e. those analysing the problem of the child labour at the macro level and those analysing it at the micro level. The macro studies are conducted at the international, national or the state level and the micro at the city, district and village level or for a particular industry at a particular place. At macro level, the secondary data have been used and at micro level primary data have been used. Apart from these two, a few studies concentrate only at the the oretical aspect of the problem.

The studies carried on at the international level have been forthcoming from the World Bank (World Atlas of the Child, 1979); McHale and McHale of Population Reference Bureau (Children in the world, 1979); International Labour Office (Children at Work, 1979, Edited by Medelievich, E; Child Labour in Asia: An ILO Survey published in Indian Journal of Public Administration, July-Sept. 1979, XXV, 3, 808-814;

Children and Work: A Supplement of IYC/ Idea Forum, 1979); UNICEF (Statistical Profile of Children and Youth in India, latest report 1977); Peoples Publishing House (Child in the Third World, 1979). These studies reveal that bulk of working children 50.7 million are from the less developed countries only. Asia has the largest proportion of child workers, where in 1979 figure had gone as high as 29.0 million in South Asia alone (ILO, Children/Work, p.4).

In India the number of child workers numbered 15.03 millions in 1975. Most of the child-workers, in developed as well as developing nations are employed in the agricultural sector - looking after animals, collecting firewood and carrying water, weeding, spreading fertilisers, watching crops etc. In urban areas, their work is more diversified involving shoe-shining, looking after parked cars, loading and unloading, hawking and collecting refuse (ILO, Children and Work, p.2). In India, children in the urban areas are also engaged in tea shops and house-hold chores (Singh, Kaura and Khan; Working Children in Bombay - A Study).

Some of the literature where the problem of child labour has been analysed at the national level

E. However, in the World Atlas of the Child, prepared by World Bank, the number of child workers in India is expected to be 7.8 million by the end of this century.

has been brought forward by Patnaik (Child Labour in India: Size and Occupational Distribution): Jeremiah (The Child Slavers); UNICHF (Pamphlets on International Year of the Child, 1979); Chakraverti (Child Labour and Transition Economy: The Indian Scene): Banerii (Plight of Children in India): Bhaskaran (A Better World for the Child Tomorrow): Natrajan (Child in India - A Demographic Profile) a report in the Times of India 'Child Exploited most in 18th Century'. Child Labour in India (Indian Journal of Public Administration. XXV, 3, 1979). These studies show that the number of children in the work force decreased from 14.5 million in 1961 to 10.7 million in 1971. This steep decline in the face of rising population poses a puzzle (Patnaik, Child Labour in India, p.670). Generally, the reason given for this decrease from 1961 to 1971 is the definition of a 'worker' which has changed from one Census to the other (Chakraverty, Child Labour and Transition Economy). Chakravarty has noted down decrease in the percentage of the child workers to the total children in the age group 5-14 from 12.77 in 1961 to 7.12 in 1971. But Patnaik has considered under enumeration to be a more plausible reason. According to her, the decrease in total child workers from 1961 to 1971 was to the extent of 26.21 per cent, whereas it was only 4.77 per cent in case of total workers and 2.98 per cent in case of the

non-child workers. E

The extent of child labour has reduced considerably with the passage of time. For the first time in 1881, an act was passed by Lord Rippen to reduce the extent of child workers in factories. According to this act, the minimum age for entry into employment was fixed at 7 years and the working period was restricted to 9 hours a day with an hour's rest. With the successive amendments till 1934, the working hours were reduced to 5 hours a day (Times of India. October 25, 1979). This report also reveals that children were beaten up in the factories and their wages were deducted on being absent from the factory work. Any legislative measures were not imposed strictly and that caused many children to work in mines, factories and cottage industries against the legal There is no law to govern the 78.7 per cent child labour employed in the agriculture sector (Bhaskaran, A Better World for the Child Tomorrow). Neither the existing laws have helped the children to get even the minimum wages. Indian Council for Child Welfare's findings showed that their marginal earnings contribute 14 per cent to the income of the families earning under Rs. 300 per month (Banerji; 'Plight of Children in India The Times of India, Feb. 2, 1980).

EIn 1971 a worker was defined as a person whose 'main activity' was production of goods and services. Hany children who were students, dependents or household workers from the main activity point of view and were working on part time basis were not counted as workers. Hence, partly a change in definition of worker and partly under enumeration of child workers are considered reasons for a high decrease in child workers from 1961 to 1971.

The provisions made in the constitution for the welfare of the children are not enforced. According to the Article 24 of the constitution "No child below the age of 14 shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment." Neither this facility nor the policy of compulsory basic education free of cost are enforced. Thus the exploitation of half-wage child labour continues to ravage the country. (Jeremiah, The Child Slavers).

The Following studies have been done at the State level: Mitra (Employment of Children under Fifteen' in his India's Population: Aspects of Quality and Control); Pandhe (Child Labour in India); Kulshreshtha (Child Labour in India); Kulshreshtha (Child Labour in India); UNICEF (Statistical Profile of Children and Youth in India); Ministry of Employment, Labour and Rehabilitation (Report of the National Commission on Labour); Baig (Our Children); UNICEF (An Analysis of the Situation of Children in India); Sebastian (State-wise Child Migrants and Child Migrant Labour in the cities of India); and Chakrabarti (Education and Employment of Children). These studies reveal the following facts and explanations about child labour.

It is felt that children are needed to help elders in the easy household chores so that the elders could be released for more arduous jobs and to compensate the

wages of the underemployed adults through their cheap labour (Mitra, India's Population: Aspects of Quality and Control, p.543). Giving the reasons for large families in India, he has argued that the net outflow of wealth from children to parents over the life time is much higher than the net outflow of wealth from parents to children, the economic benefits from children to parents are greater than the perceived costs of their upbringing, parents extract more labour from daughters at an early age as their outflow of wealth to parents stops after the marriage (ibid., p.550). The large families, poverty, ignorance of parents and absence of family allowances and compulsory education are considered to be the most causes of the prevalence of child labour in India (Kulshreshtha, Child Labour in India). Besides, inadequate legislation coupled with its insufficient enforcement, is also responsible for the continuation of child labour (Pandhe (Ed.), Child Labour in India). Low level of industrialization and over all development are considered to be other responsible factors in promoting child labour (ibid). Jain and Chand (Rural Children at Work -Preliminary results of a Pilot Study) tried to measure the effect of size of landholding on the child labour and found a negatively significant correlation between the two. Another study by Naidu measured the effect of urbanization on the participation-rate of children (Narain. The Assignment of Work). It was found that

higher the level of urbanization, lower the proportion of economically active children.

According to Census figures there were 10.7 million workers in India below the age of 15 in 1971. They constituted 5.9 per cent of the total workers and 4.7 per cent of the total children. Andnra Pradesh nad the largest share of children in the work force (9.0) followed by Dadra and Nagar Haveli (8.6), on the other nand Chandigarh had the minimum share (1.2 per cent) tollowed by Delhi (1.4 per cent). When we see the share of child workers in child population, we find that Dadra and Nagar Haveli show the highest percentage (11.8) followed by Arunachal Pradesh. Delhi and Chandigarh reveal 1 the minimum share 1.1 per cent (Kulshreshtha, op.cit.). Mitra (op.cit.) observed that Andhra Pradesh and Karnatka have the maximum level of employment of child labour, both boys and girls in rural as well as urban areas. He also observed an interesting paradox. He found that in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka Tamilnadu, Nadhya Pradesh, Orissa, Maharashtra, Uttor Pradesh and Kerala, the ratio of the total number of working children aged 5-14 to the total population of the children in that age group, exceeds one. however, has given misreporting of age as the plausible explanation for this anomaly.

A number of studies have been attempted to understand the intensity of child labour in a particular region or in a particular industry. A few of them are by Singh, Kaura and Khan (Working Children in Bombay - A Study); Barooah (Working Children in Urban Delhi); Srikantan, Narayan and Rao (Population and Employment in Area Planning: Female and Child Work Participation); Sebastian (Child Migrants and Child Migrant Labour); Sawhney (Occupational Pattern of Children in Rural Uttar Pradesh); Kapoor (Child Labour in the Himalayas); Chaturvedi (Child Labour: The Sname of a Nation); Jeremiah (The Child Slavers); Jain and Chand (Rural Children at Work - Preliminary Results of a Pilot Study); Menon (Sivakasi: The 'Little Japan' of India); Shanbag (Down-and-Out with Bombay's Shoeshines); Times of India (Children Sweat it out for Carpet Trade Boom).

These micro level studies give the preliminary investigations and are able to give us more clearly the reasons for the employment of children and the extent of their exploitation by their employers. In the study conducted by NIPCCD in the city of Bombay, it was found that two-fifth of the children entered the labour force because of the economic compulsions. Fifty per cent children could not go to school because

their guardians did not send them. One third of the total drop outs could not meet the school expenses and nearly one third tailed and lost interest in studies (Singh, et.al., Working Children in Bombay - A Study). This extensive study also collected the responses of the employers and the parents. Nearly one third employers employed children because they had sentimental appeal for children's plight; and nearly one tenth considered them to be a cheap labour (ibid.).

Another study conducted by Indian Council of Child Welfare on Delhi revealed that the percentage of the working children had increased in the city by 40 per cent in the decade 1961-71. These children get half the wages of an adult worker. On an average they are able to earn Rs. 2-3 a day (Barocah, Child Labour in Delhi). The Child-workers in Delhi are able to earn better wages than many other places. The study by Menon (Menon, Sivakasi: The 'little Japan' of India) revealed that in Sivakasi match industry, the wages of the children ranged from 26 paise to Rs.3 per day for working for 10-12 hours a day. The two studies on Delhi and Bombay also revealed that children work for nearly 8-10 hours a day.

Sometimes these children start earning before they even start speaking. About one fifth of the children employed in the mechanised and non-mechanised industries of Sivakasi are between two and five years old (Menon, op.cit.). They leave for their work as early as 2 a.m. and are back by 6 p.m. Their Supervisors are harsh and frequently beat them (ihid; Child Exploited Most in 18th Century). The condition in which these children work are dirty and hazardous to their health (Menon, op.cit.; Chaturvedi, Child Labour: The Shame of a Nation; Jeremiah, op.cit.).

The poor economic conditions make conflicting demands upon children between work participation and schooling. Thus, even the easy accessibility to schools does not increase the enrolement of children if their economic status does not permit it (Srikanthan et.al., Population and Employment in Area Planning: Female and Child Work Participation). The economic compulsions for migration to rural areas are negligible as compared to migration in urban areas. A large proportion of these migrants join the households as servants (Sebastian, Child Migrant and Child Migrant Labour). This study also revealed a positive correlation between the number of migrants and the proportion of a child migrant labour.

In the poor families parents bring their first two or three children in their own occupation. To the latter children they send to schools, if they are able to do so, or in some other occupation or let them do nothing. A study in the rural areas of U.P. found a positive correlation between the advancement in birth order and the proportion of children who were neither working nor studying. It also noticed that father's education and occupational status played a significant role in determining the occupational status of the children (Sawhney, Occupational Pattern of Children in Rural Uttar Pradesh). This study has also analysed child marriages as one of the important causes of child labour.

There is also a brighter side of the child-labour. An early work develops a sense of responsibility among the children and makes them more confident and considerate (Kapoor, Child Labour in the Himalayas; Singh, op.cit.). Children learn how to survive in the competitive world. Shanbag disclosed through the narrative story of a boy that there exists a strong competition even in a trifling job like shoeshining. He feels that the anti social elements try to curb the enthusiasm of the young workers and turn them into homosexuals, smugglers, black markettiers etc. (Shanbag, Down and Out with Bombay Shoeshines).

In recent years, a trend has emerged to analyse the cost-benefit value of a child. Such studies have analysed the problem of child-labour from the theoretical point. They have tried to devise various ways to reasure the costs and benefits to the parents and society for bringing a child into this world. Some of the scholars who have made efforts in this regard are Dandekar (Child Labour: Do Parents Count it as an Economic Contribution); Hanumantha Rayappa (Economic Value of Children) Radhakrishnamurthy and Prasad Rao (Economic Rationality of Reproductive Motivation: A Case Study of Jalaries of Vishakhapatnam).

Vlassoff found on the basis of his survey that parents do not want their children as economic assets. Their non-economic values outweigh the economic values for poor as well as rich (Dandekar, Child Labour: Do Parents Count it as an Conomic Contribution), it has been felt that the developed societies are more conscious of the cost of rearing children and this has brought down their fertility rate. On the other hand in developing societies the benefits outweigh the costs and hence fertility is high (Hanumantha Rayappa, Economic Costs and Benefits from Children). Aspenshade believes that as the society becomes modernised and achieves higher level of economic and social development, the economic value of children to parents declines in

importance (ibid.). But economic value of children is not easy to measure. Leibenstein has identified it as

(i) the consumption value, (ii) work economic value,

(iii) economic risk, education value, (iv) old age security value, (v) long term family maintenance and contribution to the extended family. The costs are differentiated as (i) the perceived costs, (ii) direct costs and

(iii) opportunity costs (ibid.).

Some other studies have clarified the benefits as (i) psychologial satisfaction, (ii) contribution to ramily income, (iii) assistance in household chores, and (iv) old age security (Kulkarni, Economic Value of Children). But it is very difficult to measure all these variables. Some of them cannot be quantified at all. These *economic interpretation make no provision for a me chanism that guarantees harmonious, durable and dependable parent child relationships for the realigations of the future benefits from children by parents. says Radhakrishnamurthy (Economic Rationality of Reproductive Motivation: A Case Study of the Jalaries of Vishakhapatnam town). The family structure determines the parent-child relationship which is responsible for the reproductive motivation. The economic theory cannot develop the rationality of reproductive behaviour (ibid.).

Apart from such studies, efforts have been made to give suggestions to curb the problem to the maximum limit, ILO has done maximum effort in this respect. In

its various conventions it has tried to prohibit child labour, protect children at work, attack the basic causes of child labour and protect the children of the working mothers. (ESCAP, "ILO and Child Labour" in Social Development Newsletter). Many suggestions have been put forward by the committee set on child labour by the Ministry of Labour (Govt. of India, 1979) and several recommendations have also been made by the working group on child labour at the IASP Conference on 'Child in India' (Child in India - Resume of Proceedings and Conclusions and Recommendations of the Conference, President Indian Association for the Study of Population, Institute of Economic Growth Campus, Delmi, April 1979). The main tunctions of the committee on child labour were

- (i) to examine the existing laws, their adequacy and implementation and to suggest remedies to make them more effective.
- (ii) to examine the extent of child labour in different occupation and suggest appropriate laws which could abolish or regulate it,
- (iii) to suggest welfare measures to benefit children in the employment.

The recommendations made by various groups would be dealt within chapter IV.

^{4.} Child Labour in India (Document 4) in Chaturvedi, T.N. (Ed.) Indian Journal of Public Administration, July-September, 1979, vol.XXV, No.3, p.937.

(b) Gaps in the Studies:

The above mentioned studies have given many causes for the prevalence of child labour and its variation in different regions. But neither these reasons are adequate nor many of them have been proved mathematically. There are many gaps in these studies, some of which can be fulfilled as data for them can be obtained. Some of these studies have mentioned about the education, enrolement and school drop outs which make the children enter in the labour force. But none of them has tried to establish a statistical relationship.

Most of the studies have held poverty as a responsible factor for pushing children into work force. But again no attempt has been made to find out the relation between child labour, income level or the population considered to be poor, i.e. below the poverty line.

Relationships of the working children have been observed with the literacy rates, distance of the schools, married children, age specific deaths rates, birth rates etc. Some other indicators which are closely linked with workers could also be tried out. Some preliminary studies have shown that many students left the school because they lost interest in it. This can be examined in the light of infrastructural facilities, curricular programme including extra-curricular activities or the student-teacher ratio.

Children are sent to earn their living when either the wages of the earning members of the family are not sufficient or the children lose their father, mother or both. Theoretically, one can say that there are more chances of an orphan to enter into work force. Mathematically also, the significance of such a relationship can be worked out.

There is a common belief that most of the children of the deprived classes enter into the work force at an early age. But a statistical relationship between the two variables has not been worked out yet. Neither a combined effect of various factors taken together has been worked out to analyse the intensity of child-labour.

2. FORIULATION OF THE HYPOTHESES:

Reexamining the findings of the literature surveyed and some of the existing gaps in studies the following hypotheses have been formulated and tested:

(i) Deprived population is kept deprived of even the basic amenities like education. Economically also, the position of the deprived classes is not sound. They cannot bear the cost of educating their children, rather they want them to keep the family in its sustinence. The presence of deprived population at any place will give rise to children in the work force. Based on this presumption,

hypothesis postulated is that with an increase in the proportion of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe population the proportion of children in the work force will also increase.

- (ii) Literate parents realise the importance of education for their children. Hence, there is an inverse relationship between literacy rates and percentage of children in the work force.
- (iii) Schooling facilities can be availed only if they are available. India is basically a rural country and the number of schools in the villages is very small, so much so, that in many regions single school serves the population of many villages. It is difficult to imagine a small child of 7 or 8 years covering several kilometres everyday to attend a school. If he is not sent to the school, he would be asked to work, otherwise he would turn into an idler. Thus, there should be a positive relationship between the area covered by a school and children in the work force.
- (iv) There is a negative relationship between schooling facilities and children in the work force.
- (v) If there are few students with a teacher, he is able to give proper attention to each of them. With an increase in student-teacher ratio, negligence towards the former increases. The students not only neglect their studies but also seek outlet of their energies in anti-social activities. The parents who do not find any qualitative improvement in their children after sending them

- send them inthe labour market. Thus, child labour increases with an increase in student-teacher ratio.
- (vi) It is believed that students who drop out from the school enter into the workforce. Therefore, there should be a direct relationship between wastage rate and percentage of children in the work force.
- (vii) The extent of poverty can be measured through per capita income and population below the poverty line. It is the children of poor who act as an economic assett to their families. There is a positive correlation between child labour and population below the poverty line and per capita income.
- (viii) Marriage increases the responsibility towards the family affairs. Married children are more liable to enter the work force than unmarried ones. There is a positive correlation between married and working children.
- (ix) Orphan children have to take care not only of themselves but many a times of their younger siblings also. The orphanage of any type pushes children in the work force. There is a positive relationship between the two.
- (x) Higher birth rate gives rise to a large base of population which in a developing country like India leads to more unemployment. To compensate the family income

unemployment of adults gives birth to child employment.

Hence, there is a positive relationship between the

birth rate or imcrease in child population and child

labour.

(xi) Better socio-economic conditions and availability of medical facilities lead to a higher expectations of life. The first two conditions have an adverse effect on child labour. There is a negative relationship between child labour and expectation of life at birth.

The validity and acceptance of these hypotheses shall be discussed in the next chapter where these relationships have been statistically tested.

SECTION-II: HISTORICAL RESUME OF CHILD LABOUR LAWS - WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO INDIA

Child Labour Laws:

By his natural instinct a child keeps on doing something or the other. He cannot sit idle. The occasional light work which he does in his own home from an early age is gratifying and educational. 'Work, as a direct fulfilment of a child's natural abilities and creative potentialities, is always conducive to its healthy growth. But work when taken up as a measure for the fulfilment of some other needs becomes enslaving in character and deleterious in its impact." It harms the present as well as the future

^{4.} Narain, Vatsala, 'The Assignment of Work! in Srinivasan, K., Saxena, P.C., Kanitkar, Tara (Ed.) Demographic and Socio-economic Aspects of the Child in India, p.553

physical and mental health of the child. Efforts have always been made to protect him from such exploitation and enable him to have a balanced and healthy growth. It is only through customs and laws that the interests of a child can be taken care of on one side, and employment and wages of adult on the other. In fact, it is a vicious circle, where child labour increases unemployment among adult labour and reduces its wages and in turn the unemployment and reduced wages of adults compel children to work in order to boost the family income.

The problem of child employment pertains not only to the developing countries but to many of the developed countries also, like Italy, Greece, France, America etc. In these countries because of the illegality of the child labour, neither law nor trade union are able to protect them from the hazards of early employment. The problem would have worsened had there been no legal practices to protect the youngsters from the ill effects of early employment.

A. Role of ILO:

The International Labour Organization has played an important role in the gradual elimination of child labour, since its foundation in 1919. The programmes of

^{5.} Mendelievich, Elias (Ed.) Children at Work (International Labour Office, Geneva, 1979), p.13.

ILO focus their attention on the five main issues: prohibiting child labour; protecting children at work; attacking the basic causes of child labour; helping children to adopt to future work life; and protecting children of working mothers.

The highest priority was given to the abolition of child labour in the activities of ILO. A series of convention and recommendations have been formulated to regulate and limit and gradually abolish child labour. everywhere. The very first International Labour Conference adopted a convention which fixed the minimum age at 14 years for the industrial employment of the children. The subsequent sessions of ILO adopted various conventions and recommendations concerning the minimum age of entry into economic activities. "A 'Convention' is binding on the Member-State which ratifies it: a 'Recommendation' is intended as a guideline for national action." A Convention imposes an international obligation on a member state to abide by it, but it is necessary for a state to ratify it in order to be bound by its provisions. A recommendation is meant for the guidance of member-states to take action but does not create an international obligation. A Recommendation contains matters of a far advanced character which may not be

^{6. &}quot;ILO and Child Labour" in <u>Social Development Newsletter</u>, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific, No.1. September 1980, p.18

^{7.} Report of the National Commission on Labour, 1969. Ministry of Labour, Employment and Rehabilitation, Government of India, p.473.

possible for a particular period of time for all the member states to adopt. Ultimately, a Recommendation may lead to the adoption of a Convention. (Pandhe, M.K., (Ed.), Child Labour in India, India Book Exchange, Calcutta, pp.1-2).

Till now 18 Conventions and 16 Recommendations have been adopted by International Labour Organization, in the interest of working children all over the world. These Conventions are as follows:

- 1. Minimum Age (Industry) Convention (No.5), 1919.
- 2. Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (No.6), 1919.
- 3. Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (No.7), 1920.
- 4. Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention (No.10), 1921.
- 5. Minimum Age (Trimmers and stockers) Convention (No.15), 1921.
- 6. Medical Examination of Young Persons (sea)
 Convention (No.16), 1921.
- 7. Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention (No.33), 1932.
- 8. Minimum Age (sea) Convention (revised)(No.58), 1936.
- 9. Minimum Age (Industry) Convention (revised) (No.59), 1937.

^{8.} Document 4: 'Child Labour in India,' The Indian Journal of Public Administration, xxv (3), July-September 1979, p.936

- 10. Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention (revised) (No.60), 1937.
- 11. Medical Examination (sea farer) Convention (No.73), 1946.
- 12. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Industry)
 Convention (No.77). 1946.
- 13. Medical Examination of Young Persons (NonIndustrial Occupations) Convention (No.78).1946.
- 14. Night Work of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations) Convention (No.79), 1946.
- 15. Night work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (Revised) (No.90), 1948.
- 16. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Underground work) Convention (No.124), 1965.
- 17. Minimum Age (Underground work) Convention (No.123), 1973.
- 18. Minimum Age Convention (No.138), 19/3.

The convention No.138 replaced all the previous relevant Convention, that is, its purpose was to establish minimum standards valid for all sectors of economic activity, with a view to achieve total aboution of child labour.

To make this Convention apply its principles easily, Recommendation No.146 was adopted, which advocates, among other things, a firm national commitment to full employment;

the progressive extentions of socio-economic measures to alleviate poverty and ensure high living standards to keep children away from economic activity; the development and progressive extension of social security and ramily welfare measures aimed at ensuring child maintenance, including children's allowances; the development and progressive extension of adequate facilities for education and appropriate vocational training for children and young persons; the development and progressive extension of appropriate facilities for the protection and welfare of children and young persons, including employed young persons, and for the promotion of their development; adoption of special measures for migrant children and young persons who do not live with their families; introduction of compulsory full time attendance at school till the age of admission to employment.9

B. Role of Indian Constitution:

The problem of child labour is a severe problem in India, where 5.95 per cent of the work force is composed of the youngsters who are below the age of 15. In this poor country, it is not possible at present, to abolish child labour completely. But, government has been trying since independence to reduce the extent and severity of the problem. It has ratified and implemented, 6 conventions

^{9. &}quot;Recommendation Concerning Minimum Age for Admission to Employment," in Mendelievich, Elias (Ed.) Children at Work. International Labour Office, Geneva 1979, p.156

out of 18, adopted by International Labour Organization. These are:

- 1. Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919.
- 2. Night work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention, 1919.
- 3. Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stockers) Convention, 1921.
- 4. Medical Examinations of Young Persons (Sea)
 Convention, 1921.
- 5. Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (Revised), 1948.
- 6. Minimum Age (Underground work) Convention, 1973.

This Minimum Age Convention of 1973 prescribed that the normal entry in the labour force should not be below 14 years in any of the occupations except the hazardous jobs, where it should be raised to 18 years.

Due to the unorganized nature of the economic sector in India, the child labour laws have not been able to reach the standards set forth by ILO. The following legislations have been enacted to regulate the employment of Children in India:

(a) Legislations Before Independence:

During the International Archives week, 23-29th October 1979, the National Archives of India brought out a bocklet under the theme 'Archives and the Child,' which was a compilation of extracts from the old documents.

These documents which threw some light on the Child Labour Legislations, are as follows:

- 1. Apprentice Contracts: According to Act xix of 1850 any child could be bound as an apprentice for learning trade, craft or for employment upto a maximum of seven years (Acts of the Government of India, 1850-53).
- 2. Working Hours: The India Factories Act, 1881, lays down that no child below 7 should be employed in any factory, nor a child should work in any factory for more than nine hours a day with an hour's compulsory rest (Legislative Papers of Act XV of 1881).
- 3. Factory Child: In 1890, Government of India's resolution required Surgeon Major Lethbridge to report apart the fixation of age of a factory child at 12 instead of 9, and the limitation of 9 hours of work in a day for children (Home Judicial A Progs., October 1890, Nos. 235-74). Lethbridge recommended that the actual hours of work of children below 14 should not exceed 6 hours a day.
- 4. A Day's Rest: The bill of 1891, which amended the Indian Factories Act, 1881, suggested compulsory closure of factories for one day in a week (Legislative A Progs., April 1891, No.74-392).
- 5. Employment of the Physically Unfit: In 1906, a circular invited the views of the local Governments and Administrators to amend the existing law relating

- to the employment of physically unfit minors in factories (Commerce and Industry, Factories A Progs., April 1906, Nos. 1-7).
- 6. Factory Timings: A new bill was introduced in 1909 by Mr. Marvey, to amend and consolidate the Factory law in India. It stressed a maximum period of 6 hours of work in a day in Textile factories, restricted from 5.30 a.m. to 7 p.m. (Legislative A Progs., August 1909, Nos. 27-51).
- 7. The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933: It stressed a penalty for parents and guardinas who pledged the labour of the child (Acts of the Indian Legislative, 1933). 10
- 8. Employment of Children Act (1938): It states that no child below the age of 15, shall be employed or permitted to work in the occupations like transportation, construction and workshops where any of the processes set in the schedule is carried on, for example, bidi making, carpet weaving, cement manufacturing, dying and printing, manufacture of matches and explosives, soap manufacturing, tanning, wool cleaning, etc.

^{10.} Archives and the Child, National Archives of India, New Delhi, October 1979, pp. 16-18

(b) Legislations After Independence:

At the time of independence, constitutional provisions were made to protect the rights of the child in India. Article 24 of the constitution provides, 'No child below the age of 14 years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment." Article 39 protects the children against 'exploitation' and 'moral and material abondonment' arising due to their forced entry into vocations unsuited to their age and strength. Apart from that warious Acts have laid down provisions to provide legal protection to children. These acts, enacted chronologically, are as follows:

(i) Factories Act, 1948:

This act is the main instrument to protect children against exploitation and extends to the whole of India, except the State of Jammu and Mashmir. According to Section 67 of this Act, no child who has not completed his fourteenth year shall we allowed to work in any factory. It further states that a child between the age of 14 and 15 cannot be employed for more than 4½ hours a day and cannot be employed in more than one shift or more than one factory in a day. Section 27 of this Act lays:

No child shall be employed in any part of a factory for pressing cotton in which cotton opener is at work, provided that the reed-end of the cotton opener is in a room separated from the delivery and by partition

^{11.} The Factories Act, 1948, Section 1 (2)

extending to the roof. According to Section 34 (2) of this Act: The (State) Governments may make rules prescribing the maximum weights which may be lifted, carried or moved by children employed in factories or any class or description of factories or in carrying on any specified process. This act also prohibits the employment of children in a factory during night. (Night means at least 12 consecutive hours including the interval between 10 p.m. to 6 a.m.).

This act does not apply to the factories where the number of employees is less than 10 in case of factories where power is used for manufacturing and less than 20 where power is not used. Thus, there is no statutory protection to children employed in these factories. 12

(ii) The Plantations Labour Act, 1951:

This Act considers a child as a person who has not completed his fifteenth year, and it covers all tea, coffee, rubber, cinchona etc. plantation, which use a minimum of 10 hectares of area or in which more than 30 persons are employed. Section 24 of this Act lays down, "No child who has not completed his twelfth year shall be required or allowed to work in any plantation." The 19th Section of this Act prohibits the children employed in plantation to work for more than 40 hours a week. Section 25 proclaims

^{12.} The Factories Act, 1948.

that except with the permission of the State Government, no child worker shall be employed in any plantation otherwise than between the hours of 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. Section 5, 6 and 7 of this Act make provisions for education as a responsibility of the employer and thus make it more comprehensive. 13

(iii) The Mines Act 1952:

This Act extends to the whole of India and covers the excavation sites where mining operation is going on.

Section 2 (c) of this Act defines a child as the one who has not completed his fifteenth year. Section 45 of the Mining Act lays down that no child shall be employed in any mines nor shall any child be allowed to be present in any part of a mine which is below ground or in any (open cast working) in which any mining operation is carried on. 14

An employer contravening the provisions of child labour is punishable with imprisonment upto three months or a fine upto Rs.1,000 or with both. 15

(iv) The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958:

This Act applies to the sea-going ships which are registered in India according to Section 109 of this Act:
No person under fifteen years of age shall be engaged or carried to sea to work in any capacity in any ship, except

^{13.} The Plantation Labour Act, 1951.

^{14.} Tne Mines Act, 1952.

^{15.} Pandhe, M.K. (Ed.) Child Labour in India, India Book Exchange, 1979, p.5

- (a) in a school ship or training ship, in accordance with the prescribed conditions; or
- (b) in a ship in which all persons employed are members of one family; or
- (c) in a home made ship of two hundred tons gross; or
- (d) where such person is to be employed on nominal wages and will be in the charge of his father or other adult near male relative.

(v) The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961:

It covers the motor transport undertakings which employ 5 or more transport workers. Under Section 21 of this Act, no child who has not completed his fifteenth year shall be required or allowed to work in any capacity in the motor transport undertakings. 16

(vi) The Apprentices Act, 1961:

This Act provides the regulations and controls of training of apprentices in trade and industry. Under Section 3 (a) of this Act, a person shall not be qualified for being engaged as an apprentice to undergo apprenticeship training unless he is not less than 14 years of age. 7

This Act deals with matters like qualification for being engaged as an apprentice, contract and period of apprenticeship, practical and basic training of

^{16.} The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961.

^{17.} The Apprentices Act, 1961.

apprentices, obligations of employees and apprentices, payment, hours of work, health, safety and welfare of apprentices.

(vii) State Shops and Commercial Establishments Acts:

The places where Factories Act does not apply, like shops and establishments, restaurents and hotels and places of amusement in urban areas, are covered under this Act, whose statutes vary from state to state. The minimum age for employment in shop and other commercial establishments is 12 years in Bihar, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesn, Karnataka, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Goa Daman and Diu and Manipur and 14 years in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Haryana, Himachal, Kerala, Tamilnadu, Punjab, Delhi, Chandigarh, Pondicherry and Heghalaya. The minimum age for employment is 15 years in Maharashtra. There are no separate Acts for shops and commercial establish ments in the rest of the states and union territories. The daily working hours for children vary from 5-7 hours, in between 6 a.m. and 7 p.m.

(viii) Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment)
Act, 1966:

This Act considers a person as a child if he has not completed 14 years of age. To escape the provision of the act, the employers split the concern into smaller units. Manufacturer of beedis get the work done through contract labourers, who do it at their home. To solve this problem, this Act applies to all beedi and Cigar

making units irrespective of the number of persons employed. 18

Though a number of laws have been made to protect the children from exploitation through employment, still India ranks very high among the countries which are taking this problem. It is because of the prevelance of the unorganised sector in the country. The National Commission on Labour in 1969 reported that the 'Employment of children is almost non-existent in organized industries. It persists in varying degrees in the unorganised sector such as small plantations, restaurants and hotels, cotton ginning and weaving, carpet weaving, stone breaking, brick kiln, handicrafts and road building." Thus unless the loopholes in the laws are removed, the problem will continue in this poverty stricken country.

(ix) The Employment of Children (Amendement) Act, 1978:

In November 1978, the Employment of children Act, 1938 was amended. According to the later act, the new clauses which were connected with Cinderpicking, clearing of ash pits or building operation or connected with the work on railway stations and moving trains were inserted in the former act. One salient feature of this act is that every rule made by the Central Government under this act shall be applicable as soon as it is formed and passed.

^{18.} Beedi and Cigar Workers (conditions of employment) Act, 1966.

Any modification or amendment shall be without prejudice to the validity of anything previously done under that rule (Ministry of Labour Commission dated 15.5.1979).

C. Committee on Child Labour:

The Ministry of Labour set up a Committee in 1979, the International Year of the Child, to study the problem of child labour which suggested suitable measures. The main functions of the committee were

- (i) to examine the existing laws, their adequacy and implementation and to suggest remedies to make them more effective,
- (ii) to examine the extent of child labour in different occupations and suggest appropriate laws which could abolish or regulate it.
- (iii) to suggest welfare measures to benefit the children in employment. 20

The recommendations by this Committee on child labour in India are under the consideration of the government and have been briefly discussed in Chapter IV.

^{19.} Govt. of India, Indian Labour Journal: Labour Bureau, Ministry of Labour, Vol.20, June 1979, No.6, p.1153

^{20.} Child Labour in India (Documentation 4), in Chaturvedi, T.N. (ed.), Indian Journal of Public Administration, July-September 1979, Vol.XXV, No.3, p.937

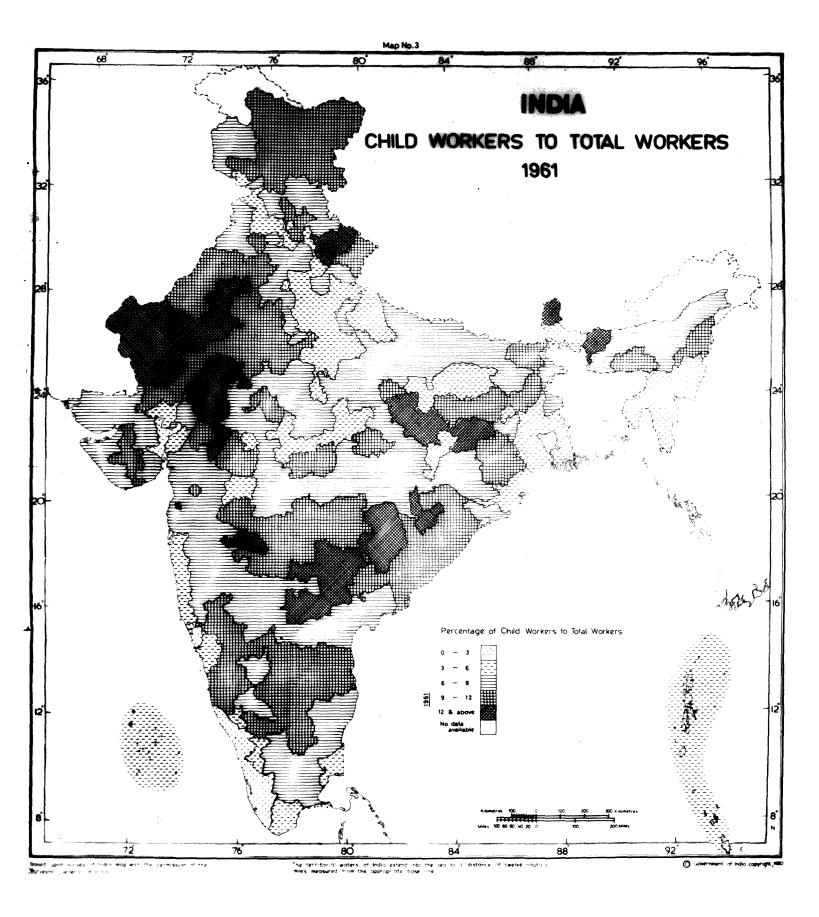
CHAPTER-III

CHILD WORK FORCE IN INDIA

SECTION-I

Child Workers in India:

According to the official figures, released by Census, there were 10.7 million child workers in 1971, out of which nearly three fourth were males. total child population of the country had increased from 180 million in 1961 to 230 million in 1971, yet the number of young earners had declined by nearly 4 million (from 14.4 million in 1961) during this period indicating an improvement in the situation of children. figures show that though the number of both males and remales has declined, it is the female children who have experienced a drastic decline in their participation in economic activities. Their number has gone down by nearly 50 per cent in one decade. This drastic decline cannot be credited to development alone. The Census definition of worker has changed from 1961 to 1971. The 'main activity' of 1971 Census definition of a worker mas kept many part time earners out of the economically active population. It has affected moretfemales who are generally involved in household chores and the students who can sometimes work part-time to supplement their means.



The share of children in the work force has declined mainly among the males and total children from 1961 to 1971. The percentage of child workers to total workers has gone down from 7.66 per cent in 1961 to 5.95 per cent in 1971. For male children, it has reduced from 6.72 per cent to 5.28 per cent during this period. But for female children the change is only marginal, 9.71 to 9.11 per cent.

a) Spatial Distribution of Child Work Force:

There is a high degree of variation in proportion of children in the work force, in different parts of India. For instance, in the districts of Kerala, parts of West Bengal, Western Uttar Pradesh, Chandigarh, Delhi, Goa, Daman and Diu, Lakshdweep and Andaman and Nicobar Islands the share of children in the work force is very low, even less than 3 per cent. It is extremely low in all the metropolitan cities. Bombay has the minimum value of 0.99 per cent. In all the coastal districts except those of Andhra Pradesh and Gujrat children are economically less active (Map No.3 and 4 and Appendix Table 3(a) and 3(b).

The districts of Madhya Pradesh and Andhra
Pradesh which are dominated by tribal population, many
of the districts of Rajasthan and Karnataka, the hilly
districts of Uttar Pradesh and Sikkim register a higher
proportion of children in the work force. This value

is highest in Bastar district of Madhya Pradesh at a level of 13.35 per cent.

Most of the districts fall in the same category both during 1961 and 1971. But a remarkable change has been observed in Jaisalmer district of Rajasthan where the percentage of child workers has gone down from 12.15 per cent in 1961 to 4.8 per cent in 1971 and Garhwal district of Uttar Pradesh where it has reduced from 14.98 per cent to 5.75 per cent during the same period. In general, the proportion of working children is higher in all the districts in 1961 as compared to 1971. In 1961 it was highest, 16.6 per cent, in Dungarpur district of Rajasthan and lowest (1.08) in Calcutta. Calcutta showed a higher (1.75 per cent) participation rate of child population in economic activities during 1971 as compared to 1961.

when we look at the map of 'Levels of Development' and compare it with the proportion of children in the work force, we find the two related to a considerable extent. The ditricts with a low level of development have a high proportion of children in the work force and vice-versa. In more developed areas people are better off and have more facilities. Even those who are at the lower economic and social strata try their best to educate their children so that they can do better in their lives. On the other

^{1.} Mitra, A; Levels of Regional Development in India, Census of India, 1961, Vol.1, Port I-A (i).

hand, in the underdeveloped areas, neither the essential facilities like schooling etc. are available at a snorter distance, nor the parents have sufficient means to avail whatever little is provided to them. The data obtained from the Third Educational Survey conducted by NCERT in the year 1973 reveal that a primary school covers an area of 422 sq. kms. in rural Ladakh, 146 sq. kms. in Lahul and Spiti and 65 sq. kms. in Pondicherry, whereas this coverage is only 0.09 sq. km. in Calcutta and 0.3 sq. kms. in Delhi. 2 Obviously, in case of such vast differences, we cannot expect every parent in the less developed areas to send his child to school. An idle child wastes his time and makes his mind a devil's workshop. Many parents do not want it and send their children to the labour force so that the children remain engaged in work and the family is benefitted economically.3

million working male children in the country as compared to 2.8 million working female children. But still, the proportion of male child workers to total male workers is 5.28 per cent, whereas that of female children in the female work force is 9.11 per cent. This shows that nearly double the percentage of females are asked to work in the childhood than males. While describing the economic value

^{2.} Computed from Third Educational Survey of India, NCERT, 1973.

^{3.} Singh, Musafir, et.al., Working Children in Bombay - A Study.

of children in India, Prof. Mitra has remarked that 'The daughters in their childhood and adolescence (until marriage) are neglected and more labour is usually extracted from them by parents because the net outflow of wealth from daughters to their parents generally stops after marriage." After marriage, these women get indulged into rearing of children during the early parts of their married lives and hence have little time left to participate in the economic activities.

The distribution of male child workers is in the same pattern as that of the total working children. Their lowest proportion was found in Alleppey district of Kerala for both 1961 (0.99 per cent) and 1971 (0.56 per cent). The highest share was found in Dungarpur (14.99 per cent) in 1961 and Kalahandi of Orissa (14.1 per cent) in 1971. Generally, the figures have come down from 1961 to 1971.

The variation in case of female working children is more than in males or total children. It varied from 1.03 per cent in Mizoram to 20.67 per cent in Hissar in 1961 and from 1.05 per cent in Ganganagar and Chandigarh to 25.9 per cent in Dungarpurin 1971. Ganganagar, (9.37 in 1961) has experienced a drastic decline. This might be attributed to the introduction of irrigation to the district which made the girls get rid of fetching water

^{4.} Mitra, Asok, India's Population: Aspects of Quality and Control, Abhinav, 1978, p.550.

in pitchers for the fields. Barring this, all the other districts of Rajasthan have a very high proportion of female children in the work force. The other pockets with high ratio lie in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Orissa, Madnya Pradesh, i.e. the interior of Peninsula, parts of Bihar, Maryana and Gujrat and the hilly districts of Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and parts of Jammu and Kashmir. On the other nand the coastal districts of Kerala and Maharashtra and parts of West Bengal, Western Uttar Pradesh, Mizoram, Lakshdweep and the metropolitan cities have a lower proportion of female children in the work force.

It has been found that literacy plays an important role in determining the percentage of children in the economic activity. In Kerala, where the literacy rates are very high (69.75 per cent) the proportion of child workers is very low (1.79 per cent). In Chandigarh these rates are 70.43 per cent and 1.26 per cent and in Delhi 65.08 per cent and 1.39 per cent respectively. On the other side, Rajasthan which has 7.29 per cent of the children in the work force has a literacy rate of 22.57 per cent. In Andhra Pradesh these percentages are 9.03 per cent and 28.52 per cent respectively.

The percentage of rural children in the rural work force was 8.42 per cent in 1961 and it came down to 6.71 per cent in 1971. This distribution is found to be very

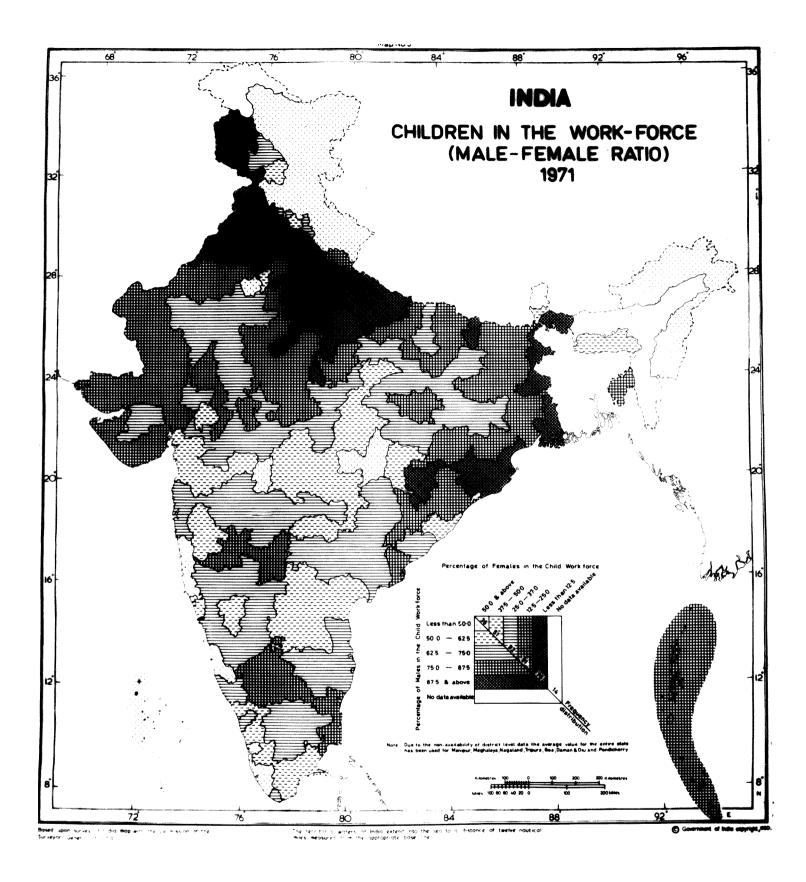
^{5.} Govt. of India, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Literacy Statistics at a Glance, 1979.

high in the tribal belt of Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra. Many of the districts of Rajasthan and Gujrat and the hilly districts of Uttar Pradesh are also on the higher side. Districts of Kerala, most of the Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Punjab, Arunachal Pradesh, Tripura, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Goa, Daman, Diu, Delhi and the islands have a low proportion of the rural children in the work force (Appendix Table 3(a) and 3(b). This ratio becomes higher as many of the adults migrate from the villages to the urban areas in search of jobs. In their absence from the village and the land, many of the trifling things are to be done by the children, e.g. looking after the cattle and some more agricultural occupations.

It is observed that percentage of child workers in the urban labour force is very low in the north-eastern part of the country, parts of Jammu and Kashmir, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujrat and coastal districts of Maharashtra. It is very high in the interior districts of Andhra Pradesh. and Karnataka (Appendix Table 3). This ratio depends upon a considerable extent to the level of urbanization. With the increase of urbanization the share of children in the economic activities decreases as parents start phaying more attention to their youngsters. It is only the children of slum dwellers in the urban areas who are unfortunately, unable to avail the number of facilities

provided to them. They lack resources and have to help their parents in earning so as to maintain the subsistence of the family.

The participation rate of the child workers in the urban areas is nearly one third of that in the rural areas. The urban participation rate was 3.02 per cent in 1961 and 2.42 per cent in 1971. The reasons for this lower proportion in the urban areas are manifold. First, the organised sector in urban areas provides little opportunities for absorption of child labour as hiring child labour is in contravention to the child labour laws. Secondly, the diversified economic activities in the urban areas call for specialised skill and training and hence are suitable mainly for adults. Children get absorbed primarily in the unorganised sector, small establishments, households, etc. where professional skill is not required. This, however, limits the area of their activity. Thirdly, in highly competitive urban areas, parents strive their best to get their children trained and skilled professionally before their entry into the labour market, which in turn reduces the child workers ratio in rural areas. Fourth, the easy accessibility of educational facilities and vocational training centres in the urban areas, are further incentives for parents for acquirement of basic education and skill for their children before their entering into job-market.



Out of the total working children males are nearly four times that of females. In the State of Himachal Pradesh and the Union Territories of Arunachal Pradesh and Lakshdweep the proportion of females in the child work force is higher than the males. In the district of Lahul and Spiti there are 78.5 per cent females in the working children. It seems that it is the household industries which employ more females than males. Goa, Daman and Diu, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Nagaland and Kerala are few places where the share of male and female children in the workforce is nearly equal. The districts of Punjab, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Orissa, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Tripura, Delhi, Chandigarh and Andaman and Nicobar Islands have a very high difference in two sexes in the child work force (Map. 5). In Punjab this difference is maximum where the percentage of males in the child work force is as high as 98.65 per cent. Sangrur tops in the list where this share is 99.35 per cent (Appendix Table 4). It is observed that the sex-discrimination in the working children is very high in the northern part of the country, especially in the developed States. This might be because of higher urbanization of these States which has a higher scope for male children in the work force. In this chunk itself there is a discrimination. In areas which grow wheat the difference between the sexes is more than the areas which grow rice. This has something to do with the amount of

physical labour involved in the growth of these two crops.

When we look at the rural-urban participation ratio of child workers, we find that as much as 92.78 per cent of the child labour force is engaged in rural areas. This ratio is very high in all the states (above 90 per cent), except for Kerala, Karnataka, Tamilnadu and West Bengal. Few districts are either completely rural or completely urban. In few other districts and Union Territories which are highly urbanised, such as Ahmadabad, Bangalore, Lucknow, Howrah, Chandigarh and Delhi, proportion of urban child workers is on a higher side. It is as high as 86.74 per cent in Chandigarh and 86.13 per cent in Delhi (Lap 6 and Appendix Table 5). The reasons for high rural-urban ratio have already been discussed in this chapter.

b) Sectoral Distribution of the Child Work Force:

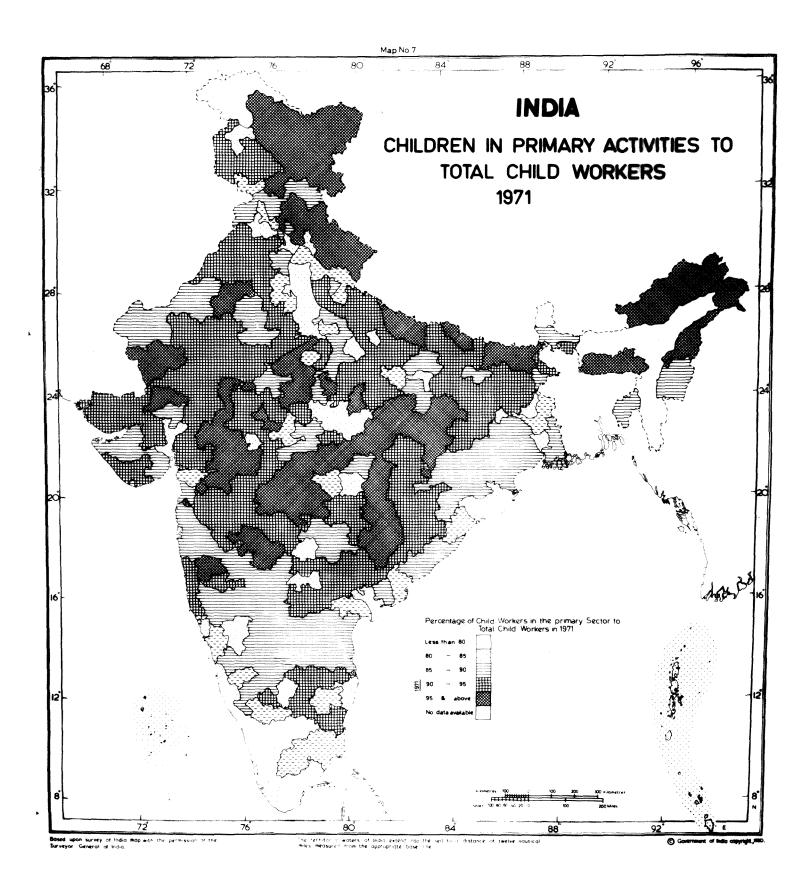
Just like adults, child workers are also concentrated in the primary sector. Their percentage in this
sector was as high as 80.35 per cent in 1961 and it went
upto 87.23 in 1971. On the other hand their proportion
in secondary sector experienced a decline of nearly 50
per cent when it came down from 12.37 per cent to 6.64
per cent. Tertiary sector, also underwent a decline,
which was not so a gnificent, from 7.27 per cent to 6.13
per cent during this period. This decline in the
secondary and tertiary sectors and increase in the

primary sector might be attributed to gradual social changes in the urban areas where the secondary and tertiary sectors predominate. The Apprentice Act of 1961 and the Beedi and Cigar Act of 1966 might have had an affect on the decline of child workers in secondary sector. But it has been found in many studies (Masaffir Singh, Pandhe, etc.) that generally the employers are not aware of the legal Acts pertaining with the child labour. The sectoral shift might have been because of the increasing literacy rates and enrolement with the passage of time, especially in the The literacy rates of the population in urban areas. the age group 5-9 and 10-14 went up from 19.83 per cent to 23.15 per cent and 42.26 per cent to 49.62 per cent respectively during the period 1961-1971. For the population in the age group 15-35 it went up from 32.4 per cent to 42.0 per cent. 7 Increase in literacy increases enrolement and this in turn affects employment status of the population. In urban areas this affect is found more than in the rural areas.

^{6.} Singh, Musaffir, et.al., Working Children in Bombay - A Study, NIPCCD, 1979.

Pandhe, M.K. (Ed.), Child Labour in India, Indian Institute for Regional Development Studies, Kottayam.

^{7.} Literacy Statistics at a Glance, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, 1979.



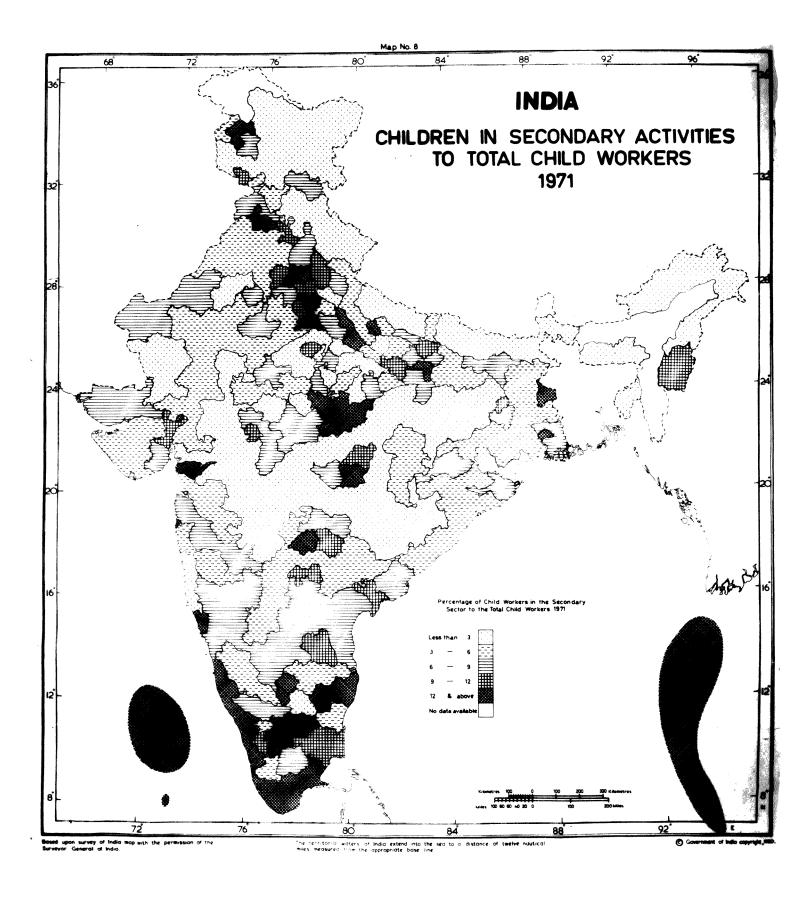
As our base is total working children a decline in child participation rate in any sector is going to give rise to other sector.

Rural areas also have the same pattern as the total areas. The only difference is that the proportion of the primary sector has gone up and that of the secondary and tertiary sectors has declined in both the decades, i.e. 1961 and 1971. On the other hand the urban areas have an entirely different picture. It is the tertiary sector which plays the dominant role followed by the secondary sector.

Table-3.1: Sectoral Distribution of Child
Workers

	· · · · · 1	1961		1971			
	R	Ū	R	U			
Primary	83.57	22.80	92.08	24.85			
Secondary	10.86	38.56	4.38	35.72			
Tertiary	5.53	38.31	. 3.54	39.43			

Map No.7 shows that there is a high percentage of children in the primary sector in the north-eastern part of the country, in the interior districts of Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra, parts of Rajasthan and the hilly districts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh.



It is very low in the southern states, i.e. the entire Kerala, most of Tamilnadu, parts of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka and few districts of Western Uttar Pradesh. All the Union Territories except Arunachal Pradesh and Dadra and Nagar Haveli also have a low share of working children in the primary sector (Appendix Table 6). When we come to the secondary sector, the picture just reverses. The regions which have a higher share in primary sector have a lower share in the secondary sector and vice-versa (Map No.8). Thus the southern states, metropolitan cities, union territories except Arunachal Pradesh and Dadra and Nagar Haveli and parts of Western U.P., Punjab and West Bengal have a high proportion of children in secondary sector. The central belt of the country comprising of Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh, the north-eastern part of the country. parts of Rajasthan and the districts along the foothills of Himalayas have a very low proportion of children in the secondary activities (details in Appendix Table 6). The districts which rank very high in respect of their percentage of child work-force in the tertiary sector lie in the States of Kerala, West Bengal. Orissa, Karmataka, Western Uttar Pradesh, and the Union Territories of Delhi, Lakshdweep, Andaman and Nicobar islands, Chandigarh, Goa, Daman and Diu.

Based upon survey of India map with the permission of the Surveyor General of India

the central belt, north-eastern States and the hilly districts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh it is very low in the tertiary sector (Map No.9 and Appendix Table No.6).

An examination of the sectoral distribution of child workers show that there is a direct correspondence between level of development and the share of children in different activities. The development is the result of industrialization which also brings in urbanization. The more developed districts have a higher percentage of children in the secondary and tertiary sectors and less developed districts predominantly in primary sector. The Panch Mahals and the Dangs districts of Gujrat, Doda and Punch of Jammu and Kashmir and Chamoli and Tehri Garhwal of Uttar Pradesh have more than 98 per cent of their child work force in the primary sector. Calcutta, Madras and Bombay have this percentage at a very low level, 0.3 per cent, 1.35 per cent and 1.58 per cent respectively. Lakshdweep has the highest proportion of children in the secondary sector (76.3 per cent) followed by Cannanore (47.2 per cent), Delhi (47.0 per cent) and Madras (41.7 per cent). This sector has a very low share in Arunachal Pradesh (0.15 per cent) and Nagaland (0.3 per cent). The tertiary sector is dominant in the metropolitan cities, Calcutta 75.8 per cent, Bombay 71.6 per cent and Madras 56.9 per cent.

Surguja has the lowest value of 0.8 per cent in this sector.

There are several areas which though are at a very low level of development, still have a higher proportion of working children in secondary or tertiary sector. These are the places which have the house-hold industries as their basic mode of production e.g. Lakshdweep and Manipur. An interesting attribute of these places is that they have a higher proportion of females in the child work force than males.

Table-3:2: Sectoral Distribution of Male and Female Child Workers

	1	961	1971		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Primary	78.28	83.13	87.35	86,88	
Secomary	13.35	10.97	6.12	8.09	
Tertiary	8.33	5.87	6.53	5.03	

If we look at Table 3.2, we find that the proportion of both male and female children in the work force is very high in the primary sector. In case of males, the second important sector is tertiary which is slightly higher than the secondary, but in case of females the secondary sector has a significantly higher role to play than the tertiary sector. It might be because the

secondary sector provides more social security, if not physical, than the tertiary sector. The scope for females in the tertiary sector is only in the household jobs, whereas for males opportunities exist in house-holds, petty shops or they can run their own business without much danger to their social security.

c) Industrial Distribution of the Working Children:

Nearly four fifth of the child workers are working in the agriculture sector only. 36.13 per cent of the economically active children are working as cultivators and 42.6 per cent as agricultural labourers. Livestock, forestry etc. is another important occupation which absorbs 8.2 per cent children. It is followed by the children engaged in household and non-household industries. In mining and quarrying and transport, storage and communication, construction, least proportion of child workers are involved. In these three industrial categories, which require lot of physical labour and are hazardous to the health of children, child labour is banned. But still because of the improper implications of the law and the loopholes in them, a number of children are engaged in these activities.

This industrial distribution has changed to a considerable extent since 1961, when the first category only, i.e. the cultivators had more than half of the working children. The category of agricultural labourers

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Upon survey of India map with the permission of the The territorial waters of India extend into the sea to a distance of twelve nautical miles measured from the appropriate base line.

The Boundary of Meghalogo Shown on this map is as interpreted from the North-Eastern areas; Reorganisation Act, 1971, But has yet to be verified.

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has become nearly double since that time. The proportion of children in the other services has shrunk to half (from 6.04 per cent to 3.77 per cent in 1971). Their share in manufacturing industries has increased from 1.66 per cent in 1961 to 6.07 per cent in 1971. Thus on the whole we find that 'agricultural labour' has attracted children from all the other industrial categories whose proportion has reduced. (Appendix Table No. 7a and 7b)

An examination of map No.10 shows that all the hilly states, i.e. Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Meghalya and Manipur have a very high proportion of children, more than three fourth, as 'cultivators.' On the other hand, in most of the Union Territories, it is the 'household' and 'non-household' industries and the 'other services' which have a high share of working children. Another interesting observation is that in the category of 'cultivators' there is a universal decline from 1961 to 1971, except in Manipur and Arunachal Pradesh. In Arunachal Pradesh there is a tremendous increase from 1.91 per cent to 94.53 per cent. This change might have occured because of the partial counting in the union territory in 1961.

While looking at the industrial distribution in rural and urban areas the proportions are well according

to the expectations. They are very high in the first two categories in the rural areas and in fifth, seventh and ninth categories, i.e. 'household' and 'non-house-hold industries,' 'trade and commerce' and 'other services' in urban areas.

On reviewing the spatial, sectoral and industrial distribution of the working children we can say that the developed areas have a comparatively low share of children in the work force. Most of these children work in the secondary and tertiary sectors. In urban areas the share of primary sector is very less. the less developed areas which have a higher percentage of children in work force, the cultivators and the agricultural labours are predominant. The proportion of children in the work force has decreased from 1961 to 1971 and it is the category of cultivators which is affected most. This change is mainly due to the change in the definition of a worker which has become more rigid in 1971. All those who were partly engaged in any economic activity and whose main occupation was non-economic in character have been kept out of the labour force. The category of cultivators (specially small holders who also work as agricultural labourers appears to have been affected the most by it. The decline in this category has been compensated by an increase in 'agricultural labour.'

SECTION-II - DFFDCTS OF SILECTED VARIABLES ON CHILD LABOUR

A. Correlates of Child Labour:

The indicators which I have taken as responsible factors for the participation of children in the economic activity can be divided into five main categories, viz. demographic, social, educational, economic and health indicators.

Demographic: In the demographic part only two variables have been taken: (a) the percentage of the urban population to total population, i.e. the level of urbanization, and (b) the percentage of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children to total children. On working out the correlations it was found that the level of urbanization has a negative variance with the percentage of children in the work force. This might be due to the stricter implementation of the laws or the tough competition with adults which children have to face in the labour market. It is assumed that scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children have to work more for the economic support of their family but a correlation between the two proved this hypothesis to be wrong. (Table-3.3). When the absolute values of these variables are used the correlation coefficients obtained are positive and significant (Table-3.9). This discripency in the results has arisen because of different bases we have used for finding out the percentages (child workers have

Table-3.3: Demographic Variables and Their Correlation with Child Work Force

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Percentage of S.C. + S.T. Children to total Children	Percentage of Urban Population to total popu- lation
2.	Andhra Pradesh Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana Himachal Pradesh Jammu and Kashmir Kerala Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra Manipur Meghalaya Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Familnadu Fripura Jettar Pradesh West Bengal Andaman & Nicobar Arunachal Pradesh Chandigarh Dadra & Nager Haveli Delhi Goa, Daman & Diu Lakshdweep Pondicherry	17.15 17.21 23.08 21.93 20.09 26.25 9.39 32.99 12.67 34.06 84.09 14.05 93.14 27.25 19.28 41.46 21.37 26.89 18.07 83.9 13.88 89.74 18.39 18.39 18.39 18.39 18.39 18.39	19.32 8.82 10.0 28.08 17.66 6.99 18.59 16.29 11.19 12.31 13.19 14.73 17.65 30.24 14.02 24.77 90.5 90.7
	r	0.172 (0.507)	-0.53 (3.25) [†]

r is coefficient of correlation. t value in parenthesis.

^{*}Significant at 1 per cent level.

been divided by total workers whereas SC+ST child population is divided by total children and urban population by total population).

Social: In social indicators, the two main factors taken were married and orphan children, the latter was again divided into three categories, i.e. paternal, maternal and complete orphans. It is well known that the feeling/responsibility makes one do some Though legally banned, child marriage has not completely vanished from India. Generally, after the marriage, for a few years these children stay with their parents. But is this marriage an obstacle in their education and creates any sort of economic responsibility among them? On working out a correlation between the percentage of married children to the total children and the share of children in the work force it was found that the two have a positive correlation which is significant at 10 per cent level of significance (Table-3.4). But when the absolute figures of married children and child workers were correlated, the relationship was found to be much higher. It was significant at 1 per cent level (as is shown in Table-3.9). Similar trend was observed in case of orphan children also. The percentages of paternal, maternal and complete orphans had an insignificant

Table-3.4: Correlation of Social Variables with Child Labour

S.No. State/Union Territories	Percentage of married		ge of orpl	
	children to total children	Paternal	Maternal	Complete
1. Andhra Pradesh 2. Assam 3. Bihar 4. Gujrat 5. Haryana 6. Himachal Pradesh 7. J & K	2.01 0.07 3.81 0.7 2.5 1.0 0.81	4.62 2.96 4.96 3.75 3.79	3.17 1.5 3.77 2.58 2.58	0.15 0.04 0.19 0.1 0.11
8. Kerala 9. Madhya Pradesh 10. Maharashtra 11. Manipur 12. Meghalaya	0.08 4.73 1.12 0.06 0.26	2.04 3.94 3.67	1.58 2.97 2.53	0.03 0.18 0.09
13. Mysore 14. Nagaland 15. Orissa 16. Punjab 17. Rajasthan 18. Tamilnadu	1.13 0.02 0.6 0.2 5.0 0.09 0.57	3.99 4.42 3.47 3.21 4.66	3.00 3.24 2.66 2.49 3.39	0.12 0.13 0.09 0.08 0.15
19. Tripura 20. Uttar Pradesh 21. West Bengal	4.72 0.96	5.22 3.68	3.83 2.95	0.20 0.11
22. A & N Islands 23. Arunachal Pradesh 24. Chandigarh 25. Dadra & N.Haveli 26. Delhi 27. Goa, Daman & Diu 28. Lakshdweep 29. Pondicherry	0.69 0.86 0.32 0.83 0.50 0.18 0.48 0.13			
r	0.36 (2.00) [†]	0.42 (1.66)	0.33 (1.26)	0.36 (1.39)

r is coefficient of correlation. t value in parenthesis.

^{*}Significant at 10 per cent level.

positive correlation with the percentage of children in the work force. But when their obsolute values were taken it was found that all of them had a very high significant positive correlation with the working children. E It has been observed that marriage and orphanage push the children into work force. Table 3.4 and 3.9 reveals that the paternal orphans have a higher correlation with the child workers than maternal or complete orphans. May be because many of the complete orphans go to the orphanages or children's homes where they are brought up by the governing bodies. orphans who are staying alone or with some cruel or poor guardian who have to go out for a living. The maternal orphans are looked after by fathers without putting much strain of economic activity on them. As generally, father is the economic asset to the family, the paternal orphans have to work more to support themselves and other family members. Thus there are more chances of a paternal orphan to enter into the labour force.

(iii) Educational Indicators: It is said that we do not have sufficient facilities to educate our children

Such discripency in the data might have generated because of the improper categorisation. While taking the percentages, we are dividing the orphan or married children with total child population and the working children with the total workers. The intrasion of total children or total workers reduces the effect to a considerable extent.

and prevent them from entering into the labour force.

But if the facilities are provided, would they avial
them? To see the affect of educational indicators on
child work force I ran its correlation with the following variables:

Primary schools per thousand childred aged 6-11.
Middle schools per thousand children aged 11-14.
Average area covered by a Primary school.
Average area covered by a middle school.
Number of students per teacher at the primary level.

Number of students per teacher at the middle level.

Effective Literacy Rates (excluding 0-4 age group).

Literacy Rates of child population (0-14).

Wastage Rates.

It was found that the primary and middle schools per thousand children in the respective age group and the average area covered by these schools had insignificant correlation with the share of children in the work force (Table-3.5). It means that the provision of schools and their distance is immaterial for the working children. There are certain other factors which affect their entry into labour force. The number of students per teacher in primary classes has some affect on the child work force. The value of r between the two is 0.35 which is

Table S. States/Union No. Territories	School/100 primary age group (6-11)	elation of 0 children middle age group (11-14)	Averag covere prim- ary	e area l d by a midd-	No. of	studen- teacher	hild Lab Wastage rates	our Literacy rates (exclud- ing 0-4)	Literacy rates of children (0-14)
1. A.P. 2. Assam 3. Bihar 4. Gujrat 5. Haryana 6. H.P. 7. J & K 8. Kerala 9. M.P. 10. Maharashtra 11. Manipur 12. Meghalaya 13. Mysore 14. Nagaland 15. Orissa 16. Punjab 17. Rajasthan 18. Tamilnadu 19. Tripura 20. U.P. 21. West Bengal	8 118 7 8 5 9 10 30 6 21 29 14 11 6 6 8 7 6 8	153 14624664773233221	7.49 4.94 3.45 8.76 8.37 14.2 39.89 9.09 7.05 2.16 4.99 17.41 4.85 7.84 2.25	75.39 30.18 13.56 57.88 61.93 124.36 13.39 52.17 18.43 50.13 73.47 17.15 60.54 33.52 39.78 69.51 22.46 40.93 28.61 31.29	37 37 38 27 28 42 30 44 23 37 37 37 35	30 24 33 24 22 32 37 39 17 40 61 21 22 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23	88.32 80.02 86.08 78.03 55.57 59.54 57.33 79.52 79.73 84.06 72.62 88.79 82.03 75.17 79.84	28.52 33.94 23.84 31.91 37.71 69.77 45.77 38.47 35.83 30.53 30.57 45.74 36.83 30.57 45.47 36.83 30.69 25.4 36.86	19.15 19.97 15.12 27.58 23.58 31.57 47.47 16.38 31.01 25.63 18.89 25.59 19.57 31.49 19.57 31.49 25.59 27.83
22. A. & N. Islands 23. Arunachal Pradesl 24. Chandigarh 25. D. & N. Haveli 26. Delhi 27. Goa, Daman, Diu 28. Lakshdweep 29. Pondicherry	11 9 12 16 2 9 4 9 0.098 (0.51)	4 2 17 1 3 3 4 0.03 (0.15)	57.59 173.04 2.92 3.13 1.01 4.57 2.0 1.68 0.088 (0.48)	4.75 3.85 24.6 4.57 6.49 0.14	30 36 32 31 30 33 0•346	20 16 26 28 20 28 15 32 0.21 (1.12)	71.58 79.9 11.12 91.09 21.31 67.35 77.75 67.13 0.51 (3.02)	51.15 13.26 70.43 18.12 65.08 51.48 51.76 53.38 -0.76 (6.18)	32.37 6.78 44.67 13.17 43.89 35.71 29.92 39.43 -0.71 (5.26) ^ε

^{*}Significant at 10 per cent level. r is coefficient of correlation. *Significant at 1 per cent level. t value in parenthesis.

significant at 10 per cent level of significance. Might be as the teacher is not able to handle greater number of students in a proper fashion some of them would be playing truant. Disliking this act some of the parents might send them in the work force. But the studentteacher ratio has an insignificant correlation at the middle level. Might be, if they do not like the school, they start taking training of some skilled occupation. instead of going straight in the labour market. With literacy rates of population and children the working children had a significant correlation at 1 per cent level of significance. The 'r' values in their cases were -0.76 and -0.71 respectively. The negative correlations suggest that as the percentage of literate increases the percentage of children in the work force decreases. correlation with the wastage rate is also significant at 1 per cent level (r=0.51). This indicator is a combination of drop outs and re-enrolements. It is obtained separately, for boys and girls by applying the probability of dying at a particular age (already discussed in chapter 1). It can be noted from Table-3.6 that wastage rate among girls is generally higher than boys but the difference between the two is not much. This difference is considerably high in Himachal Pradesh, the only state to have a negative wastage rate among boys. This might

Table-3.6: Wastage Rates

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Wa: Boys	stage Rate Girls	Total
	Tellionics	Doys	ATT.T2	TOUAL
2. 3. 4. 5. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 11. 11. 11. 11. 11. 11. 11	Andhra Pradesh Assam Bihar Gujarat Haryana Himachal Pradesh Jammu and Kashmir Kerala Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra Manipur Mysore Nagaland Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamilnadu Tripura Uttar Pradesh West Bengal	85.53 78.17 83.26 75.99 -50.08 (-) 2.18 60.47 57.97 77.91 61.80 76.39 79.1 73.65 84.55 75.75 80.31 75.45 74.04 75.63	92.16 82.72 93.72 81.26 68.68 23.48 56.7 56.59 82.83 79.85 89.86 70.80 93.55 78.63 80.8 74.73 90.02 78.68	88.32 80.02 86.08 78.03 55.57 59.54 59.52 79.52 79.52 79.73 82.03 75.17 79.95 76.84
22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	A. and N. Islands Arunachal Pradesh Chandigarh D. and N. Haveli Delhi Goa, Daman & Diu Lakshdweep Pondicherry	66.98 78.85 14.5 91.9 17.9 66.27 70.96 63.27	77.44 85.56 7.03 88.5 25.63 68.81 85.4 72.52	71.58 79.9 11.12 91.09 21.31 67.35 77.75 67.13

Meghalaya is included in Assam.

Computed from the data taken from the Ministry of Education.

have been because of the immigration of students or higher number of reenrolements. Despite compulsory education upto middle, we find a very high wastage rate in all the areas except Himachal Pradesh, Chandigarh and Delhi.

A significant positive relationship of wastage rates with the working children shows that most of the children who drop out from the school enter the labour force.

(iv) Economic Indicators: In the economic section, two indicators have been taken viz. per capita income and population below the poverty line. With per capita income the relationship of the working children is negative and insignificant (Table-3.7). The per capita income reduces the difference between very high and very low earnings. Thus, the effect on the working children is nullified. On working out the correlation between children in the work force and population below poverty line an interesting result was obtained. The value of r for rural areas is 0.089 which is quite insignificant and for urban areas it is 0.62, meaning thereby that in rural areas the effect of poverty on

^{*}The data for the percentage of population below the poverty line is available for rural and urban areas separately for few selected states only. (Table-1.11).

Table-3.7: Economic Variable and its
Correlation with Child Work
Force

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Per capita current income	Percentage of child workers to total workers
1.	Andhra Pradesh	585	9.03
2.	Assam	5 2 8	5.64
3 .	Bihar	426	6.05
4.	Gu jrat	842	6.17
5.	Harya na	845	5.19
6.	Himachal Pradesh	664	5.71
7.	Jammu and Kashmir	524	5.13
8.	Kerala	584	1.79
9.	Madhya Pradesh	490	7.27
10.	Maharashtra	803	5.37
11.	Mysore	682	7.94
12.	0ri ssa	493	7.18
13.	Punjab	1016	5·94
14.	Ra ja stha n	623	7.29
15.	Tamilnadu	588	4.83
16.	Uttar Pradesh	504	4.85
17.	West Bengal	737	4.13
	r	-0.08 (0.45)	

r is coefficient of correlation.

t value in parenthesis.

dragging children in the labour force is insignificant. whereas in urban areas it plays an important role. plausible explanation may be that in rural areas; if the children of poor parents do not go to the school, they keep on playing in the streets. Whereas in urban areas because of the road hazards parents cannot allow their children to keep on playing on the crowded roads. chances of becoming a delinquent of an idle child are also much higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Moreover, the subsistence level is much higher in urban part of the world, where poor folks like their children to send to work to fetch more money for the family. unorganised sector of the urban centres has more scope for child workers throughout the year. They are preferred in households, petty shops, small tea stalls etc. But in rural areas only seasonal employment is available where the children are not given any special preference.

(v) Health: The health indicators taken as correlates of child work force are birth rate, age specific death tate, infant mortality rate, expectation of life at birth and physical quality of life index (PQLI) (Table-3.8). The value of correlation with birth rate is very small (0.22) and insignificant. To know the effect of the strain on the children who start working at an early age

Table-3.8: Health Variables and Their Correlation with Child Work Force

S. State/Union No. Territories	Birth Rate		Percent- age of deaths in the age group 5-14	tion of life at birth	Physical quality of life Index(α)
1. A.P.	22.5	105	6.5	44.1	38.9
2. Assam	5.9	136	9.2	51.8	39.2
3. Bihar	_		9.3 5.8	40.4	36.5
4. Gujrat	25.1	161	5.8	48.7	44.3
5. Haryana	30.8	104	7.5	47.0	49.8
6. H.P.	22.0	85	8.0		45 EQ
7. JδK	21.5	E 4	6.7	60.2	45.58
8. Kerala	18.5	54	5.9	45.9	64 . 9 39 . 9
9. M.P.	22.2 29.2	145 116	7.5 6.0	49.0	54 • 2
10. Maharashtra 11. Manipur	29.2	33	12.9	49.0	J ⊤ • 6
12. Meghalaya	16.1		6.1		
13. Mysore	27.1	90	6.6	46.5	44.8
14. Ori ssa	16.8	145	8.5	44.8	36.4
15. Punjab	27.2	115	4.2	49 • 4	44.0
16. Rajasthan	12.9	137	7.3	50.5	36.4
17. Tamilnadu	26.1	108	5.9	43 • 4	47.1
18. Tripura	6.7	122	12.1		
19. U.P.	13.4	176	6.8	39 . 3	<i>3</i> 0 • 3
20. West Bengal	14.3		6.8	47.1	44.8
21. A. & N. Islands		_	8.9		
22. Chan digarh	26.7	46	5 • 4	•	
23. Dadra δ N.Havel		** ***	9.1		
24. Delhi	24.2	58 3 7	5.9		
25. Goa, Daman δ Diu	28.8		3. 0		
26. Lakshdweep	35.5	73	<i>C C</i>		
27. Pondicherry	40.0	61	6.0	- 45	0 55
r	0.22) (3.46	†(0.15)	-0.45 (1.81)	ε - 0.55,εε (2.46)εε
	7.400	7. (J. 40	/\\\	(1.01)	(2.40)

⁽a) Developed by Morris D. Morris.

Source: P.V. Mulgavkar, Pai Panandihar., Population and Development - A Study of Inter-relationship of Socio-Economic Development and Demographic Trends.

^{*}Significant at 1 per cent level

Esignificant at 10 per cent level

εεSignificant at 2 per cent level

and to see whether it is fatal or not the correlation of working children was worked out with the percentage of deaths in the age group 5-14 and it was found that the relation is insignificant with r at 0.15. because of the fact that the employment of children is banned in the hazardous jobs. The infant mortality rate has shown a high variation with the percentage of child workers to total workers (0.62). IMR is an indicator of the economic conditions of the population. As the poor cannot have themselves or provide to their children nutritious food, nor can they afford to utilize the medical facilities, their infants mortality rate is higher. And it is these poor who want their children to work so as to get some economic benefits from them. Expectation of life is another indicator which expresses indirectly the economic condition of the population. Lower the expectation of life, higher is the level of poverty and hence There is a negative correlation employment of children. of the value of - 0.45 between life expectancy and child employment. which is significant at 10 per cent level of significance. Morris developed an index for the physical quality of life (PQLI), based on the expectation of life,

^{8.} Milgavkar, P.D and Pai Panandikar, V.A., Population and Development: A Study of the Interrelationship of Socio-Economic Development and Demographic Trends, (mimeo), Centre for Policy Research, New Delhi, July 1980, Appendix A-2, p.3

infant mortality and actual literacy. The correlation between PQLI and percentage of children in the work force is -0.55 which is significant at 3 per cent level. It shows that with an increase in the physical quality of life, the percentage of child workers decreases. In earlier attempt for 15 selected states this whole exercise was done in two ways, where the percentage of the child workers was calculated from (i) total children and (ii) total workers. As in all the correlations, results obtained from the latter were better (Appendix Table 8) in second attempt all the states were taken into consideration and the correlation of these variables were worked out with percentage of child workers to total workers.

B. Stepwise Regression Analysis:

In order to locate some plausible factors which determine the number of child workers across different states of India, a stepwise regression exercise was attempted. The dependent variable (X1) was the 'Number of child workers,' and the explanatory variables included in our exercise were as follows:

- (i) total children (X2)
- (ii) scheduled caste+scheduled tribe children (X3)
- (iii) total urban population (X_4)
- (iv) total literates (excluding 0-4 age group)(X5)
 - (v) literate children (aged 5-14) (X_6)
- (vi) total wastage from class I to class VIII (X7)

- (vii) total married children (X_8)
- (viii) total paternal orphans (aged 0-14) (X_{o})
 - (ix) total maternal orphans (aged 0-14) (X_{10})
 - (x) complete orphans (aged 0-14) (X_{11})
 - (xi) expectation of life at birth $(X_{1,2})$

The justification of selecting these variables has already been made in chapter-II while discussing hypotheses.

The absolute values of these variables were used in the final analysis (Appendix Table 9). Before running the regressions, the values of variables were plotted on the usual arithmetic scale. It was evident that the scatter diagrams did not admit a linear relationships between the dependent variable and each of the explanatory. We then attempted another set of scatter diagrams, on logrithmac scale. These scatters seemed to observe linear relationships quite neatly. Our regressions are thus based on log-values of the given variables.

Each of our explanatory variables had a significant zero-order correlation with the dependent variable (Table-3.9). In other words each of the chosen explanatory variables has something to explain about the 'number of child workers.' The problem, however, became almost intractable since most of these explanatory variables were highly correlated among themselves (Table-3.10). A mechanical regression exercise would thus lead us nowhere. All the same, we attempted as many as 60 regressions, with due

Table -3.9: Zero Order Correlation Coefficient Between Number of Child Workers (X₁) and log of

	Total children	SC+ST child- ren (X ₃)	Total urban population (X ₄)	Total Lite- - rate (exclud- ing 0-4) (X ₅)	Literate children (5-14)		Total marr- ied child- ren (X ₈)	Pater- nal orphans (0-14) (X ₉)	Maternal orphans (0-14)	Comp- lete orph- ans (0-14) (X ₁₁)	Expecta- tion of life at birth (X ₁₂)
Correlation Coefficient	0.848	0.819	0.708	0.571	0.557	0.831	0.731	0.906	0.884	0.901	-0.722
t value	5.76	5.15	3.61	2.51	2.42	5•39	3.86	7.72	6.81	7. 49	3.76
Significance	S	S	S	s*	\$*	\$	s	S	S	ន	\$

S - Significant at 0.01 level.

S⁺ - Significant at 0.05 level.

- 119 Table-3.10: Zero order Correlation Coefficient Between
Log of Explanatory Variables

	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	<u>x</u> 5	Х ₆	X ₇	х ₈	X ₉	X ₁₀	X ₁₁	X ₁₂
x ₂	1.000	-				1					
x_3	0.840	1.000									
x ₄	0.812	0.588	1.000								
x ₅	0.836	0.519	0.868	1.000							
x 6	0.837	0.545	0.841	0.943	1.000						
x_7	0.924	0.787	0.752	0.805	0.314	1.000					
x 8	0.698	0.752	0.497	0.296	0.342	0.511	1.000				
x ₉	0.964	0.886	0.777	0.740	0.774	0.904	0.737	1.000			
X ₁₀	0.955	0.802	0.797	0.744	0 .7 76	0.881	0.765	0.990	1.000		
X ₁₁	0.907	0.908	0.740	0.648	0.693	0.831	0.787	0.977	0.984	1.000	
X ₁₂	-0. 609	-0.747	-0.38 8	- 0.269	-0.397	-0.598	-0.632	-0.790	-0.781	-0.851	1.000

precaution to avoid simultaneous inclusion of very highly collinear variables. Since the problem of multicollinearity is very severe in our case, not more than 8 regression equations seemed to make empirical sense. These equations are given below (Table-3.11).

Table-3.11 shows that all the three types of orphans have a very clear relationship with child labour. Their very high F and t values show their significance (equation 1, 2 and 3). Among three types of orphans paternal orphanage shows the highest coefficient of correlation and the complete orphanage shows the least. The plausible explanation may that the liabilities of the paternal orphans towards the economic support of the family are much more than maternal orphans and the complete orphans are more likely to sent to the social welfare institutions. If there is no one to protect them circumstames may convert them into anti-social elements like beggers, vagrants, prostitutes etc.

Variable No.6 (literate children) plays an important role in determining the child labour when it comes alone in contact with paternal orphans. (Equation 4, Table 3.11). Its negative value shows that it decreases the effect, might be that literate children are more education conscious and on becoming orphan their chances of entering in the labour force are lesser than otherwise. Equation No.5,6 and 7 show that X_2 (total children) in the company of X_7

Table-3.11 - Regression Equations

1. $\log Y = -0.07167 + 1.013^{\epsilon} \log X_9$	$\overline{R}^{-2} = 0.821$	F= 59.313 ^ε
Log Y = $-0.07167 + 1.013^{\epsilon} \log X_9$ (7.7) $26 \log Y = 1.03422 + 0.952^{\epsilon} \log X_{10}$ (6.83)	$\overline{R}^{\circ 2} = 0.781$	F= 46.601 ^ε
3. $\log Y = 5.84317 + 0.768^{\epsilon} \log X_{11}$ (7.47)	$\overline{R}^{2} = 0.812$	F= 55.753 ^E
	$\bar{R}^{-2} = 0.861$	$F = 40.647^{\varepsilon}$
5. Log Y = -20.11967 - 3.764 ^{ϵ} log X ₂ + 4.765 ^{ϵ} log X ₉ + 8.401 ^{ϵ} (2.349) (2.16)	$\overline{\mathbb{R}}^{-2} = 0.861$	F= 26.977
log X ₁₂		
6. Log Y = $-21.35606 - 3.984^{\epsilon} \log X_2 + 0.083 \log X_8 + 4.854^{\epsilon}$ (2.519) (1.203) (3.062)	$\overline{R}^{\sim 2} = 0.867$	$F = 21.420^{\varepsilon}$
· log X ₉ + 9.097 ^E log X ₁₂ (2.359)		
7. $\log Y = -19.41316 - 4.686^{\epsilon} \log X_2 + 0.969^{\epsilon \epsilon} \log X_7 + 0.165^{\epsilon \epsilon}$ (3.243) (1.943) (2.226)	$\overline{\mathbb{R}}^{2} = 0.897$	F= 22.649 ^E
$\log X_8 + 4.704 \log^{\epsilon} X_9 + 9.49^{\epsilon} \log X_{12}$		
8. Log Y = $-0.25157 + 0.884^{\epsilon} \log X_{11} + 1.288 \log X_{12}$ $(4.423) \qquad (0.681)$	$\overline{R}^{.2} = 0.805^{\varepsilon}$	F= 26.960
£		

ESignificant at 0.05 level. Esignificant at 0.10 level. Figures in parenthesis show the t value.

(total wastage from class 1 to class 8), X_8 (married children), X_9 (paternal orphan) and X_{12} (expectation of life at birth) play an important role in determining the child labour. X_8 is insignificant in equation 6 and significant at 10 per cent level in equation 7, meaning the reby that its contribution in company with other factors is insignificant. Maternal orphans do not have a significant contribution in the child labour when other variables also participate in the equation. Complete orphans (X_{11}) show a significant relationship only when expectation of life (X_{12}) enters in the regression equation (equation 8). This step also shows X_{12} as insignificant.

Consequences of Child Labour:

Child labour is harmful not only for the child but for the society as a whole. Its affects depend mainly upon the (i) aspirations of the child, (ii) the treatment which he receives from the society in general and his employer in particular, and (iii) the conditions in which he works. The first two factors affect the psychology of the child, whereas the third factor has a prominant effect on his health. Mendelierich has divided the repurcussion of child labour into three categories, viz. social, physical and mental. Another

^{9.} Mendelievich, Elias., Children at Work, International Labour Office, Genewa, 1979, pp.46-47.

impact which can be added to it, especially in the Indian context, is economic.

(i) Physical Repurcussions:

Number of working children are ill treated by their employers who beat them up for not paying proper concentration towards their work or for being slow at The environment in which they are asked to work is not conducive to health. The agriculture sector in which nearly four fifth of the Indian child workers are engaged, is the most hazardous sector for the safety and health of a worker. Prolonged exposure to heat, sunlight, dust, wind and insects demands almost constant physical effort in which contact with the chemical product such as pesticides and fertilisers is also involved. This imposes the risk of endemic and parasitic diseases and the diseases of the respiratory tract. In the urban areas children have to work frequently in the badly ventilated, noisy or unhealthy premises, in damp and unhygienic surroundings, in an atmosphere contaminated with dust or chemical gases inhaling tobacoo dust, or other hazardous gases. Sometimes these children have to stand/sit in an unnatural pose, which affects their tender bones and many a times results into deformation of the spinal column, palvis and/or thorax. The fatigue and malnutrition leads to the irreversible damages to the central nervous system.

(ii) Mental Repurcussions:

As a working child stays away from his home for long hours, he does not get the proper attention, care and love of his parents. Moreover, the responsibility imposed upon him at the place of work leads to undesirable consequences and behaviour problems. They convert him into a 'pseudo' mature who develops permanent limiting and disturbing effects on his adult life. As the working child does not get proper education and recreation, which lead to lack of concentration in his work, and, therefore, low development of mental faculties and entry into unskilled working life, which fixes the aspirations at a very low level.

(iii) Social Repurcussions:

As the working child does not have sufficient time to go to school, he adds to the ocean of illiterates and lowers the development of the society. Social problems are faced more by children who are self employed and who have to compete with the elders employed in the same business. They are threatened by agroup of youth who demand a percentage of their earnings. Many a times such things lead them into bad company and drift them into vagrancy, begging, drug addiction, drug-running delinquency, sexual-deviance, prostitution and so on. 10

^{10.} Ibid., p.45

Seeing all these effects it seems that there are more chances of a man who has been in employment since an early age to remain at the bottam of the social ladder.

(iv) Economic Repurcussions:

In many sectors child labour is preferred as it is cheap. This gives them more opportunity than the adults. The family becomes poor with the adult being out of job and this compels the children to work. Thus there is an increase and decrease of family income simultaneously with decrease becoming more effective, thus bringing down the economic status of the family.

Mendelie vich has also mentioned Edward Clopper who had listed the consequences of child labour as early as 1912. He grouped them into three categories: material, moral and physical deterioration', viz., the distaste of the child towards regular employment, small chance of his acquiring a trade and, that he may drift into a large class of casual workers. The effects due to "physical deterioration" may be mentioned as right work, excessive fatigue, exposure to bad weather, irregularity of sleep and meals, use of stimulants

^{11.} Ibid., p.45. Quotes Edward N Clopper: Child Labour in City Streets (New York, MacMillan, 1912) reprinted by Garrett Press, New York, 1970), pp.128-29

(cigarettes, coffee, alcohol) and disease through contact with vice. Under the head of "moral deterioration he has suggested that the child may be encouraged to play truant, he may show independence and defiance of parental control, he may develop bad habits and consequently become weak psychologically and he may become delinquent."

Hence the consequences of child labour are not at all pleasant and it should be curbed as soon as possible.

CHAPTER-IV

EPILOGUE

SECTION-1: SUMMARY

Child labour prevails not only in India but in many other countries of the world also. Despite the efforts made by International Labour Organization and the Governments of various countries, their number has be en im reasing year by year. Millions of families are below the poverty line and they have to deploy their children in the labour market just for their bare subsisteme. Moreover, a big chunk of the Indian population is illiterate (65.55 per cent in 1971 and 63.83 per cent including 0-4 age group in 1981) does not even understand the importance of education in improving the standard of living and quality of life of children. Apart from that we are short of the infrastructural facilities. In many parts of the country, especially the hilly tracts, where despite their willingness to educate their children, parents find it difficult to do so because of the lack of facilities. Many of the children who go to school drop out in the first few years as the curriculum programme is not

^{1.} Census of India, Provisional Population Totals, 1981, Series 1, India.

developed in an interesting manner. Many others though take interest in their studies, are bound to leave it in between because of social or economic reasons. Sometimes the responsibility of the whole family or the younger siblings falls on these children and they have no other choice but to enter the labour force.

Our findings have shown that the under-developed areas have a higher proportion of children in the labour force. It is very high in the tribal belt and hilly regions. In these areas proportion of females in the child work force is much higher than males. Otherwise also, the share of female children in the female work force is nearly double the share of male children in the male work force. More than three fourth of the child workers' population is employed in the primary activities in the rural areas. In urban areas, however, tertiary sector plays the most important role followed by secondary sector.

The proportion of child workers has declined in work force since the past one decade. The change is, markedly observed in the cultivators.

Various indicators, demographic, educational, social, economic and health, were selected to see their impact on the child labour. When they were used as

percentage ratios, most of them gave an insignificant correlation coefficient. A significant correlation was obtained with literacy rates of entire population as well as child population, wastage rates, infant mortality rate and population below the poverty line in urban areas only. Some of these variables, for whom absolute values could be obtained, were regressed with child labour. The correlation matrix showed a significant relationship of the number of child workers with all of them. Due to high level of multicollinearity among these variables, only eight out of sixty regressions equations could be used in the final These equations showed the factors, out of analysis. the selected variables, which play a dominant role in pushing the children into the labour force.

SECTION-II . RECOMMENDATIONS:

whatever be the cause of child labour, it is well established that it is a social evil which reduces the quality of human life. To protect the young generation from emploitation by their employers, various recommendations have been made from time to time. International Labour Organization has suggested number of measures in its different 'Recommendations.' In its Recommendation No. 146 it advocates, inter alia, firm national commitment

to full employment, removal of poverty, compulsory attendance at school and adequate facilities for it, and appropriate vocational training.²

In November 1975, 'The National Seminar on Employment of Children' was held in New Delhi, which highligh-(ted) that total eradication of child labour from the country was neither 'feasible' nor 'desirable,' as the economic development had not reached to a very high level. Therefore, the need of the hour was to minimise the adverse affects of the problem. views were also expressed by the Indian Association for the Study of Population which convened a Conference on 'Child in India' in March 1979.4 The working group of this Conference on the section of Child Labour felt that the Census data on child labour participation were highly underestimated. Organisations, such as, National Sample Survey should cover such aspects so as to make the correct estimates of their figures. Ministry of

^{2.} International Labour Organization, Children at Work, edited by Mendelievich, Elias, ILO, Geneva, 1979, p.156

^{3.} Pandhe, M.K. (Ld.), Child Labour in India, India Book Exchange, 1979, pp.37-44.

^{4.} IASP, Child in India - Resume of Proceedings and Conclusions and Recommednations of the Conference, pp. 17-18.

Labour also, set up a Committee in 1979 to study the problem of child labour. This Committee suggested, inter alia, more deterrent penalty for violating the provisions relating to child labour. 5

The recommendations put forward by these groups aim at eradicating child labour completely through a gradual process. Legislative measures are taken to provide protection to already employed children against abuse, health hazards and exploitation. The rights of the child should be made a part of our fundamental laws. Children should be provided special opportunities and facilities by law and other means to enable them to develop physically, mentally, morally and socially in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. To ensure every child his basic rights, enactment of new legislations is called for which bears the above factors.

The following recommendations have been made to reduce child labour and its adverse affects till it is eradicated completely.

(i) The parents of the low socio-economic groups, where child labour is prevalent extensively, should be made more education conscious and motivated to send their children in schools instead of labour force. Adult

^{5.} Govt. of India, IYC in India, Ministry of Social Welfare, Govt. of India, New Delhi, pp.47-48.

^{6.} Shah, Vidyaben, 'Social Welfare and Legislations' in Child in the Third World (PPH), 1979, p.21

education programmes can prove to be helpful in this regard.

- (ii) School environment and curriculam should be made more attractive and interesting. It should be oriented towards the tastes of the children. Special Employment Bureaus should be set up to equip the needy children with appropriate vocational guidance and training Education should be aimed at subserving the future work needs of children.
- (iii) Most of the working children are engaged in the agriculture sector. It is difficult to attend the school and thework simultaneously. The vacation in the schools should be adjusted to the calender of agricultural activities in rural areas so as to enable working children to avail the benefit of schooling facilities.
- (iv) Cottage and small scale industries should be set up in the rural areas to raise the income of the poor so that they may not send their children in the labour force. Special incentives should be given to encourage the poor children to attend the school, such as, providing books, stationary, mid-day meals, uniforms etc.

 Apart from that they should also be awarded scholarships

which act as the biggest incentive, as the award is in the form of monetary assistance to the child and his parents.

- (v) A chain of social welfare institutions should be established for the benefit of destitute children who form a substantial proportion of child labour. If these children are not taken care of in a proper fashion, then the chances of their turning into delinquents are very high.
- (vi) All kinds of jobs by children are hazarduous, either physically or mentally or both. Poor people are compelled to send their children to the work force to get some economic support for their family. But these children get very little wages as they have to compete with adults. To avoid stiff competition with adults, some less hazardous jobs should be identified and children should be encouraged to work there.
- (vii) The existing statutory provisions, like the working conditions, medical, education and recreational facilities are not adequate. They should be reviewed and enforced properly. The employers violating these laws should be penalised severly. Adequate funds should be provided by State Welfare Boards to improve the working conditions of the child labour.
- (viii) Apprentice Acts should be suitably modified to train children under 15 years.
- (ix) The age of the child should be fixed uniformly in particular fields like plantation, shops, and commercial establishments etc.

- (x) The regulatory measures can be adopted for organised sector but for unorganised sector, social conciousness will have to be created for the betterment of the working children through social organisations, voluntary associations and trade unions etc. The welfare agencies should try to improve the lot of working children. The employers and the general public should be made aware of the existing legal provisions to protect the interests of the child.
- (xi) A unified coordinating agency can act best to implement the recommendations relating to child employment and welfare. This could perhaps be best done by National Children's Board.

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(i)

Appendix Table-1

Proportion of Child Population to Total Population

S.No.	State/Union		1961					971	
	Territories		ral	Url			ral		ban
		M	<u> </u>	M	F	<u> </u>	F	M	F
	INDIA	41.73	41.13	37.27	41.01	42.99	42.52	37.53	40.76
1.	A.P.	39.56	39.48	39.29	39.92	40.76	40.67	38 . 97	40.00
2.	Assam	43.56	47.28	33.56	46.46	46.81	50.52	37.10	46.68
3.	\mathtt{Bihar}	43.96	41.11	3 7. 92	42.25	43.92	41.66	38.59	42.81
	Gujarat	44.17	42.99	40.54	41.06	44.82	43.53	39 .7 5	40.54
4. 5.	Haryana,					47.16	47.18	40.67	43.12
6.	H.P.	37.36	38.98	3 3.3 3	40.90	41.77	41.57	31.92	39.09
7.	JδK	39.32	41.49	40.13	44.22	41.87	44.67	40 • 15	43.37
8.	Kerala	44.09	41.95	40.95	39.96	41.50	39.84	38.65	37.67
9.	M.P.	41.30	40.57	38.78	41.28	44.23	43.82	40.87	43.26
LO.	Maharashtra	42.65	41.48	34.49	40.18	43.72	42.68	34.92	40.00
L1.	Manipur	44.27	42.73	39.30	38.95	42.80	43.31	38.63	39.03
12.	Meghalaya	• • • • • •	115			43.78	45.09	35.08	42.49
13.	Lysore	41.95	42.95	39.89	42.3 3	42.71	43.68	38.86	41.44
14.	Nagaland	38.36	39.26	30.73	41.11	37.95	39.62	22.33	46.15
15.	0 rissa	39.78	38.86	32.93	37.65	42.73	42.43	37.80	42.28
16.	Punjab	43.98	44.54	38.85	43.13	43 • 35	42.12	38.32	40.05
17.	Ra ja sthan	42.68	42.74	42.11	42.30	44.84	44.17	42.08	43.04
18.	Tamilnadu	37.77	37 . 19	37.66	38.20	38.16	37.80	36.74	37.78
19.	Tripura	42.41	43.73	39.19	43.00	44.14	45.46	38.03	40.28
20.	U.P.	40.91	39.98	38.74	42.73	42.54	41.29	39.3 3	43.32
21.	West Bengal	42.34	43.46	30.72	40.65	44.40	46.33	32.36	39.56
22.	A. N. Islands	30.33	46.15	28.03	48.95	33.99	48.11	25.6	43.80
23.	Arunachal Pr.	1				36.77	40.68	23.97	51.76
24.	Chandi garh			•		34.82	42.91	32.10	37.46
25.	D.δ N. Haveli	43.40	43.95		 -	45.66	45 • 31	_	-
26.	Delhi	44.83	46.25	37.22	43.20	44.10	45.87	35.92	40.41
27.	Goa, Daman, Diu	39.61	35.43	37.26	35.26	40.31	37.72	34.12	37.16
28.	Lakshdweep	42.75	39.07	-	_	42.41	39.16	-	-

(ii)

Appendix Table - 2

Enrolement and Wastage Rates

S.No.	State/Union Territori es		Enrolement in 1964-65	Class 1	Prospec	ctive Enroleme VIII (1971-	
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Andhra Pradesh	80 200 2	58 6703	1388705	786782	5710 <i>3</i> 0	1357812
2.	Assam	374105	25 480 9	628914	35 17 84	240653	592437
3.	Bihar	1267229	464304	17315 <i>3</i> 3	1191622	438511	1630133
4.	Gujrat	622437	39 64 7 9	1018916	594403	375790	970193
5.	Haryana	170885	72887	243772	166173	69591	235764
6.	Himachal Pradesh	29217	11919	41136	28411	11379	39790
7.	Jammu and Kashmir	63880	21 279	85159	62137	2031.8	82455
8.	Kerala	393347	350 988	744335	385881	341608	727489
9.	Madhya Pradesh	776383	29 9 30 7	1075690	734009	275990	1009999
10.	Maharashtra	872880	6 5 6 428	1529 3 08	833568	622173	1455741
11.	Manipur	36826	27 771	64597	34629	26229	60858
12.	Mysore	596283	53 1506	1127789	584969	51 730 6	110 2275
13.	Nagaland	13763	7666	21,429	12941	7241	20182
14.	0 ri ssa	448384	281379	729763	421632	265746	687378
15.	Punjab	393162	226545	619707	382319	216303	598622
16.	Ra ja sthan	499602	161200	660801	485824	153913	639737
17.	Tamilnadu	751996	581 150	1333146	737727	565622	130 33 49
18.	Tripura	29360	18363	47723	27 60 0	17344	44944
19.	Uttar Pradesh	2266988	1365528	36325 16	2143257	1259153	3402410
20.	West Bengal	920507	60 3757	15 24 264	865587	570216	1435803
21.	A. δ N. Islands	1776	1402	3178	1738	1365	3103
22.	Arunachal Pradesh	1029	190	1219	969	180	1149
23.	Chandi garh	229 2	1923	4215	2228	1837	40 65
24.	D. & N. Haveli	2429	770	31 99	2320	730	3 050
25.	Delhi	51414	41438	92852	4999 7	39564	89561
26.	Goa, Daman, Diu	20811	15629	36440	19844	14812	34656
27.	Lakshdweep	673	590	1263	661	575	1 236
28.	Pondi cherry	8221	6119	14340	80 65	595 7	14022

(iii)
Appendix Table-2 (contd..)

S.No.	State/Union Territories		Enrolemer VIII (1971		Wa	astage Ra	tes	
	10112001105	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
1.	Andhra Pradesh	113853	44784	15 8637	85.53	92.16	88.32	Wastage
2.	Assam	76801	41601	118402	78.17	82.72	80.02	<u>α</u>
3∙	Bihar	199474	275 39	227013	83.26	93.72	86.08	g Co
4.	Gujrat	142741	70434	21 31 75	75.99	81.26	78.03	9
5.	Haryana	8 2 9 5 3	21800	104753	50.08	68.68	55.57	Ħ
6.	H. P.	29028	8708	37 7 3 6	-2.18	23 .4 8	5.17	Rate
7.	ЈδК	24566	8799	33365	60.47	56.7	59.54	Φ :
8.	Kerala	162183	148292	310475	57 . 97	56.59	57.33	U
9.	M. P.	162152	47 400	20 955 2	77.91	82.83	79.26	
10.	Maharashtra	318434	125386	4438 20	61.80	79 •85	69.52	Pros Enro (19 Pro
11.	Manipur	81.79	41 61	12340	76.39	84.14	79.73	19 19
12.	Meghalaya	3593	2908	6501			_	spectivole ment VIII <u>971-72</u> ospecti
13.	Mysore	122253	53490	1 7 5743	79.1	89.66	84.06	He THE
14.	Nagaland	3411	21.15	5526	73.65	70.8	72.62	ict 772
15.	Orissa	65158	17139	82297	84.55	93.55	88.03	iv te
16.	Pun j a b	92746	46238	138984	75.75	78.63	76.79	
17.	Rajasthan	95441	1 09609	115050	80.36	87.26	82.02	
18.	Tamilnadu	211707	108632	3 20 33 9	71.31	80.8	75 • 43	Actual Enrol VIII (1971- Enrol 1971-7
19.	Tripura	6778	4383	11161	75.45	74.73	75.17	170 771 70
20.	U.P.	556464	125691	682155	74.04	90.02	7 9 • 95	770
21.	West Bengal	210981	121616	332587	75.63	78.68	76.84	
22.	A. δ N. Islands	574	308	882	66.98	77.44	71.58	Actual Enrolement VIII (1971-72) e Enrolement (1971-72)
23.	Arunachal Pr.	205	26	231	78.85	85.56	79.9	4 4
24.	Chandigarh	1905	1708	3613	14.5	7.03	11.12	•
25.	D. δ N. Haveli	188	84	272	91.9	88.5	91.09	∺ .
26.	Delhi	41052	29425	70 477	17.9	25.63	21.31	• •
27.	Goa, Daman, Diu	66 95	4621	11316	66.27	68.81	6 7. 35	6
28.	La ksh dwe ep	192	83	275	70.96	85.42	77. 75	Н
29.	Fizoram	2541	1913	4454	67.07	50 5 6	(8.25	100
<i>3</i> 0 .	${ t Pondicherry}$	2963	1637	4610	63.27	72.52	67.13	O

(iv)

Appendix Table-2(b)

Probability of Dying (qx) between age X and X+1

S.No.	Zones	X Age	М	q _x F
1.	North Zone (Haryana, Punjab, H.P., J & K, Rajasthan, Delhi, Chandigarh)	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	0.00511 0.00470 0.00434 0.00404 0.00381 0.00355 0.00353	0.00743 0.00715 0.00688 0.00660 0.00635 0.00609 0.00585
2.	South Zone (A.P., Karmataka, Kerala, T.N., Pondi- cherry, Lakshdweep)	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	0.00437 0.00326 0.00250 0.00201 0.00181 0.00184 0.00334 0.00391	0.00727 0.00533 0.00392 0.00290 0.00223 0.00190 0.00347 0.00397
3.	Eastern Zone (Assam, Bihar, Orissa, W.Bengal, Sikkim, Nagaland, Meghalya, Manipur, Tripura)	6 7 8 9 10 11 12,	0.01596 0.01263 0.00987 0.00763 0.00615 0.00495 0.00400	0.01440 0.01073 0.00806 0.00626 0.00612 0.00582 0.00550
4.	West Zone (Maharashtra, Dadra δ Nagar Haveli, Gujrat, Goa, Daman δ Diu)	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	0.00792 0.00694 0.00655 0.00633 0.00616 0.00605 0.00598	0.01046 0.00935 0.00834 0.00741 0.00663 0.00591 0.00528 0.00474
5.	Central Zone (U.P., M.P.)	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	0.00898 0.00836 0.00793 0.00770 0.00759 0.00760 0.00774	0.01601 0.01462 0.01312 0.01156 0.00997 0.00843 0.00689

(v)
Appendix Table-3(a)

Percentage of Child Workers to Total Workers 1961

S.No.	State/ Districts	Persons	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	India	7.66	6.72	9.71	8.42	3.02
I	ANDHRA PRADESH	10.26	9.96	10.72	10.93	5.42
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Srikakulam Visakhapatnam E. Godavari W. Godavari Krishna Guntur Ongole	10.32 9.71 9.04 8.95 8.91 7.55	10.00 9.18 9.76 9.32 8.34 6.78	10.71 10.50 7.56 8.20 10.00 8.77	10.55 10.44 9.58 9.43 9.68 8.11	6.97 3.96 3.17 5.55 5.14 4.64
8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20.	Nellore Chittoor Cuddapah Anantpur Kurnool Mahabubna gar Hydrabad Medak Nizamabad Adilabad Kari mna gar Warangal Khammam Nalgonda	9.38 10.40 10.11 9.88 8.29 13.65 8.73 12.76 11.36 11.28 13.52 12.59 11.32 12.89	8.89 10.45 8.78 9.12 7.39 13.96 8.29 13.50 11.19 11.30 13.32 12.94 10.88 13.42	10.10 10.33 12.10 11.03 9.62 13.28 9.66 11.75 11.57 11.25 13.72 12.08 12.02 12.11	9.77 9.89 10.5 10.46 8.74 14.04 13.01 13.06 11.82 11.99 13.77 13.26 12.00 13.26	4.80 5.31 6.42 5.61 6.34 8.75 3.74 7.46 6.73 5.6 99 6.23 8.19
·II	ASSA M	7.44	6.17	10.11	7.75	2.75
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 7. 8.	Golapara Kamrup Darrang Nowgong Sibsagar Lakhimpur Hikir Hills N.Cachar Hills	8.54 7.03 8.00 6.75 7.78 7.41 8.79 5.75	7.67 5.83 6.56 5.84 5.79 5.63 6.95	10.92 9.77 10.63 9.63 10.64 10.27 11.26	8.90 7.63 8.18 7.02 7.98 7.68 8.85 5.96	2.85 2.16 2.38 2.23 3.14 4.09 0.95 2.18
III	BIHAR	8.01	7.52	9.02	8.36	3.16
1. 2. 3. 4.	Patna Gaya Shahabad Saran	4.84 3.64 5.44 6.75	4.12 5.88 5.06 6.72	6.69 7.13 6.43 6.83	5.23 6.52 5.56 7.02	2.95 2.91 2.97 4.04

(1)	(2)	(3)	. (4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Champaran Muzzaffarpur Darbhanga Monghyr Bhagalpur Saharsa Purnea Santhal Parganas Palamau Hazaribagh Ranchi Dhanbad Singhbum	7.60 7.68 7.51 7.01 7.28 10.51 9.68 10.20 9.01 9.42 12.37 4.93 9.23	7.58 7.53 7.38 6.54 7.16 10.32 9.75 9.86 8.76 9.10 11.02 3.94 8.11	7.64 8.26 7.87 8.15 7.55 10.86 9.43 10.64 9.39 9.88 13.91 7.36 10.79	7.70 9.74 7.65 7.35 7.62 10.68 10.43 9.20 10.04 13.08 5.78 10.42	5.27 3.58 4.01 3.49 5.68 3.45 5.73 3.18 1.96
īv.	GUJRAT	7.23	5.87	9.99	8.42	2.08
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17.	Jamanagar Rajkot Surendranagar Bhavnagar Amreli Junagadha Kutch Banaskantha Sabarkantha Mahasana Gandhi Nagar Ahmadabad Kheda Panch Mahals Vadodara Bharvch Surat Valsad The Dangs	8.95 9.29 7.70 7.68 9.02 8.13 7.12 11.21 8.33 5.08 -2.94 3.99 11.50 6.03 7.44 6.25	7.67 7.66 6.95 7.17 8.39 7.04 6.59 10.06 5.98 4.14 2.48 3.40 9.03 4.74 5.77 5.02	12.27 12.61 9.61 8.85 10.10 10.14 8.21 13.38 11.98 6.56 - 4.96 6.22 14.84 9.71 10.13 8.11	11.48 11.57 8.97 9.12 9.75 9.39 8.00 11.62 8.62 5.54 - 5.88 4.39 12.12 7.19 8.02 7.01	2.30 3.13 2.95 2.78 5.03 2.90 2.69 2.02 2.15 1.76 1.17 2.33 2.26
٧	HARYANA	8.06	6.12	13.75	8.68	1.90
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Ambala Karnal Rohtak Gurgaon Mahendragarh Hissar Jind	4.64 7.56 7.56 6.41 8.59 12.31	4.24 7.18 4.81 4.85 5.99 8.83	8.68 9.51 12.73 9.97 13.74 20.67	6.09 8.47 8.12 7.07 9.06 11.73	1.55 2.16 2.05 1.39 2.78 2.50
VI	HIMACHAL PRADESH	9.03	6.28	12.52	9.39	1.73
1. 2. 3.	Chamba Kangra Mandi	9.25 8.67 10.21	7.34 5.54 6.76			

				·	0	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4.	Kul u	-	-	-	_	Allerin
5.	Lahul δ Spiti	6.42	4.17	9.42	6.42	·
6.	Bilaspur	8.77	4.89	13.28	8.77	3.52
7.	Maha su	9.84	8.10	11.91	10.02	2.12
8.	Simla	4.83	3.08 7.39	9.96 13.20	7.69	0.89
9.	Sirmour	9.55	7.29	12.20	9.90	1.95
10.	Kinnaur	7.97	5.63	10.40	7.97	
VII	JAMMU & KASHMIR	7.59	6.56	10.23	8.03	4.27
1.	Anantra g	7.14	6.52	8.76	7.32	4.23
2.	Srinagar	6.70	6.12	9.15	7.52	5.10
3.	Baramnla	7 .77	6.77	10.16	7.88	6.36
4. 5. 6.	Ladakh	9 .7 8	8. <i>3</i> 8	11.12	9.92	6.36
5.	Doda	9.84	8.06	12.26	10.09	3.63
6.	Udhampur	10.14	8.68	12.60	10.06	2.10
7.	Jammu	4.54	4.07	7.33	4.11	1.92
8.	Kathua	7.90	6.61	4.26	7 .7 8	2.46
9.	Ra ja uri					
10.	Punch	7.44	7.12	8.52	7.37	2.12
VIII	KERALA	2.64	2.02	4.09	2.62	2.77
1.	Cannanore	2.82	2.70	2.89	2.54	4.37
2.	Kozhikode	2.74	2.19	1.39	2.77	2.71
- 3∙	Malapuram	-	-	-	_	
4.	Palaghat	4•48	4.41	4.60	4.58	3.32
5•	Trichur	2.66	1.47	3.46	2.64	2.84
6.	Ernakulam	2.13	1.42	3.88	2.14	2111
7.	Kottayam	1.89	1.24	3.92	1.87	2.13
8.	Alleppey	2.11	0.99	4.36	2.12	2.05
9.	Quilon	1.79	1.04	3. 60	1.74	2.44
10.	Trivandrum	2.88	1.88	5 .7 3	2.72	2.82
îx	MADHYA PRADESH	8.79	7.99	9.95	9.45	2.52
1.	Morena	9.35	8.44	11.91	9.74	3.58
2.	Bhind	5.83	5 . 7 4	1.22	6.00	3.29
3∙	Gwalior	5.06	4.59	6.78	7.06	1.91
4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Datia	5.86	5.62	6.29	6.32	1.64 3.29 3.55
5.	Shivpuri	8.93	8.63	9.43	9.19	5.29
6.	Guna	7.91	7.59	8.59	8.34	3.55
7.	Tikamgarh	8.26	8.29	8.23		3.40
8.	Chatarpur	8.36	8.39	8.31	8.66	4.43
9•	Panna	8.94	9.04	8.79	7.97	2.14
10.	Satna	8.83	8.07	9.94	9.26	3.26
11.	Rewa	10.85	9.67	12.56	11.20	2.26
12.	Shahd ol	8.83	8.53	9.25	9.15	2.35
13.	Sidhi	12.69	12.26	13.25	12.75	3.22
14.	Mandsaur	8.87	7.23	11.19	9.90	2.90
15.	Ratlam	8.78	7.62	10.63	10.34	2.22

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 33. 33. 33. 33. 33. 33. 33. 33. 33. 3	Ujjain Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidhisha Sehor Raisen Hoshangabad Betul Sagar Damoh Jabalpur Narsimahapur Mandla Chhindwara Seoni Balghat Surguja Bilaspur Raigarh Durg Raipur Bastar		6.66 13.52 9.029 7.96.834 7.61 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.37 9.83 12.70 10.83 12.70 10.83 14.22	9.24 14.56 11.09 7.20 11.516 8.05 10.48 6.35 10.49 11.66 11.18 9.78 14.39 14.39 11.05 10.49 11.05 10.49 11.05 10.49	917 14.49 10.37 6.59 7.74 11.1 8.69 7.67 10.58 6.62 6.63 10.52 6.93 10.15 9.13 4.75 7.31 11.25 4.37 7.31 11.54 8.94	2.945 9.945 1.540 2.550
44• X	MAHARASHTRA	7.40	6.06	9.54	8.80	2.26
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17.	G. Bombay Thana Kolaba Ratnagiri Nasik Dhulia Jalgaon Ahmad Nagar Poona Satara Sangli Sholapur Khdlapur Aurangabad Barbhani Bhir Nanded Osmanabad	1.22 6.16 4.52 5.09 8.07 8.77 5.84 8.99 6.19 8.40 7.10 7.69 6.26 10.21 11.64 12.33 11.74 11.21	1.00 5.30 4.47 4.34 6.50 7.57 4.78 7.57 4.73 6.14 6.12 7.32 5.41 9.78 11.26 12.01 11.38 11.01	3.54 7.63 4.59 5.78 10.54 7.52 10.97 8.75 10.86 8.80 8.38 7.56 11.97 12.22 12.75 12.26 11.51	7.41 4.69 5.28 9.23 9.44 6.40 9.47 8.00 8.86 7.72 8.66 6.80 11.30 12.30 12.38 11.61	1.22 1.79 2.29 1.95 2.89 3.24 2.77 1.44 3.61 2.74 4.10 2.78 4.56 5.33 5.78 6.14

73.		777	7.7	/		- /
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	Buldhana Akola Amravati Yeotmal Wardha Nagpur Bhandara Chandrapur	7.15 7.27 6.38 9.99 6.86 6.54 7.21 9.08	5.25 5.16 4.66 7.95 4.61 4.89 5.44 7.97	9.71 10.56 9.28 12.64 10.07 9.30 9.10 10.36	7.73 8.06 7.28 10.61 7.72 8.70 7.53 9.41	2.96 3.00 2.74 2.88 2.15 3.26 3.30 2.51
XI	MANIPUR	5.04	2.94	7.24	5.28	2.16
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Manipur North Manipur West Manipur South Manipur Central Manipur East	- - - -	- - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - -
XII	MEGHALAYA	7.92	7.31	8.74	8.48	1.84
1. 2.	United Khasi δ Jayantia Hills Garo Hills	6.77 9.42	6.41 8.65	7.32 10.33	7.80 9.58	2.03 1.71
XIII	MYSORE	9.29	8.44	10.93	10.11	5.24
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 17. 18.	Bangalore Tumkur Chitradurga Kolar Bellary Mysore South Kanara Coorg Hassan Shimonga Chikmagalur Mandya Belgaum Bijapur North Kanara Dharwar Gul Barga Bedar Raichur	9.17 11.16 10.65 10.79 8.90 9.09 8.92 5.11 9.93 6.87 7.32 11.01 8.77 9.47 5.37 8.14 10.88 10.69 9.54	7.62 9.94 9.32 9.32 8.08 8.89 7.54 4.38 8.64 6,27 6.45 10.10 8.76 4.92 7.43 11.01 11.43 9.17	13.73 13.17 12.67 13.77 10.43 9.58 10.52 6.56 12.15 8.72 9.00 12.77 9.91 10.66 6.18 9.67 10.66 10.31 10.15	12.89 11.60 11.32 11.73 9.52 10.05 9.52 5.16 10.33 7.11 7.50 11.51 9.48 9.90 5.65 8.87 11.56 11.15 9.77	4.55 5.85 5.85 5.85 5.85 5.87 5.87 5.87 5.87 5.87 5.87 6.87
XIV	NAGALAND	9•94	8.72	11.30	10.23	0.96
1. 2. 3.	Kohima Kokokuching Tuensang	- -	- - -	- - -	 	<u>-</u> -

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(70
V.X	ORISSA	8.45	7.92	9.65	8.74	3.34
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Sambalpur Surendergarh Keonjhar Mayurbhang Balesore	6.93 7.71 9.38 10.57 3.64	6.83 5.86 8.18 9.79 3.42	7.10 12.71 11.67 11.66 5.71	7.20 11.32 9.65 10.69 3.65	2.46 2.73 3.84 3.17 3.46
6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12.	Cuttack Dhenkanal Budh-Khond Mals Balangir Kala Mandi Koraput Gangin Puri	3.60 7.87 9.75 11.32 14.00 11.42 9.51 6.28	3.47 8.10 9.37 12.09 14.91 11.37 9.66 6.08	4.54 7.29 10.25 9.75 12.00 11.50 9.32 7.45	3.69 8.03 9.79 11.51 14.17 11.66 9.82 6.57	2.47 3.82 4.63 5.69 6.15 4.71 4.31 2.67
XVI	PUNJAB	7 • 25	6.90	10.43	8.33	2.47
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Gurdaspur Amritsar Ferozpur Ludhiana Jullundur Kapurthala Hoshiarpur	5.31 6.23 8.97 4.38 5.98 6.91 4.33	5.08 6.18 8.22 4.39 5.86 6.82 3.27	9.10 7.06 14.02 4.91 7.22 8.82 9.70	6.40 8.07 10.43 5.44 5.66 8.25 4.69	1.2 2.14 2.31 1.99 1.77 2.22 1.71
8. 9. 10. 11.	Ropar Patiala Sangrur Bhatinda	8.18 10.55 8.56	8.17 10.23 8.49	8.44 12.36 9.16	9.96 11.39 9.62	2.28 5.51 3.84
XVII	ra jasthan	11.53	9 .9 3	14.37	12.46	3 • 45
•1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 14. 15. 16.	Ganganagar Bikaner Churu Jhunjhunu Alwar Bharatpur Wawai-Hadhipur Jai pur Sikar Ajmer Tonk Jaislmer Jodhpur Nagaur Pali Barmer	9.37 9.27 14.03 11.21 9.24 7.13 10.90 11.08 11.63 10.88 12.42 12.15 15.70 12.64 11.56 15.47	7.66 7.74 11.50 8.35 7.72 6.16 9.43 9.04 9.42 9.04 11.33 12.40 9.27 10.96 10.53 14.21	15.47 12.64 17.90 15.51 12.15 10.00 13.35 14.86 14.89 14.17 14.10 11.52 14.72 15.24 13.55 17.72	10.19 11.88 16.06 11.97 11.33 7.57 11,39 12.68 13.03 13.61 13.17 12.73 12.95 13.35 12.04 15.92	3.25 2.19 5.40 2.50 3.22 3.86 3.14 5.70 2.94 3.97 5.78 4.06

(1)	(2)	(3)			the grant of the same the specific	•
17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	Jalor Sirohi Bhilwara Udaipur Chittorgarh Dungarpur Banswara Bondi Kota Jhalmar	13.39 10.20 13.28 14.07 12.12 16.60 14.24 10.05 7.64 9.38	12.79 9.45 12.53 12.59 10.88 14.99 13.87 9.51 6.28 8.37	14.60 12.20 14.38 16.28 13.73 18.59 14.75 11.18 10.42 11.09	13.62 11.30 13.75 14.88 12.64 17.01 14.59 10.88 8.51 9.71	7.41 2.87 3.55 2.86 3.82 2.70 2.67 2.80 2.03 2.79
IIIVX	TAMIL NADU	6.61	5.84	8.07	7.28	3.94
1. 2. 3. 4.	Madras Chingleput North Arcot South Arcot	1.68 6.03 6.93 6.03	1.48 5.57 6.54 5.60	3.46 7.17 7.65 6.94	- 6.43 7.33 6.34	1.68 4.05 4.54 2.97
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Dhanapuri Salem Coimbatore Nilgiris Madurai Trichirapalli Thanjavur Ramanathapuram Tirunelveli Kanya Kumari	9.95 8.05 6.59 6.99 4.56 6.02 5.83 4.75	9.09 7.00 3.32 6.00 5.78 4.35 5.22 4.76 3.99	11.34 10.09 5.32 7.69 8.00 5.05 7.17 7.60 7.09	10.36 9.29 4.74 7.36 7.16 4.85 6.13 6.03 4.19	7.05 4.29 2.96 4.12 3.31 2.92 5.52 5.13 3.97
XIX	TRIPURA	4.80	4.05	6.90	5.00	1.85
1. 2. .3.	West Tripura North Tripura South Tripura	- - ,-	<u>-</u> -	-	144 244 444	. <u>-</u>
XX	UTTAR PRADESH	6 . 68	5.98	9.16	7.10	3.00
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Uttar Kashi Chamoli Tehri Garhwal Garhwal Pithoragarh Almora Nainital Bijnor Moradabad Badaun Rampur Bareilly Pilibhit Shahjahanpur Dehradun	7.49 15.04 12.01 14.98 9.35 9.15 5.75 5.40 5.73 5.16 6.02	6.44 5.92 8.61 5.62 5.72 4.69 5.48 77 5.48 77 5.12 91	10.41 44.01 14.47 13.02 12.45 11.96 10.53 7.36 8.08 2.96 4.82 3.39 2.35 4.43 10.48	8.44 15.04 12.12 10.00 9.35 9.37 6.64 6.09 5.51 6.06 5.91 5.49 7.16	3.86 3.79 3.31 1.59 2.31 3.61 4.48 3.95 4.21 2.90 2.71 2.71 1.57

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
178901223456 1678902222222222303333333333333333333333333	Sahranpur Muzaffarnagar Me erut Bulandshahr Aligarh Mathura Agra Etah Mainpuri Farrukhabat Etawah Kanpur Fatehpur Allahabad Jhansi Jalaun Namirpur Banda Kheri Sitapur Nardoi Unnao Luck now Rae Barelli Bahraich Gonda Bara Banki Faizabad Sultanpur Pratapgarh Basti Gorakhpur Deoria Azamgarh Jaunpur Ballia Ghazipur Varanasi Mirzapur	6.855 6.825 6.	6.92		7.1699 21995 4.1609	2.74 2.74 2.75 2.76
XXI	WEST BENGAL	3.89	3.62	5.66	4.81	1.23
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 7. 8.	Darjeeling Jalpaiguri Cooch Behar W. Dinajpur Malda Murshidabad Nadia 24 Parganas Howrah	4.97 4.16 5.03 6.85 6.61 6.10 4.84 3.37 1.41	4.04 4.01 5.06 6.82 6.70 5.98 4.90 3.36 1.39	6.90 4.66 4.15 7.17 6.16 7.13 3.95 5.70 1.74	5•54 4•57	1.78 1.21 0.73 1.81 2.01 3.01 1.40 1.02 0.98

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Calcutta Hooghly Bur dwan Bir bhum Bancura Midra pur Purulia	1.08 2.12 3.35 4.24 4.45 3.29 8.30	1.08 1.99 3.31 4.23 4.31 3.00 6.61	1.15 3.15 3.64 4.27 4.86 4.67 10.95	2.62 3.56 4.40 4.60 3.42 8.59	1.08 0.85 2.47 1.40 1.90 1.37 1.62
XXII	SIKKIM	14.96	13.15	17.15	15.27	47.06
	UNI	ON TERR	ITORIES			
I	A. AND N. ISLANDS	3.02	2. 25	7.58	15.27	0.72
Ιİ	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	-	-	-	, 7 - 1 , .	-
1 2. 3. 4. 5.	Kaneng Subansiri Siang Lohit Tirap	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -
III	CHANDIGARH	-	_			
IV I	D. AND N. HAVELI	12.80	12.04	13.63	12.80	-
V J	DELHI	1.83	1.47	5 • 49	4.80	1.40
VI	GOA, DAMAN & DIU	3.00	2.60	3.60	2.97	3.16
1. 2. 3.	Goa Daman Diu	<u>-</u>	- 	<u>-</u> -	- - -	- -
VII	LAKSHDVEEP	4.50	2.80	6.18	4.50	-
VIII	MIZORAM	3.61	3.02	1.03	3.81	0.71
IX	PONDICHERRY	3.89	3. 69	4.44	3.93	3 .7 3
2.	K araikal Mahe Pondicherry Yanam	- - -	-	- - -	 	-

Note: The percentages have been calculated as:
(i) child workers to total workers, (ii) Male child workers to total male workers, (iii) female child workers to total female workers, (iv) rural child workers to total rural workers, (v) Urban child workers to total urban workers.

(xiv)

Appendix Table - 3(b)

Percentage of Child Workers to Total Workers

1971

,					
State/Districts	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
INDIA	5 • 95	5.28	9.11	6.71	2.42
ANDHRA PRADESH	9.03	8.19	11.10	9.71	4.15
Srikakulam Visakhapatnam East Godavari West Godavari Krishna Guntur Ongole Nellore Chittoor Cuddapah Anantapur Kurnool Mahbubnagar Hyderabad Medak Nizamabad Adilabad Karimnagar Warangal Khamam Nalgonda	6.81 10.11 10.98 10.92 12.88 10.93 12.01	7.14	10.69 10.22 6.38 8.33 9.43 9.50 10.18 8.31 14.54 12.24 13.60 12.42 7.73 9.52 13.42 12.89 15.82 12.79 15.74	8.87 8.75 8.34 8.79 7.72 7.57 7.29 7.7 8.86 9.13 9.98 11.15 11.89 10.59 10.46 11.79 13.35 11.67 11.47	4.75 2.14 4.13 9.88 4.13 9.89 4.56 9.56 9.33 4.66 9.33 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.34 9.34
ASSAM Goalpara Kamrup Darrang Howgong Sibsagar Lakhimpur Mikir Hills North Cachar Hills			N .A		
Cachar)					
BIHAR	6.05	5.57	9.00	6.41	2.51
Patna Gaya Shahbad Saran Champaran	3.95 4.82 3.98 5.31 6.01		7.06	4.32 4.08 4.12 5.41 6.15	2.47 2.44 2.29 3.1 3.6

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16.	Muzaffarpur Darbhanga Monghyr Bhagalpur Saharsa Purnea Santhal Pargans Palamau Hazaribagh Ranchi Dhanbad Singhbhum	6.01 6.14 5.14 5.65 8.09 9.67 7.07 7.44 6.21 8.42 2.62 6.02	5.87 5.93 4.59 5.22 7.51 9.40 6.38 6.58 5.70 7.09 2.31 4.95	7.47 8.01 8.49 7.84 10.65 11.24 11.79 9.53 15.53 5.85	6.15 5.27 5.39 5.9 8.2 10.04 7.28 7.62 6.8 9.22 3.4 7.27	3.27 2.98 2.69 3.02 5.47 3.67 2.68 2.92 2.06 2.25 1.73 1.80
IV	GUJARAT	6.17	5.26	11.01	7.52	2.03
1. 2. 3. 4. 56. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17.	Jamanagar Rajkot Surendranagar Bhavnagar Amreli Junagarh Kutch Banas Kantha Sabar Kantha Nahesana Gandhinagar Ahmedabad Kheda Panch Mahals Vadodara Bharuch Surat Valsad The Dangs	8.46 6.25 8.14 7.25 7.07 9.35 4.10 9.30 9.30 9.30 9.30 9.30 9.30 9.30 9.3	7.74 5.48 6.76 6.76 6.37 8.53 1.53 2.48 8.80 4.98 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55	13.46 10.65 14.53 10.47 8.02 11.07 9.26 17.35 12.30 6.18 6.83 6.87 13.75 13.75 13.21 10.36 8.62 14.21	10.99 8.21 9.86 8.97 7.22 8.61 9.19 9.52 4.63 1.17 9.12 7.66 7.63 6.25 10.97	2.75 2.26 1.23 2.76 3.43 4.92 2.57 2.35 1.54 1.77 2.01 1.24 2.53 1.19
٧	HARYA NA	5.19	4.86	12.51	5.91	1.80
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ambala Karmal Rohtak Gurgaon Kahendragarh Hissar Jind		2.72	10.09 8.43 20.98 17.05	7.04 2.7 4.08 4.4 8.6	1.49 2.27 1.52 1.18 1.54 2.34 2.56
VI	HIMACHAL PRADESH	5.58	3.32	11.51	5.87	1.33
1. 2. 3.	Chamba Kangra Handi	8.02 2.39 6.19	5.76 15.2 3.08	7.36	2.68	1.21 2.24 1.04

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Kulu Lahul δ Spiti Bila spur Maba su Simla Sirmaur Kinnaur	9.00 5.19 5.48 6.93 3.99 7.57 6.15	5.91 1.94 2.59 4.00 3.00 5.62 3.46	14.39 9.58 9.97 12.26 9.58 15.54 9.77	9.34 5.19 5.63 3. 08 5.52 7.93 6.15	1.30 1.9 1.65 0.82 1.67
VII.	JAMMU AND KASHMIR	5.01	4.80	10.16	5.59	2.3
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Anantra g Sri nagar Baramula Ladakh Doda Udhampur Jammu Kathua Rajauri Punch	3.98 4.17 7.22 7,15 7.97 3.85 5.95 8.18 7.40	3.72 4.21 3.84 5.06 6.24 7.59 3.78 5.68 8.13 7.32	9.07 7.20 8.07 11.62 11.25 13.15 5.84 12.13 10.29 14.06	4.11 4.74 4,15 7.43 7.4 8.43 4.79 6.31 8.46 7.84	2.22 3.79 2.07 4.53 1.72 2.04 1.38 2.12 0.95 1.25
VIII	KERALA	1.79	1.26	3.54	1.78	1.87
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Cannanore Koshikode Lalappuram Palghat Trichur Ernakulam Kottayam Alleppey Quilon Trivandrum	2.24 1.58 1.93 2.91 1.61 1.52 1.41 1.06 1.88 2.23	1.89 1.15 1.62 2.52 1.16 0.88 0.96 0.56 0.86 1.29	3.31 3.60 3.25 3.66 2.70 3.85 3.20 2.63 3.63 5.84	2.17 1.62 1.93 3.00 1.55 1.42 1.36 1.04 1.43 2.27	2.67 1.44 1.88 2.15 2.06 1.65 1.84 1.19 2.15 2.12
IX	MADHYA PRADESH	7.27	6.48	9.66	8.01	2.02
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11.	Morena Bhind Gwalior Datia Shivpuri Guma Tikamgarh Chhatarpur Panna Satna Rewa Shahdol	4.97 3.02 3.49 4.43 5.54 7.50 6.65 7.93 7.71 8.01	4.71 0.79 3.33 4.29 5.15 7.33 6.49 7.62 6.63 6.11 7.37	8.31 7.41 9.58 11.27 11.74	5.82 7.59 7.69 9.78 9.09 8.41 8.01	1.59 1.71 1.57 1.44 1.92 2.52 2.52 2.68 1.26 2.62 2.73 2.31

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
13.14.15.16.17.18.19.12.22.24.1.15.18.19.12.22.24.1.19.12.22.23.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33.33	Sidhi Mandsaur Ratlam Ujjain Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.Nimar) Khandwa (E.Nimar) Shahapur Rajgarh Vidi sha Sehore Raisen Hoshangabad Betul Sagar Damoh Jabalpur Narsimhapur Mandla Chhindwara Seoni Balaghat Surguja Bilaspur Raigarh Durg Raipur Bastar	9. 28 9. 28 9. 24 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	9.45 9.45 9.45 9.47	11.13 9.56 6.70 17.64 11.43 5.08 12.83 6.60 12.83 6.60 12.83 6.60 10.93 1	9.71 9.71 9.71 9.71 9.71 9.71 9.71 9.71	32.0825589247686836454341498641809 2.082223231.08331.0839
X	MA HARASHT RA	5.37	4.46	7.96	6.78	1.58
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14.	Greater Bombay Thana Kolaba Ratmagiri Nasik Dhulia Jalgaon Ahmednagar Poona Satara Sangli Sholapur Kohlapur Aurangabad Parbhani	0.99 4.59 3.13 6.67 7.65 5.90 3.75 4.36 7.36 8.39	0.79 3.76 2.90 7.34 5.60 6.45 2.93 4.72 5.91 4.72 7.91	3.01 7.25 3.21 4.10 9.14 11.29 7.65 7.97 6.71 6.93 4.53 7.18 6.44 9.46 9.72	- 05 3.15 7.86 9.18 6.17 6.31 5.67 5.04 8.02 9.04	0.99 1.40 1.75 1.32 2.26 2.47 2.19 1.89 1.04 1.89 2.05 3.10 2.54 3.53

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	Bhir Nanded Osmanabad Buldhana Akola Amravati Yeot mal Wardha Nagpur Bhandara Chand rapur	7.36 8.05 6.75 7.37 7.52 6.57 8.84 6.26 4.57 5.75	7.01 7.56 5.99 5.49 5.08 4.66 7.06 4.49 6.0	8.46 9.63 7.19 10.82 10.88 10.11 12.15 9.66 7.53 7.57 8.38	7.78 8.67 6.62 8.05 8.51 7.6 9.51 7.14 6.9 6.07 7.18	3.02 3.67 2.88 2.54 2.72 2.72 2.43 1.76 1.69 2.07 1.48
XI	MANIPUR	4.41	3 . 10	6.97	4.78	1.12
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Manipur North) Manipur West) Manipur South) Manipur Central) Manipur East)		N. A.			
XII	I-TEGHALA YA	6.81	6.37	7.53	7.45	1.46
1. 2.	Garo Hills) United Khasi and) Jaintiya Hills)		N. A.	•		
XIII	KARNATAKA	7.94	7,13	11.19	8.95	4.07
1. 2. 34. 56. 7. 89. 112. 12. 13. 14. 15. 17. 19.	Bangalore Belgaum Bellary BBidar Bijapur Chikmagalur Chitradurge Dharwar Coorg Gulbarga Hassan Kolar Mandya Ilys ore North Kanara Raichur Shimoga South Kanara Tumkur	5.41 8.36 9.37 7.02 6.54 9.62 9.64 9.62 7.90 8.61 7.16 7.16	4.76 7.72 8.26 7.14 8.60 5.70 8.29 8.32 5.06 8.31 7.22 7.47 8.10 6.90 4.90 9.09 6.33 4.95 7.06	10.21 10.97 12.49 6.71 11.45 10.03 14.13 12.73 9.35 9.22 12.28 15.68 12.22 8.74 6.85 12.98 10.92 10.59 11.62	6.54 9.01 8.48	2.8 3.85 6.24 3.71 5.11 4.2 7.49 1.68 4.51 13.64 3.59 3.45 2.77 3.76 4.18 4.8
XIV	NA GALAND	5.23	3.94	7.05	5 .7 4	0.62
1. 2. 3.	Kohima) Nokokchung) Tuen sang)		N. A.			

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
XV.	ORISSA	7.18	7.07	9.30	8.26	3.05
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 89. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Sambalpur Sundergarh Keonjhar Mayurbhanj Balasore Cuttack Dhenkanal Bandh Khondmals Bolangir Kalahandi Koraput Ganjam Puri	7.32 7.85 6.70 8.67 3.55 3.13 6.98 8.92 9.72 14.07 10.45 9.71 4.71	7.05 7.35 6.50 8.03 5.43 5.05 6.95 8.21 9.92 14.10 10.32 7.75 4.57	9.11 12.58 8.43 11.77 6.05 4.48 7.37 12.74 7.78 13.71 11.31 8.40 6.88	7.85 9.71 6.99 8.59 3.57 3.18 7.14 9.07 10.12 14.48 10.98 8.33 4.90	2.92 2.09 3.67 3.10 2.57 2.83 3.95 2.91 5.30 3.48 3.69
XAI	PUNJAB	5.94	5.98	4.24	7.02	2.37
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Gurdaspur Amritsar Fir ozpur Ludhiana Jullundur Kapurthala Hoshiarpur Ropar Patiala Sangrur Bhatinda	4.73 6.51 7.68 3.99 3.81 5.67 2.43 3.04 6.91 8.75 8.04	4.74 6.55 7.70 4.01 3.91 5.75 2.42 3.05 6.97 8.80 8.09	4.43 4.78 6.14 3.09 3.89 3.56 2.74 2.80 3.95 4.70 4.83	5.54 8.30 8.80 4.59 6.85 2.62 3.42 8.53 9.66 9.00	1.66 2.22 2.64 2.22 1.97 1.49 1.10 0.94 1.98 4.68 3.63
XVII	ra jast ha n	7.29	6.30	14.13	8.12	2.45
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 112. 13. 14. 15.	Ganganagar Bikaner Churu Jhunjhunu Alwar Bharatpur Sawai Madhopur Jaipur Sikar Ajmer Tonk Jaisalmer Jodhpur Nagaur Pali Barmer	8.10 6.56 9.80 5.22 5.35 4.58 6.79 8.47 7.57 4.80 6.95 9.26 7.97 8.90	7.56 5.85 8.16 4.24 4.86 4.55 5.57 6.78 4.12 5.85 6.85 7.86	1.05 12.36 18.34 15.78 11.28 8.36 10.83 13.62 16.89 14.28 11.75 15.27 15.14 14.46 12.95 15.67	9.08 8.82 11.59 5.65 4.88 6.61 8.01 7.40 10.99 8.22 5.29 8.69 9.86 8.47 9.38	2.78 1.44 3.4 3.2 1.93 2.43 2.41 2.32 2.98 2.14 3.56 1.71 2.10 3.21

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25.	Jalor Sirohi Bhilwara Udaipur Chittaurgarh Dungarpur Banswara Bundi Kota Jhalawar	9.26 9.60 9.55 7.22 7.80 8.51 7.54 7.69 4.65 6.18	8.23 8.43 8.32 6.20 6.74 6.56 6.45 7.16 4.20 5.74	18.23 20.21 14.83 14.97 11.76 25.90 20.06 11.62 8.63 9.59	9.49 10.86 10.10 -7.64 8.28 8.84 7.8 9.13 5.52 6.49	3.5 2.66 3.36 1.93 1.94 2.02 2.04 2.24 1.70 2.39
XVII	I SIKK I M)					
1. 2. 3. 4.	Gangtok) Mangan) Gyalshing) Namchi)	N. A.				
XIX	TAMIL NADU	4.83	4.18	7.30	5.55	2.73
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Madras Chinglepur North Arcot South Arcot Dharampuri Salem Coimbatore Nilgiris Madurai Tiruchirapalli Thanjavur Ramanathpuram Tirunelveli Kanya Kumari	1.15 3.59 5.25 4.14 9.54 6.30 5.25 4.77 5.16 4.61 2.89	1.04 3.18 4.86 3.91 8.86 5.50 5.04 2.36 4.64 4.21 2.86 4.19 3.54 2.26	2.33 5.60 6.81 5.30 12.46 9.24 8.97 4.64 7.20 6.89 4.13 8.02 7.88 8.18	- 34 54.65 4.41 9.60 7.53 6.30 5.26 5.30 5.30 5.30 5.30 5.30	1.36 3.3 1.95 4.11 5.58 2.95 2.62 2.30 2.13 3.51 2.16
XX	TRIPURA	4.04	3.73	7.35	4.27	1.69
1. 2. 3.	West Tripura) North Tripura) South Tripura)	N. A.				
XXI	UTTAR PRADESH	4.85	4.40	8.84	5.15	2.74
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 7.	Uttar Kashi Chamoli Tehri Garhwal Garhwal Pithoragarh Almora Naini Tal	8.32 9.33 10.10 5.75 4.64 6.07 4.67	5.71 4.54 8.08 2.51 2.01 2.90 4.24	13.46 11.84 8.92 8.50	5.94 4.70 6.32	1.91 2.55 1.14

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
8.	Bijnor	4.99	4.93	7.44	5.13	4.30
9.	Morada ba d	5.26	.5.15	10.22	5.78	3.36
10.	Budaun	5.51	5.52	4.92	5.6	4.55
11.	Rampur	6.20	6.18	8.16	6.75	3.67
12.	Bareilly	5.13	5.14	4.53	5.48	3. 56
13.	Pilibhit Shehiah mum	5 • 34 4 57	5.34	. 5.05	5.61	3.27
14. 15.	Shahjahanpur Dehra Dun	4•5 7 3•63	4.53 2.93	6.26 9.55	4.82 5.46	2.77 1.20
16.	Saharanpur	5.29	5.24	7.21	6.16	2.31
17.	Muzzafarne gar	5.20	5.11	8.43	5.32	4.41
18.	Meerut	3.50	5 •11 3• 40	8.83	3.75	2.73
1.9.	Bulandshahr	2.69	2.63	5.10	2.70	2.64
20.	Aligarh	2.77	2.76	3.11	2.66	3.35
21.	Mathura	3 . 65	3 •55	6.48	3.86	2.52
22.	Agra	3. 68	3.67	3.89	3.67	3 . 68
23•	Etah	3 - 37	3.31	6.59	3. 45	2.44
24•	Hainpuri	2.53	2.54	2.26	2.59	1.87
25.	Farrukha bad	3. 55	3.41	10.51	3.61	3.02
26.	Etawah	2.53	2.49	4.25	2.59	2.03
27.	Kanpur	2.31	2.23	4.03	3.02 5.70	1.37
28.	Fatehpur	5.62 5.57	4.87 4.62	9•48 9•85	5.79 6.26	2.17 1.93
29. 30.	Allaha bad Jhansi	3.45	3 • 34	4.60	2.95	1.76
31 •	Jalaun	2.84	2.78	3.82	2.95	2.10
32.	Hamirpur	4.76	4.52	6.18	4.78	2.25
33.	Banda	6.04	5.23	10.17	6.31	2.30
34.	Kheri	5.82	5.81	6.22	5 • 95	3. 46
35.	Sitapur	5.41	5 • 43	4.74	5•59	2.89
36.	Hardol	4.49	4.44	6.34	4.60	2.97
37.	Unnao	4.31	4.10	7 • 44	4.37	1.76
38.	Lucknow	3. 38	3.24	5.68	4.36	2.30
39•	Rae Bareli	4.96	4.55 6.62	7.56 8.04	5.01 6.87	3.1 3.17
•40 •	Bahraich Gonda	6.69 5.85	5 .7 5	6.82	6.00	2.81
42.	Bara Banki	5.01	4.88	6.49	5.10	3.13
43.	Faizabad	4.45	3·94	7.61	4.62	2.58
44.	Sultanpur	3.44	3.22	4.69	3.47	1.79
45.	Pratapgarh	4.63	3.98	7.28	4.57	2.38
46.	Basti	5 .7 5	5 -15	9.47	5.82	2.63
47.	Gorakhpur	5.51	4.65	10.16	5.76	1.87
48.	Deoria	5.87	5.15	10.91	5.95	2.74
49.	Azamgarh	5.98	5.04	10.66	6.01	5 • 45
50.	Jaunpur	4.21	3.72	7.23	4.30	2.82
51.	Ballia	5.67	5.12	8.64	5.79	2.86
52.	Ghazipur	4.83	4.18	7.75	4.92	2.40
53.	Varanasi	5.05	4.66	7.68	5 • 40 7 • 06	3.94
54•	Mirzapur	7.34	6.10	12.06	7.96	2.24

(xxii)

(1)	(2)	(多)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
XXII	WEST BENGAL	4.13	3.94	6.58	5.05	1.59
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Darjeeling9 Jalpaiguri Cooch Behar West Dinajpur Malada Murshidabad Nadia 24 Parganas Howrah Calcutta Hooghly Burdwan Birbhum Bankura Midnapore Purulia	4.76 4.48 6.70 7.93 7.05 6.50 5.38 3.12 1.67 1.75 3.52 3.61 4.42 3.84 5.18	3.78 4.67 6.62 7.88 6.21 5.39 3.60 1.51 2.83 3.50 4.27 3.48 4.51	7.27 3.47 9.45 9.61 9.61 12.08 5.09 5.51 4.51 5.77 6.38 7.04	5.47 4.67 7.02 8.41 7.23 6.78 6.13 4.32 2.34 7.57 4.07 5.74 3.98 5.41	1.71 2.52 2.24 2.36 2.60 3.33 1.96 1.04 0.95 1.67 3.67 2.58 1.98 1.99
	UNION TERM	RITORIES				
I	A. & N. ISLANDS	1.25	1.10	4 • 40	1.33	1.03
II	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	6.65	5.09	8.88	6.85	0.74
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Kameng Subansiri Siang Lohit Tirap	5.92 9.17 5.53 5.37 6.72	4.67 8.02 3.97 3.89 4.79	7.96 10.46 7.72 8.38 9.44	6.09 9.17 5.93 5.7 6.72	1.22 - 0.70 0.38
·III	CHANDI GARH	1.26	1.21	1.91	1.68	1.22
IV	DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI	8.86	7.63	10.60	8.86	-
v	DELHI	1.39	1.30	2.53	2.12	1.32
VI	GOA, DAMAN & DIU	2.72	1.96	5.08	2.92	2.17
1. 2. 3.	Goa) Daman) Diu)	N. A.				
VII	LAKSHDWEEP	1.16	0.61	2.75	1.16	-
VIII 1. 2. 3. 4.	PONDICHERRY Karaikal) Mahe) Pondicherry) Yanam)	2.64 N. A.	2.36	3. 88	2.9	2.17
IX	MIZORAN	N. A.				

		Appendix Table-4: Appendix Table-Female Participation of Child Cipation of Workers (1971) Appendix Table-4: Appendix Table-4: Rural-Urba Cipation of Child Cipation of Workers (ban Parti- of Child	
S.No.	State/Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Femal e
	INDIA	73.42	26.58	92.78	7.22
I.	ANDHRA PRADESH	64.55	35 • 45	93.41	6.59
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 17. 18. 19. 21.	Sri kakulam Visakha patnam E. Godavari W. Godavari Kri shna Guntur OOngole Nellore Chittoor Cuddapah Anantapur Kurnool Mah bubna gar Hyderabad Medak Nizamabad Adilabad Karimna gar Warangal Khamam Nalgonda	60.74 64.75 81.16 72.73 66.28 60.41 57.65 67.25 65.06 61.81 61.21 71.91 68.89 57.68 65.02 58.45 66.12 63.90 68.71	39.26 35.25 18.84 27.72 39.59 42.75 34.59 42.75 34.59 43.79 42.98 41.55 31.29	95.69 94.69 95.90 97.20 87.29 94.97 95.52 93.47 97.47 97.47 97.57 97.95 97.95 97.95 97.95 97.95 97.95	4.41 5.31 10.10 7.99 12.80 11.82 5.03 6.77 4.41 5.88 6.57 10.06 3.56 22.53 6.43 4.60 4.49 3.92 1.70
II.	ASSAM)			
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Goalpara Kamrup Darrang Nowgong Sibsagar Lakhimpur Mikir Hills North Cachar Hil	}	•A •		
III	BIHAR	79.25	20.75	96.22	3.78
1. 2. 3. 4.	Patna Gaya Shahbad Saran	73.86 74.63 75.59 81.05	26.14 25.37 24.41 18.95	87.35 96.82 95.76 97.81	12.65 3.18 4.24 2. 1 9

(xxiv)

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Female
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16.	Champaran Muzaf farpur Darbhanga Monghyr Bhagalpur Saharsa Purnea Santhal Parganas Palamau Hazaribagh Ranchi Dhanbad Singhbhum	82.45 89.10 86.44 77.17 77.39 75.63 82.25 77.33 73.83 79.69 70.90 80.61 66.70	17.55 10.90 13.56 22.83 22.61 24.73 14.75 22.67 26.17 20.31 29.10 19.39 33.30	97.32 97.33 98.15 94.99 95.36 97.27 97.81 98.25 98.48 95.86 96.93 68.91 93.14	2.68 2.67 1.85 5.01 4.64 2.73 2.19 1.75 1.57 4.14 3.07 31.09 6.86
VI	GU JRAT	71.87	28.13	91.88	8.12
1. 2. 34. 5. 6. 7. 8. 90. 112. 123. 145. 17. 19.	Jamnagar Rajkot Surendranagar Bhavnagar Amreli Junagarh Kutch Banas Kantha Sabar Kantha Mahe sana Gandhinagar Ahmadabad Kheda Panch Mahals Vadodara Bharuch Surat Valsad The Dangs	80.06 74.55 72.89 79.65 85.42 78.08 75.21 82.22 73.58 76.19 80.10 77.11 85.21 61.43 68.56 59.97 59.08 57.46 60.33	19.94 25.45 27.11 20.35 14.58 21.92 24.79 17.78 26.42 23.81 19.90 22.89 14.79 38.57 31.44 40.92 42.54 39.67	90.02 88.08 93.28 89.46 90.84 91.60 92.97.50 93.62 97.50 93.83 91.20 98.13 94.55 84.59 92.97 100.00	9.98 11.92 6.72 10.54 9.16 8.40 7.08 2.50 3.70 6.38 7.61 26.17 8.80 1.87 5.42 4.45 15.41 7.03
ν	HARYANA	89.79	10.21	93.89	6.11
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ambala Karnal Rohtak Gurgaon Mahendragarh Hissar Jind	96.32 96.10 82.28 89.91 60.86 89.21 91.57	3.68 3.90 17.72 10.09 39.14 10.79 8.43	89.33 93.92 90.18 93.37 96.38 95.40	10.68 6.08 9.82 6.63 3.62 4.60 4.66

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Female
VI	HIMACHAL PRADESH	43.17	56.83	98.46	1.54
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Chamba Kangra Mandi Kulu Lahul & Spiti Bilaspur Mahasu Simla Sirmaur Kinnaur	54.33 45.88 33.81 41.76 21.49 37.27 28.83 64.02 59.85 22.27	45.67 54.12 66.19 58.24 78.51 62.73 71.17 35.98 40.15 67.73	99.22 96.69 98.46 99.39 100.00 98.57 99.34 93.27 98.71 100.00	0.78 3.31 1.54 0.61 - 1.43 0.66 6.73 1.29
VII	JAMMU & KASHMIR	87.98	12.02	91.01	8.99
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Anantrag Srinagar Baramula Ladakh Doda Udhampur Jammu -Kathua Rajauri Punch	89.56 95.21 92.44 46.95 71.58 88.65 95.14 91.40 96.93 97.69	10.44 4.79 7.56 53.05 28.42 11.35 4.86 8.60 3.07 2.31	95.65 58.80 96.11 95.59 98.94 98.17 90.09 96.94 99.54 98.87	4.35 41.20 3.89 4.41 1.06 1.83 9.91 3.06 0.46 1.13
VII	KERALA	53.98	46.02	84.36	15.64
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Cannanore Koshikode Malappuram Palghat Trichur Brnakulam Kottayam Alleppey Quilon Trivandrum	63.62 60.60 67.83 57.76 51.05 45.29 54.17 39.74 45.16 46.01	36.38 40.00 32.17 42.24 48.95 54.71 45.83 60.26 54.84 53.99	84.54 77.67 93.82 92.21 86.21 70.72 87.41 82.49 88.93 76.26	15.46 22.33 6.18 7.79 13.79 29.28 12.59 17.51 11.07 23.74
IX	MADHYA PRADESH	67.26	32.74	96.54	3.46
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Norema Bhind Gwalior Datia Shivpuri Guna	88.14 94.67 86.97 84.15 81.76 78.60	11.86 5.33 13.03 15.85 18.24 21.40	97.28 95.17 79.13 96.30 97.00 95.65	2.72 4.83 20.87 3.70 3.00 4.35

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Female
7890123456789012234566. 1123456789012234566. 123466. 123466. 123466. 123466. 123466. 123466. 1234666. 1234666.	Tikamgarh Chhatarpur Panna Satna Rewa Shahdol Sidhi Mandsaur Ratlam Ujjain Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.Nimar) Khandwa (E.Nimar) Shahjapur Rajgarh Vidisha Sehore Raisen Hoshangabad Setul Sagar Damoh Jabalpur Narsimhapur Mandla Chhindwara Seoni Balaghat Surguja Bilaspur Raigarh Durg Raipur Bastar	27 81 80 73 60 61 61 62 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63 63	49.45 38.06 34.79	97.01 99.24	3.36 0.79 1.78 0.68 3.32 1.31 2.40 2.99 0.76
X	MAHARASHTRA	61.42	38 .≨ 8	91.98	8.02
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Greater Bombay Thana Kolaba Ratnagiri Nasik Dhulia	73.41 62.88 64.11 41.48 58.47 63.25	37.12 35.89 58.52 41.53	97.29	7.19

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Female
7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	Jal gaon Ahmed na gar Poona Satara Sangli Sholapur Kholapur Aurangabad Parbhani Bhir Nanded Osmanabad Buldhana Akola Amravati Yeotmal Wardha Nagpur Bhandara Chandrapur	57.92 64.12 61.24 57.14 78.25 76.50 64.37 69.56 71.54 71.54 71.58 47.19 53.52 53.52 50.53 50.23 61.65	42.08 25.88 38.76 42.86 21.75 24.48 33.50 35.63 30.44 28.02 28.46 25.12 52.81 47.37 48.48 47.82 49.42 43.91 53.72 38.35	92.80 97.04 97.04 89.54 95.47 89.52 98.52 99.40 95.89 94.40 95.83 97.43 97.43 97.43 97.43 97.43 97.43 97.43	7.20 2.96 10.46 4.89 7.53 11.49 9.48 4.18 5.60 5.80 4.55 4.22 6.17 8.82 2.57 4.83 14.17 2.87 1.62
XI	MANIPUR	46.58	53 . 52	97.42	2.58
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Manipur North) Manipur West) Manipur South) Manipur Central) Manipur East)	N.A			
XII	MEGHALAYA	58.03	41.97	97.72	2.28
1.	Garo Hills) United Khasi and) Jaintiya Hills)	N.A			
XIII	KARHATAKA	71.83	28.17	89•39	10 • 61
1. 2. 3. 4. 56. 7. 8.	Bangalore Belgaum Bellary Bidan Bijapur Chikmagalur Chitradurga Dharwar Coorg	77.45 74.11 66.13 82.47 72.71 69.96 66.19 70.07 57.88	22.55 25.89 33.87 17.53 27.29 30.04 33.91 29.93 42.12	73.06 92.23 84.75 93.62 90.05 91.56 91.17 84.05 90.11	26.94 7.77 15.25 6.38 9.95 8.44 8.83 15.95 9.89

(xxviii)

S.No.	State/Districts	Male	Female	Male	Female
10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18.	Gulbarga Hassan Kolar Mandya Mysore North Kanara Raichur Shimoga South Kanara	79.39 79.22 68.52 82.64 82.98 74.23 70.54 74.80 42.73 76.93	20.61 20.78 31.84 17.36 17.02 25.77 29.46 25.20 56.27 23.07	92.53 94.65 93.66 94.00 89.85 92.42 92.48 88.92 89.65 93.72	10.15 7.58
XIA	NA GALAND	44.09	55.91	98.92	1.18
1: 2: 3:	Kohima) Hokokchung) Tuensang)	N.A.			
xv:	ORISSA	85.97	14.03	96.52	3.48
1: 2: 33: 4: 5: 6: 7: 8: 9: 10: 11: 12: 13:	Sambalpur Sundergarh Keonjhar Mayurbhanj Balasore Cuttack Dhenkanal Bandh Khondmals Bolangir Kalahandi Koraput Ganjam Puri	83.37 84.64 86.78 76.55 91.22 91.95 91.94 78.70 92.64 91.63 85.56 77.80 91.10	16.63 15.36 15.22 25.45 8.08 8.05 8.06 22.30 7.36 8.37 14.44 22.20 8.90	95.73 93.49 96.07 98.90 94.77 92.59 98.47 98.68 98.03 98.31 97.65 95.47 95.30	
XVI	PUNJAB	98.65	1.35	90.78	9.22
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Gurdaspur Amritsar Firzopur Ludhiana Jullundur Kapurthala Hoshiarpur Ropar Patiala Sangrur Bhatinda	98.28 98.40 98.68 98.28 97.50 98.86 97.76 98.46 98.72 99.35 99.21	1.72 1.60 1.32 1.72 2.50 1.14 2.24 1.54 1.28 0.65 0.79	93.59 89.95 93.70 80.39 84.68 91.60 94.34 95.38 92.91 90.25 91.92	6.41 10.05 6.30 19.61 15.32 8.40 5.66 4.62 7.09 9.75 8.08

(xxix)

S.No.	State/Districts	Male	Female	Male	Female
XVII	ra jasthan	75 . <i>3</i> 5	24.65	75.09	4.91
123456789011231456.189012222226.	Ganganagar Bikaner Churu Jhunjhunu Alwar Bharatpur Sawai Madhopur Jaipur Sikar Ajmer Tonk Jaisalmer Jodhpur Nagaur Pali Barmer Jalor Sir ohi Bhilwara Udaipur Chittaurgarh Dungarpur Banswara Bundi Kota Jhalawar	89.01 79.29 69.87 47.32 89.18 74.59 97.40 75.47 80.30 76.59 76.53 76.50 79.07 77.78	37.41 24.53 19.35 26.37 33.31 26.70 23.50	94.65 88.54 92.40 90.83 97.10 93.50 94.61 92.48 95.08 95.08 95.08 96.17 97.95 98.77 98.77 98.77 98.77 98.77 97.04	7.60 9.17 2.90 6.50 3.82 9.37 5.99 7.19 6.58 4.92
XVIII	SIKKIM				
1. 2. 3. 4.	Gangtok) Mangan) Gyalshing) Namchi)	N. A.			
XIX	TAMIL NADU	68.53	31.47	85.53	14.47
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Madras Chingleput North Arcot South Arcot Dharampuri Salem Coimbatore Nilgiris Madurai Tiruchirappalli Than javur Ramanth puram Tirunelveli Kanya Kumari	82.76 73.51 73.68 78.81 75.25 66.54 63.41 51.24 67.28 69.22 77.56 60.64 55.82 70.23	17.24 26.49 26.32 21.19 24.75 33.46 36.59 48.76 32.72 30.78 22.44 39.36 34.18 29.77	- 84.36 89.34 94.73 97.07 79.75 85.20 60.85 84.96 91.61 88.57 81.14 79.01 88.16	5.27

S.No.	State/Districts	Male	Female	Male	Female
XX	TRIPURA	84.65	15.35	96.19	3.81
1. 2. 3.	West Tripura North Tripura } South Tripura }	N. A.			
XXI	UTTAR PRADESH	81.52	18.48	92.92	7.08
12345678901234567890123456789012333333333333333333333333333333333333	Uttar Kashi Chamoli Tehri Garhwal Garhwal Pithoragarh Almora Maini Tal Bijnor Moradabad Budaun Rampur Bareilly Pilibhit Shahjahanpur Dehra Dun Saha ranpur Muzzafarnagar Me erut Bulandshahr Aligarh Mathura Agra Ltah Mainpuri Farrukhabad Etawah Kanpur Fatehpur Allahabad Jhansi Jalaun Hamirpur Banda Kheri Sitapur Hardoi Unnao Lucknow Rae Bareli Bahraich Gonda	37.51.266.1366.348999999999999999999999999999999999999	62.498 62.498 74.292 71.83 74.391 12.588 73.54 13.692 13.692 13.693	99.53885996.45.79916.60999999999999999999999999999999999	0.412 0.412 1.525 14.73 14.75 14.55 15.55 16.55

S.No.	State/Districts	Male	Female	Male	Femal e
43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 51. 51. 52.	Faizabad Sultanpur Pratapgarh Basti Gorakhpur Deoria Azamgarh Jaunpur Ballia Ghazipur Varanasi Eirzapur	76.54 79.44 68.91 76.90 71.35 76.93 70.27 75.89 76.27 70.97 80.22 66.03	23.46 20.56 31.09 23.10 28.65 23.07 29.73 24.11 23.73 29.03 19.78 33.97	94.98 99.08 99.06 99.04 97.83 98.77 94.58 95.86 97.85 98.10 (81.29 96.66	5.02 0.92 0.94 0.97 2.17 1.23 5.42 4.14 2.15 1.90 18.71
XXII	WUST BINGAL	88.09	11.91	89.69	10.31
1. 2. 3. 4. 56. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Darjeeling Jalpaiguri Cooch Behar West Dinajpur Malda Nurshidabad Nadia 24 Pargans Howrah Calcutta Hooghly Burdwan Birbhum Bankura Midnapore Purulia	57.21 88.27 95.87 94.56 91.64 90.76 96.34 94.14 93.74 81.31 85.84 85.90 90.09 83.45 82.44 74.16	42.79 11.73 4.13 5.44 8.36 9.24 3.36 6.26 18.69 14.10 9.91 16.55 17.56 25.84	93.24 95.15 97.76 97.66 98.57 95.82 95.42 87.74 72.21 - 84.01 89.20 95.51 96.23 96.34 97.39	3.66
	. UNION	TERR ITO RI	as .		
I	A. AND NICOBAL ISLAM	DS 84.27	15.73	78.68	21.33
II.	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	45 •04	54.96	99.64	0.36
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Kameng Subansiri Siang Lohit Tirap	48.83 46.40 41.48 48.47 41.63	51.17 53.60 58.52 51.53 58.37	100.00 99.09 99.57	- 0.91

(xxxii)

S.No.	Union Territories	Male	Female	Male	Female
III	CHANDIGARH	88.97	11.05	13.26	86.74
IV	DADRA AND NAGAR HAVELI	50.42	49.58	100.00	-
V	DELHI	87.32	12.68	13.87	86.13
VI	GOA, DAMAN AND BIU	54.82	45.18	78.34	21.66
1. 2. 3.	Goa) Daman) Diu)	N. A.			
VII	LAKSHADWEZP	39.18	60.82	100.00	-
VIII	PONDICHERRY	73.23	26.27	70.29	29.71
1. 2. 3. 4.	Karaikal) Mahe) Pondicherry) Yanam)	N. A.			
IX	MISORAH	N. A.			

Note: i) Table 4 has been prepared by calculating the percentage of male and female children in the child work force

ii) Table 5 has been prepared by calculating the percentage of rural and urban children in the child work force

(xxxiii)

Appendix Table-6 Sectoral Distribution of Child Workers 1971

			·	
S.No.	State/Union Territories	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
	INDIA	87.23	6.64	6.13
I	ANDHRA PRADESH	86.41	7.49	6.10
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21.	Srikakulam Visakhapatnam East Godavari West Godavari Kri shan Guntur Ongole Nellore Chittoor Cuddapah Anantapur Kurnool Mahbubnagar Hyderabad Medak Nizamabad Adilabad Karimnagar Warangal Khamam Nalgonda	87.83 88.69 80.78 85.50 79.14 82.99 85.56 86.10 91.17 88.95 87.20 90.33 75.08 92.22 73.08 86.74 85.72 91.51 92.63	5.31 4.81 8.94 6.17 10.87 8.44 7.19 4.98 96.85 7.63 910.43 7.62 9.78 4.04	6.50 10.28 9.25 9.20 18.39 15.20 13.50 14.57 14.57 14.57 14.54 14.04 15.03
II	ASSAH .			
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Goalpara Kamrup Darrang Nowgong Sibsagar Lakhimpur Mikir Hills North Cachar Hills Cachar	N. A.		
III	BIHAR	93.21	3.05	3.74
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Patna Gaya Shahbad Saran Champaran	86.33 93.08 91.46 94.76 95.28	6.44 3.36 3.05 2.29 2.00	7.23 3.55 5.49 2.92 2.72

S.No.	State/Districts	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
13. 14. 15. 16.	Muzaffarpur Darbhanga Honghyr Bhagalpur Saharsa Purnea Santhal Pargans Palamau Hazaribagh Ranchi Dhanbad Singhbhum	94.25 95.55 90.01 90.02 96.37 96.43 93.11 96.35 93.82 93.30 72.33 87.98	2.22 2.54 6.51 5.88 1.23 1.29 4.02 1.55 2.80 2.04 9.16 5.00	3.53 2.91 3.48 4.10 2.40 2.28 2.87 2.10 3.38 4.65 18.51 7.02
IV	GU JA RAT	90.50	4.87	4.62
12. 13. 14. 15. 16.	Jamnagar Rajkot Surendranagar Bhavnagar Amreli Junagarh Kutch Banas Kantha Sabar Kantha Mahesana Gandhinagar Ahmedabad Kheda Panch Mahals Vadodara Bharuch Surat Valsad The Dangs	88.93 87.98 92.42 86.92 92.45 92.54 90.61 92.47 89.50 74.51 98.04 98.04 98.04 98.09 98.01	5.28 5.81 4.28 7.07 3.84 2.4.36 1.98 4.18 12.12 9.86 9.87 2.65 13.56 0.90	5.79 6.21 3.30 6.01 4.24 5.05 4.27 5.58 15.60 4.63 1.3.75 4.47 5.29
Λ	HA RYA NA	88.44	6.05	5.51
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Ambala Karnal Rohtak Gurgaon Mahendragarh Hissar Sind	79.74 88.73 82.51 84.12 93.07 92.02 91.22	9.72 5.89 9.96 8.01 3.65 4.21 5.06	10.54 5.38 7.53 7.87 3.28 3.77
VI	HIMACHAL PRADUSH	95 • 55	1.91	2.52
1. 2. 3.	Chamba Kangra Mandi	97•39 89•84 96•42	1.35 3.71 1.59	1.26 6.45 1.99

(xxxv)

S.No.	State/Districts	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Kulu Lahul and Spiti Bilaspur Mahasu Simla Sirmaur Kinnaur	97.61 85.97 96.46 97.55 89.23 96.23	0.91 8.34 2.06 1.11 3.19 2.12 2.48	1.48 5.69 1.48 1.34 7.58 1.65 1.29
VII	JAMMU AND KASHMIR	87.77	7.89	4.34
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Anantnag Srinagar Baramula Ladakh Doda Udhampur Jammu Kathua Rajauri Punch	90.46 56.74 92.15 96.94 98.18 96.06 81.45 91.15 97.85 98.09	7.19 30.91 4.87 1.05 0.88 1.74 9.10 4.96 0.91 0.80	2.35 12.35 2.98 2.01 0.94 2.20 9.45 3.89 1.24 1.11
VIII	KERALA	43.63	25.42	30.95
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Cannanore Kozhikode Kalappuram Palghat Trichur Grnakulam Kottayam Alleppey Quilon Trivandrum	35.67 51.85 62.11 74.78 35.63 24.49 58.42 23.64 24.04 29.32	46.19 12.18 12.58 11.59 29.04 27.96 5.22 26.01 33.44 38.49	18.14 35.97 25.31 13.63 35.33 47.55 36.36 50.35 42.52 32.19
IX	MADHYA PRADESH	93.19	4.27	2.54
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Morena Bhind Gwalior Datia Shivpuri Guna Tikamgarh Chhattarpur Panna Satna Rewa Shahdol Sidhi Landsaur	95.54 94.60 80.89 93.04 95.41 93.67 97.24 94.73 96.10 90.02 94.69 96.41 96.59	2.72 2.55 10.24 4.08 2.12 3.91 1.66 3.15 2.51 7.20 3.57 1.88 2.18 3.43	1.74 2.85 8.87 2.88 2.47 2.42 1.10 1.92 1.39 2.77 1.74 1.71 1.23 2.90

15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30.	Ratlam Ujjain Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (J.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	94.02 90.40 98.05 95.95 75.63 93.73 95.93	2.94 4.62 0.85 1.99 9.79 3.45 1.91 4.27	3.04 4.98 1.10 2.06 14.58 2.82 2.16
17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (J.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	90.40 98.05 95.95 75.63 93.73 95.93 92.77	4.62 0.85 1.99 9.79 3.45 1.91	4.98 1.10 2.06 14.58 2.82
17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Jhabua Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (J.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	98.05 95.95 75.63 93.73 95.93 92.77 95.09	0.85 1.99 9.79 3.45 1.91	1.10 2.06 14.58 2.82
18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Dhar Indore Dewas Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (J.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	95 • 95 75 • 63 93 • 73 95 • 93 92 • 77 95 • 09	1.99 9.79 3.45 1.91	2.06 14.58 2.82
19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28.	Dewas Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (L.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	75.63 93.73 95.93 92.77 95.09	9.79 3.45 1.91	14.58 2.82
20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28.	Khargone (W.N) Khandwa (L.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidisha	93.73 95.93 92.77 95.09	1.91	2.82 2.16
22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Khandwa (I.Nimar) Shajapur Rajgarh Vidisha	95.93 92.77 95.09		2,16
23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Shajapur Rajgarh Vidi sha	92 .77 95 . 09	4.27	
24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Rajgarh Vidi sha	95.09		2.96
25. 26. 27. 28. 29.	Vidi sha	O4 57	2.46	2.45
26. 27. 28. 29.		94.51	2.88	2.61
27. 28. 29.	90 ab 020	94.38	2.79	2.83
28. 29.	Seshore	83.46	7.15	9.39
29.	Raisen	88.28	8.12	3.60 3.46
	Hoshangabad	89.72	6.82 1.71	7 40
<i>7</i> 0 •	Betul	9 7. 05 59 . 08	36.24	1.24 4.68
	Sagar Damoh	79.01	18.10	2.89
31. 32.	Jabalpur	79.86	14.54	5.60
33.	Narsi mhapur	92.26	3.40	4.34
34 •	Mandla	98.13	ó . 96	0.91
35 .	Chindwara	95.31	1.70	2.99
36.	Seoni	95.55	1.44	3.01
37.	Balaghat	88.65	9.18	2.17
38.	Surguja	97.78	1.38	0.84
39.	Bilaspur	93.32	4.31	2 .37
40.	Raigarh	95.91	2.66	1.43
41.	Durg	95.50	2.04	2.46
42.	Raipur	93.66	3.41	2.93
43.	Bastar	97.50	1.56	0.94
X	MAHARASHTRA	89.89	5.07	5.04
l.	Greater Bombay	1.58	26.81	71.61
2.	Thana	85.22	8.57	6.21
3.	Kolaba	87 . 36	4.46	8.18
4. 5.	Ratnagiri	93 . 06	2.86	4.08
ري.	Nasi k	92.66	4 • 47	2.87
6.	Dhulia .	95.02	2.44 2.50	2.54 3.18
77	Jalgaon	94.32 92.69	4.04	3·27
8. 9.	Ahmednagar Poona	86.86	6.13	7.01
10.	Satara	92.26	4.10	3.64
11.	Sangli	90.92	4.78	4.30
12.	Sholapur	87 . 85	8.51	3.65
13.	Kohlapur	87.65	8.51	3 . 82
14.	Aurangabad	92.95	2.83	4.22
15.	Parbhani	94.73	2.18	3.09
16.	Bhir	95.09	1.78	3.13
17.		92.55	3.40	

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S.No.	State/District	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26.	Osmana bad Buldhana Akola Amravati Yeotmal Wardha Nagpur Bhandara Chandrapur	95.35 97.61 96.68 95.35 97.32 96.16 83.44 74.65 93.39	1.98 1.21 1.30 1.82 1.10 1.48 8.90 23.01 2.60	2.67 1.18 2.02 2.83 1.58 2.36 7.66 2.34 4.01
XI	MANIPUR	89.40	9.63	0.97
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Manipur North Manipur West Manipur South Manipur Central Manipur East	N. A.		
XII	#EGHALAYA	95 .7 0	0.95	3.35
1. 2.	Garo Hills) United Khasi and) Jaintiya Hills)	N . A .		
XIII	KARNATAKA	83.85	9.32	6.83
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18.	Bangalore Belgaum Bellary Bidan Bijapur Chikmagalur Chitradurga Dharwar Coorg Gulbarga Hassan Kolar Mandya Lysore North Kanara Raichur Shimoga South Kanara Tumkur	70.65 89.56 88.47 85.77 88.58 80.59 88.13 87.49 77.31 87.00 88.01 92.64 91.19 80.13 80.74 89.79 87.99 48.26 88.89	16.48 6.73 5.56 5.57 7.56 5.95 6.69 5.41 5.85 5.45 9.43 9.90 9.90 42.0	12.87 3.71 5.71 9.66 3.86 14.01 4.92 5.89 15.71 7.59 6.17 2.78 5.67 10.83 6.12 6.17 8.84 5.09
XIA	NA GALAND	98.27	0.34	1.39
1. 2. 3.	Kohima) Mokokchung) Tuensang)	N. A.		

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S.No.	State/Districts	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
χv	ORISSA	86.93	4.06	9.01
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12.	Sambalpur Sundergarh Keonjhar Mayurbhanj Balasore Cuttack Dhenkanal Bandh Khondmals Bolangir Kalahandi Koraput Ganjam Puri	87.07 85.69 85.78 84.17 86.71 75.42 88.42 89.48 93.47 91.57 92.53 82.95 79.11	7.46 3.45 2.63 5.36 2.76 6.78 5.47 3.05 2.08 1.87 4.40 5.10	5.47 10.86 11.59 10.47 10.53 17.80 6.11 7.35 3.48 6.35 5.60 12.65 15.79
XVI	PUNJAB	88.44	6.61	4.95
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Gur daspur Amrit sar Firozpur Ludhiana Jull undur Kapurthala Hoshiarpur Ropar Patiala Sangrur Bhatinda	86.30 85.82 93.13 75.55 76.76 88.04 84.79 88.54 90.16 92.95 93.18	6.80 7.79 3.41 15.59 15.71 7.14 8.16 6.23 5.48 3.82 3.88	6.90 6.39 3.47 8.86 7.52 7.05 5.23 4.36 3.24 2.94
IIVX	ra jasthan	91.89	4.07	4.04
1. 2.345. 7. 90. 112. 156. 17.	Gangana gar Bika ner Churu Jhunjhunu Alwar Bharatpur Sawai hadhopur Jaipur Sikar Ajmer Tonk Jaisalmer Jodhpur Nagaur Pali Barmer Jalor	93.27 86.16 95.76 87.16 90.46 90.43 91.61 86.19 89.77 90.31 93.16 87.04 91.36 91.20 96.46 94.39	3.60 7.258 6.69 3.79 4.71 7.65 5.67 5.67 5.68 4.01 4.01 8.99 2.50	3.13 6.61 1.66 1.55 5.75 8.68 4.56 4.56 4.59 4.88 1.59 3.11

(xxxix)

S.No.	State/District	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25.	Sirohi Bhilwara Udaipur Chittaurgarh Dungarpur Banswara Bundi Kota Jhalawar	91.50 94.92 92.04 95.08 94.78 96.94 90.06 85.98 91.89	3.65 2.41 3.54 2.04 2.12 1.60 4.53 7.41 3.91	4.85 2.67 4.42 2.88 3.09 1.45 5.41 6.61 4.20
XVIII	sikkim ,			
1. 2. 3. 4.	Gangtok Mangan Gyalshing Mamchi Mamchi	N. A.	٠.	
XIX	TAMIL NADU	77.69	15.46	6.85
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	Madras Chingleput North Arcot South Arcot Dharampuri Salem Coimbatore Nilgiris Madurai Tiruchirappalli Than javur Ramanathapuram Tirunelveli Kanya Kumari	1.35 77.51 81.08 92.09 94.56 69.77 77.51 77.28 84.10 82.88 81.39 64.21 62.75 58.04	41.70 15.11 14.20 4.11 2.49 25.86 14.75 5.95 8.73 11.82 9.70 28.63 28.83 30.74	56.95 7.38 4.72 3.80 2.95 4.37 7.74 16.77 7.17 5.30 8.91 7.16 8.42 11.22
XX	TRIPURA	89.96	1.93	8.11
1. 2. 3.	West Tripura) North Tripura) South Tripura)	II. A.		
₹xx	UTTAR PRAD. SH	86.69	7.15	6.16
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Uttar Kashi Chamoli Tehri Garhwal Garhwal Pith oragarh Almora Naini Tal Bijnor	96.64 98.39 98.28 96.88 96.20 97.35 81.50 80.71	1.66 0.45 0.54 0.61 1.11 0.78 5.76 10.01	1.70 1.16 1.18 2.51 2.69 1.87 12.74 9.28

S.No.	State/District	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
9.	Moradabad	8 3.48	9.32	7.20
10.	Budaun	94.01	2.72	3.27
11.	Rampur	87.66	7.71	4.63
12.	Bareilly	84.97	7.16	7.87
13.	Pilibhit	91.58	3.38	5.04
14.	Shah ja hanpur	90.46	3. 28	6.26
15.	Dehra Dun	77.53	7.51	14.96
15.	Saharanpur	83.42	7.38	9.28
17.	Muzzafarnagar	79.93	8.55	11.52
ī8.	Meerut	61.17	15.25	23.58
19.	Bulandshahr	7 6. 67	19.93	12.40
20.	Aligarh	69.63	16.99	13.38
21.	Hathura	73.95	9.64	16.41
22.	Agra	46.75	27.84	24.97
23.	Stah	89.28	4.89	5.83
24.	Mainpuri	81.07	6,98	11.95
25 •	Farrukha bad	80.44	14.36	5.20
26.	Itawah	85.87	7.72	6.41
27 .	Kanpur	70.54	14.77	14.69
28.	Fatehpur	93.17	3.04	3.79
29.	Allahabad	85.73	10.45	5.82
30 . –	Jha nsi	86.50	6.06	7.44
31.	Jalaun	88.90	3.92	7.18
32.	Hamirpur	94.73	2.27	3.00
33.	Banda	93.47	2.84	3.69
34 .	Kheri	93.96	2.41	3.63
35 •	Sitapur	94 • 35	2.82	2.83
36 .	Hardoi	93.07	3.51	3 . 42
37.	Unnao	91.48	5. 29	3.23
	Lucknow	62.88	18.93	18.19
38 . 39 .	Rae Barelli	94.16	2.62	3.22
40 .	Bahraich	95 • 39	1.80	2.81
41.	Gonda	95 • 42	1.95	2.63
	Bara Banki	91.36	5.90	2.74
42.		90 •0 4	6.32	2 · 1 · 1
43 .	Faizabad	92 • 30	4.41	3.64 3.29
44.	Sultanpur	93.52	7 1 A	ン・ <u>←</u> ノ な なり
45·	Pratapgarh Bagti	95 • 96	3.16 2.53	3.32 1.51
46.	Basti	94.24	3.09	2.67
47.	Gorakhpur Doomis	94.91	2.26	2.83
48.	Deoria Azamaanh	86.24	9.97	3. 79
49.	Azamgarh	88.93	7.15	3.92
50.	Jaunpur Ballia	90 • 93	4.75	4.33
51.	Ballia		6.34	サ・フノ ワーロワ
につ	(L M O D T M 1 1 W			
52. 53.	Ghazipur Varanasi	85.77 55.62	3 3. 82	7.87 10.57

S.No.	State/Districts	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
XXII	WEST BENGAL	80.47	6.91	12.62
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	Darjeeling Jalpaiguri Cooch Behar West Dinajpur Malda Murshidabad Nadia 24 Parganas Howaah Calcutta Hooghly Burdwan Birbhum Bankura Midnapore Purulia	85.49 85.48 92.67 93.56 88.66 80.78 89.36 78.35 49.20 0.33 75.23 83.19 71.87 88.47 87.78 86.88	2.43 2.39 2.97 2.71 4.91 12.57 5.12 7.96 26.72 23.80 7.99 5.35 4.51 6.96	12.08 12.13 4.36 3.73 6.45 5.69 24.08 75.87 16.78 11.46 24.67 7.71 6.16
	UNION T	RRITORIES	•	
I	ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISL	55.07	16.43	28.50
II	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	97.80	0.15	2.05
1 2. 3. 4. 5.	Kameng Subansiri Siang Lohit Tirap	95.53 99.42 98.11 95.35 98.18	0.44 0.07 0.03 0.33 0.05	4.03 0.51 1.86 4.32 1.77
III ·	CHANDIGARH	10.13	28.82	61.05
IV	DADRA δ NAGAR HAVILI	94.52	3.00	2.48
٧	DETHI	6.83	47.00	46.17
VI	GOA, DAMAN & DIU	58.79	12.10	29.11
1. 2. 3.	Goa) Daman) Diu)	N.A.		
VII	LAKSHADVEEP	8.25	76.29	15.46
VIII	POND ICHLIRRY	65.85	14.42	19.73
1. 2. 3. 4.	Karaikal) Mahe Pondicherry) Yanam)	N. A.		
IX	MIZORAH	N. A.		

(xlii)
Appendix Table 7(a) - Distribution of Child Workers in Industrial
Categories - 1961

.No.						(0-14) in Different Industrial Categories				
	Territories	I	ΙΙ	III	IV	V	ΔI	VII	VIII	IX .
	INDIA	51.11	22.05	7.18	10.24	1.66	0.45	1.06	0.16	6.04
1.	Andhra Pradesh	30.12	3 3.57	8.96	17.43	1.51	0.65	1.47	0.14	6.11
2.	Assam	73.65	5 .7 7	6.84	6.47	1.11	0.17	1.15	0.13	4.66
ろ・	Bihar	43 • 3	26.48	13.36	9.26	0.98	0.16	0.89	0.11	5 • 42
4.	Gujarat	62.56	19.63	2.89	7.74	1.13	0.48	0.85	0.16	4.51
5.	Jammu & Kashmir	77.93	1.27	4.89	10.04	2.05	0.13	0.45	0.51	3.19
6.	Kerala	8.39	16.23	11.85	19.64	10.44	0.56	2.00	0.73	30.11
7.	hadhya Pradesh	62.12	28.92	8.56	3.7 5	0.58	0.40	0.52	0.07	2.84
8.	Tamil Nadu	35 •0 4	25 • 26	8.54	12.35	4.16	0.80	1.76	0.16	11.89
9.	Maharashtra	45.00	34.52	9.16	4.6	1.34	0.53	0.96	0.22	3.63
0.	Mysor e	49.32	22.23	5.38	12.68	2.41	1.01	1.04	0.08	5.79
1.	0 ri s sa	48.13	24.35	3.87	10.35	0.48	0.06	0.71	0.11	11.89
.2•	Punjab	64.42	9.16	4.08	12.77	1.86	0.44	0.66	0.22	6.35
.3•	Ra ja stha n	71.33	4.48	7.04	12.73	0.59	0.42	0.39	0.07	2.91
4.	Uttar Pradesh	62.95	17.42	0.88	9.92	1.65	0.22	1.23	0.21	5.48
5.	West Bengal	41.95	21.64	11.43	7.45	3.71	0.46	2.33	0.34	10.75
.6.	A. & Nicobal Isl.	38.62	1.05	8.67	41.16	1.48	1.16	2.01	-	5.82
.7.	Delhi	17.68	2.64	3.10	4.6	26.41	్రె. 05	5.99	0.96	35.53
.8.	Himchal Pradesh	86.17	1.25	0.78	9.52	0.24	0.43	0.15	0.06	1.36
9.	Lakshadweep	0.35	_	0.88	95.55	1.77	0.17		-	1.24
0.	Manipur	62.72	0.53	0.39	35.23	0.04	0.07	0.17	0.03	0.77
1.	Tripura	67.33	11.11	3.27	8.11	1.27	0.20	1.67	0.14	6.85
2.	D. Š N. Haveli	70.88	13.67	12.10	1.61		0.78	0.15	0.02	0.76
す 。	Goa, Daman & Diu	31.26	14.7	24.71	_	4.4	0.55	2.71	1.8	19.83
4.	Pondicherry	6.71	30.77	20.23	8.77	8.24	2.54	6.1	0.5	16.1
25.	Arunachal Pr.	1.91		0.38	13.79		2.29	4.59	-	77.01
6.	Nagaland	98.01	0.63	0.13		0.03	-	0.05	-	1.11
27.	Sikkim	95.65	2.14	0.18	0.05	***	0.08	0.27	0.01	1.56

⁽I) Cultivators; (II) Agricultural Labourers; (III) Hining, quarrying, livestock, fishing, hunting, plantation, etc. (IV) Household Industries, (V) Hanufacturing other than household industry, (VI) Construction, (VII) Trade and Commerce, (VIII) Transport, storage and communications, (IX) Other Services.

Source: General Conomic Tables, Part II B (1)

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Appendix Table 7(b) - Distribution of Child Workers in Industrial

Categories - 1971

ategories ^E
II IX
• 3 8 3•7 7
•29 3.62
· 20 7 · 85
•21 2 .3 0
.31 1.98
·36 3·37
·31 1.69
.40 1.77
.10 26.04
1.55
.30 2.42
.05 0.22
.36 2.48
.87 3.54
.06 0.71
.22 7.38
•39 2.31
2.76
•32 1.41
·58 3·0
•36 4.88
•51 4•12
• 9 2 8 • 3 9
.87 16.6
=-,5
.56 43.83 .03 2.12
.03 2.12 .98 29.5
.11 19.0
- 13.4
•42 9•28

Efor classification of Ind. categories refer to Map No.10.

Source: General Iconomic Tables, Part II B(1) Census of India, 1971.

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<u>Appendix Table - 8</u>

<u>Correlates of Children in Work Force</u>

S.No.	States	Y (1971)	Y' (1971)	X ₁ (197	'i) X ₂ (1971	L) X ₃ (1971)	X ₄ (1973.) X ₅ (1973)	X ₆ (1971)
		Percentage workers child ren		Percer SC+ST children to total children	ntage of urban population to total	Literacy rates on excluding (0-4)	Average of s	Coverage	Wastage Rates
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	A.P. Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana Kerela H. P. Mahareshtra Mysore Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamil Nadu U. P. V. Bengal	9.24 3.49 4.42 4.51 2.97 1.36 4.74 6.16 5.16 5.16 5.16 5.16 5.16 5.16	9.03 5.64 6.05 6.17 5.19 1.79 7.27 5.37 7.18 5.94 7.29 4.85 4.15	17.15 17.21 23.08 21.93 20.09 9.39 32.99 12.67 14.05 38.86 27.37 27.25 19.28 21.37 26.89	19.31 8.87 9.99 28.1 17.66 16.23 16.28 31.16 24.3 8.4 23.73 17.63 30.25 14.02 24.74	28.52 33.94 23.35 41.84 31.91 69.75 26.37 45.77 36.83 30.53 38.69 22.57 45.40 25.44 38.86	7.49 4.94 3.45 8.76 8.37 4.99 9.04 9.72 4.95 4.84 17.41 4.84 2.25	75.39 30.18 13.56 77.83 57.88 13.39 52.17 18.43 17.15 33.52 39.78 69.51 22.46 28.61 31.29	88.32 80.02 86.08 78.03 55.57 57.33 79.26 69.52 84.03 76.79 82.02 75.43 79.95 76.84
	& A & A ² & YX _i	68.76 363.11		329.58 8095.21 .542.06	290 . 65 640 9 . 5 4 1 348 . 4 3	539.77 21448.00 2319.81	105.27 927.71 515.17	581.10 29554.67 2911.35	1157.25 90617.42 5475.92
	$r_{{\mathtt{YX}}_{\dot{\mathtt{1}}}}$			0.155 (0.56)	0.08 (0.29)	-0.490 (2.3) ^E	0.34 (1.31)	0.43 (1.70)	0.678 _φ (3.32)
	zy'x _i		2	0.35 (1.34)	-0.08 (0.29)	2985.48 -0.68 (3.34) ^φ	0.43 (1.71)	3712.19 0.51 (2.14) ⁺	7014.64 0.73 (3.85) ^φ

ESignificant at 0.05 level

^{*}Significant at 0.1 level

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S.No.	States	X ₇ (1973) Schools/10 Primary	X ₈ (1973) 000 <u>children</u> Middle	X ₉ (1973) Student Tea Primary	X ₁₀ (1973) cher Ratio Middle	X _{ll} (1971) Percentage of married children to total children
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 112. 13. 14. 15.	Andhra Pradesh Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana Kerala Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra Mysor e Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamil Nadu Uttar Pradesh West Bengal	6.55 8.22 6.59 5.56 4.33 3.19 7.84 6.49 7.68 6.11 6.08 5.99 4.91 6.85	1.31 1.86 1.45 0.11 1.28 1.31 1.82 3.38 2.94 1.86 1.47 1.87 1.79 1.33 1.24	40 42 37 38 38 42 34 41 32 37 32 35 52	30 24 33 36 24 33 27 30 25 32 29	2.01 0.07 3.81 0.7 2.5 0.08 4.73 1.12 1.13 0.6 0.2 5.0 0.09 4.72 0.96
	ΣΑ ΣΑ ² ΣΥΧ _i	95.78 646.85 458.71	25.02 49.65 119.19	572 22162 2622•9	444 13504 2051.35	27.72 98.81 137.64
	$\mathtt{r}_{\mathtt{YX}_{\mathtt{i}}}$	0.479 (1.97)*	0.231 (0.856)	0.006	0.12 (0.44)	0.22 (0.81)
	٤Υ' X	589.54	151.1	3377.54	2619.27	177.64
	r _Y , X _i	0.60 _η (2.7) ^η	0.17 (0.62)	-0.03 (0.1)	-0.04 (0.11)	0.31 (1.18)

Figures in parenthesis show the t values. $\eta_{\text{Significant}}$ at 0.02 level.

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S.No.	States	X ₁₂ (1971)X ₁₃ (1971) Percentage of the children to total Paternal Laternal	<u>L children</u>	X ₁₅ (1971) Crude birth rate	X ₁₆ (1971) Physical qua- lity of αlife index	X ₁₇ (1961-70) Expectation of life at birth (all persons)
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14.	Andhra Pradesh Assam Bihar Gujrat Haryana Kerala Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra Hysore Orissa Punjab Rajasthan Tamil Nadu Uttar Pradesh West Bengalo	4.62 3.17 2.96 1.50 4.97 3.8 3.75 2.58 3.79 2.82 2.04 1.58 3.94 2.97 3.67 2.53 3.95 3.00 4.42 3.47 2.66 3.21 2.49 4.66 3.39 5.22 3.83 2.95	0.15 0.05 0.19 0.10 0.11 0.03 0.19 0.096 0.12 0.14 0.097 0.085 0.16 0.21 0.11	34.8 38.5 32.8 40.0 42.1 31.1 39.1 32.2 31.7 34.6 34.2 42.4 31.4 44.9 27.8	38.9 39.2 36.5 44.3 49.8 64.9 39.2 44.8 36.4 44.0 36.4	44.1 51.8 40.4 48.7 47.0 60.2 45.9 49.0 46.5 44.8 49.4 50.5 43.4 39.3 47.1
	∑A ≤A² ≥YX _i	58.35 42.51 236.37 126.70 277.35 201.32	1.84 0.26 8.97	537.6 19618.66 2468.56	651.5 29302.79 2890.34	708.1 33779.11 3189. 7 5
	$\mathtt{r}_{\mathtt{YX}_{\mathtt{i}}}$	0.46 (1.86)* (1.43)	0.41 (1.62)	0.032 (0.12)	-0.439 (1.76)	-0.428 (1.71)
	≤Y'X _i r _{Y'X} i	353.43 256.81 0.42 0.33 (1.66) (1.26)	11.32 0.36 (1.39)	3204.58 0.21 (0.77)	3725.52 -0.61 (2.77) ^η	4130.99 -0.45 (1.81) ⁺

 $^{^{\}alpha}$ Physical quality of life index developed by Morris on the basis of Expectation of life, infant mortality and actual literacy.

 $[\]delta$ For West Bengal B.R. and D.R. data is of 1970.

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<u>Appendix Table-9</u>

<u>Table of Data for Regression</u>

<u>.</u> I.o	. State	Child Morkers	Total Children	SC+ST Child Population	Total Urban population	Total Literates (excluding 0-4)	Literate Child- ren (0-14)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1627492	17609093	30 20 48 4	840 25 27	10690000	3372742
2.	Assam	239349	7010216	1182844	1326981	4117000	1400136
3.	Bihar	1059359	23993822	5540611	5633966	11238000	3628603
4.	Gujarat	518061	11494317	25 21 694	7496500	9555000	3170263
5•	Haryana	137826	4639604	932208	1772959	2699000	1094125
6.	Kerala	111801	8595262.	807907	3466449	12898000	4080284
7.	Ladhya Pradesh	1112320	18203177	6007658	6784767	922 3 000	2982227
8.	Maharashtra	988357	20839957	2641899	15711211	19753000	6463010
9.	Mysore	808719	12434694	1747161	7122093	9235000	3177283
10.	Orissa	492477	9294564	3612972	1845395	5745000	1818743
ll.	Punjab	232774	5593 7 24	15 30 480	3216179	4562000	1759684
12.	Ra ja sthan	58 73 89	11380919	3102603	4543761	4914000	1751785
13.	Tamilnadu	71 3305	15562040	3001445	12464834	16256000	7 058596
14.	Uttar Pradesh	1326726	36965336	790 30 62	12388596	19174000	14590904
15.	West Bengal	511443	19008042	5113690	10967033	14712000	4461743

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S.No.	States	Total Wastage (class I to VIII)	Total married children	Total paternal orphans (0-14)	Total maternal orphans (0-14)	(0-14)	Expectation of life at birth
(1)	(2)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1199175	354926	835700	574200	27 300	44.1
2.	Assam	474035	5326	20 3300	10 3200	3200	51.8
3.	Bihar	1403120	916341	1167700	885700	45 60 0	40 • 4
4.	Gujrat	757018	91642	427200	293400	11600	48.7
5•	Haryana	131011	115196	176000	131000	5 3 00	47.0
6.	Kerala	417014	7670	176100	136300	3000	60.2
7.	Madhya Pradesh	800447	861575	719500	542500	34500	45.9
8.	Haharashtra	1011921	235469	769800	5 30 500	20 300	49.0
9.	Mysore	926532	140757	48 610 0	369 4 00	15200	46.5
10.	0 mi ssa	605081	56891	401600	29 490 0	12600	44.8
11.	Punjab	45 9 6 3 8	14140	192800	147800	5400	49.4
12.	Ra ja stha n	524 687	569086	369700	286900	9800	50.5
13.	Tamil Nadu	98 3010	14945	747 90 0	544900	25500	43.4
14.	Uttar Pradesh	2720 25 5	1746805	1931400	1419800	77000	39.3
15.	West Bengal	1103206	182864	708800	567000	21.900	47.1