

# Critical Role of Skill Development Mission in Addressing the Challenge of Child Labour: A Study of Uttar Pradesh

## DISSERTATION

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## CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the M.Phil dissertation entitled '**Critical Role of Skill Development Mission in Addressing the Challenge of Child Labour: A Study of Uttar Pradesh**' submitted in fulfillment for the award of Master of Philosophy in Economics has been carried out under my supervision and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any degree or diploma to any other University.

The dissertation is forwarded for the submission to Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University for the award of Master of Philosophy in Economics.



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## DECLARATION

I hereby, declare that this Dissertation entitled “**Critical Role of Skill Development Mission in Addressing the Challenge of Child Labour: A Study of Uttar Pradesh**” submitted to Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow in fulfilment for the award of **Master of Philosophy** in Economics is my original work. It has not been submitted in part or full for any other diploma or degree of any other University. The indebtedness of the candidate to others has been duly acknowledged at relevant places.

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## LIST OF ACRONYM

ASSOCHAM	Associate Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India
BPL	Below Poverty Line
CLPRA	Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act
GNP	Gross National Product
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPEC	International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
NCEUS	National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector
NCLP	National Child Labour Project
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NHRC	National Human Rights Commission
NSDP	National Skill Development Policy
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRC	United Nations Resource Centre
UPSDM	Uttar Pradesh Skill Development mission
VET	Vocational Education Training
WPR	Work Participation Rate

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 CHILD LABOUR: A SOCIAL STIGMA

Children are the greatest gift to humanity. Childhood is an impressionable stage and it holds the potential to the human development. Children are vulnerable due to their age, physical power and they cannot make plans for their own future. As children are the future of the nation, they should be protected from exploitation and should be given opportunities for their physical and mental development. Children who are brought up in a conducive environment grow up to become responsible and productive members of society. Hence the protection of children is the responsibility of the nation.

Child labour however, is a complex social issue that is a concrete manifestation of violations of children's rights and remains one of the major challenges before the nation. Child labour is the employment of children in any work that deprives children of their childhood and their right to development of mental and physical abilities, leisure and play. The worst forms of child labour are those situations where children work more than nine hours in a day, earn less than a minimum wage or no wages at all, work in hazardous conditions for health and safety and work outside of their family's home. Working children do not have access to adequate standard of living, are denied opportunity for developing personality, talents, and protection from abuse and neglect.

Today millions of children worldwide are engaged in labour that is hindering their education, development and future livelihoods; many of them are involved in the worst forms of child labour that cause irreversible physical or psychological damage, or that even threaten their lives (ILO, 2002). Thus, Children are the most vulnerable group in any population and in need of greatest social care on account of their vulnerability and dependence. They can be exploited, ill treated and directed into undesirable channels by unscrupulous elements in the community. Children continue to form a sizable section of labour force in several fields of employment around the world. While in the less developed countries, the incidence of children's participation

in labour force is considerably high, it is not totally absent in the more developed nations too.

The research proposal identifies child labour as a grave and extensive problem of children under 14 years of age who are forced to work due to extreme poverty conditions. While the Government of India reports about 20 million children labourers, other non-governmental organisations estimate the number to be closer to 50 million. Most prevalent in the northern part of India, the exploitation of child labour has become an accepted practice and is viewed by the local population to overcome the extreme poverty in the region.

## **1.2 DEFINING CHILD LABOUR**

The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as "work situations where children are forced to work on a regular basis to earn a living for themselves and their families, and as a result they remain backward educationally and socially in a situation which is exploitative and harmful to their health and to their physical and mental development. The children are separated from their families, often deprived of educational and training opportunities and they are forced to lead prematurely adult lives (ILO)".

The Factories Act of 1948 states that any work undertaken by children below 14 yrs that interferes with their full physical development, their opportunities for desirable minimum education or their need of recreation under either compulsion development or their desirable opportunities for a child voluntarily in an organized or unorganized environment is termed as 'child labour' (The Factory Act 1948).

Child labour thus, refers to the exploitation of the labour of children who are either too young to work, or are of working age but work under conditions that subject them to risk. It is an unfortunate reality that children worldwide are often forced to undertake work that is physically, psychologically and morally damaging to them. Nonetheless, not all work performed by children is classified as child labour. In fact, some light work that does not interfere with the child's development, their education, or health, such as helping parents around the home, or earning pocket money outside of school hours or on holidays, can be a positive experience for children. The term child labour therefore does not generally apply to children between the ages of 12-14

that engage in light work or to children between the ages of 15-17 who work in non-hazardous conditions.

According to the UNICEF, if children under the age of 14 do work that in some way harms or exploits them physically, mentally or morally or blocks them from education, then that work is considered child labour.

The National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector (NCEUS) in its Report on the Conditions of Work and Promotion of Livelihoods in the Unorganised Sector, which was established by the Government of India, has expanded the definition when examining the issue of child labour. According to their report “The Commission does not consider it appropriate to view child labour purely from a definitional point of view of who is a worker and who is not. This is because there is a significant proportion of children who are out of school and are not reported as child labour. The report recognises that even if they are not reported as workers, chances are that they are engaged in some activity by way of helping their parents or in activities that are not perceived as income-earning by the reporting parents. It categorically states,“ since the banning of child labour through legislation confined to hazardous industries has not proved to be effective, further legislative efforts should be aimed at regulating child labour and restricting their employment in all sectors, consistent with the needs of their development.” The report of the Commission establishes a close relationship between the provision of education and the elimination of child labour.

Conceptualising child labour has been and continues to be one of the most complex issue as it involves three difficult to define concepts “child”, “work” and “labour”. Each of them is defined differently by different countries and internationally. As stated by Burra, “those who have argued for narrow definition have best been motivated in part by the desire to reduce the size of the problem and thus make it manageable. But this conceptual sleight of hand flies in the face of common sense and results in making the work of millions of children invisible to public policy and public action.” This aptly describes the situation as it exists in India today. With the law on child labour, unclear in its definition and organisations working on children also defining child labour differently, the confusion continues, affecting law, policy as well as intervention.

### 1.3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Vlassoff (1979) records that in addition to a low level of adult productivity in the village, several alternative sources of labour during times of peak demand were available which sometimes led to child labour. However, sensitivity to children's maintenance costs was more acute than perception of their utility. There was widespread desire for out-migration of sons, coupled with an emphasis on continuing education.

Singh H (1983) in his study reveals that there is an acute inequality among employee's earnings which may be significantly attributed to human capital variables, sociological variables and job-related variables. The sociological variables remaining insignificant in a study computing earning functions may imply a fair opportunity structure for all irrespective of high or low origin. It may also mean the prevalence of such labour market customs as to render lesser degree of dispersions in labour market rewards among workers with varied vocational and occupational preparations. The same is certainly not true of Delhi metropolis.

Weiner (1989) describes that one need not wait until poverty has been eliminated to make education compulsory. Many countries took decisions to make education compulsory even while poverty was widespread. Secondly, the enforcement of a law for compulsory universal primary education is, therefore, the first step towards the elimination of child labour. In India that first critical step has yet to be taken.

Remington (1996) attributes the growth of child labour worldwide as a result of globalisation. International competition and demand for cheap goods has resulted in global exploitation of child labour in recent years. The paper discusses how the World Bank not only continues to finance projects which contribute to the growth of child labour but also eulogises industries which rely on child labour as success stories in its discussion papers.

Weiner (1996) observed that India adopted its new economic policies because of an internal financial and balance of payments crisis but as the economy opens and employment opportunities grow with the expansion of the country's consumer industries, the governing middle class may recognise that the country needs a more literate population and therefore must invest in its children. It will take a major coalition of media, researchers, investors, educators, social activists, trade union,

International and Government agencies to get India to address the way it treats the children of the poor.

Bhatty (1996) lists two suggestions. First and principally, compulsory primary education should play a decisive role. At present the education system in India merely encourages drop outs, and inadvertently pushes children into the lower rungs of the labour market. Strengthening the system of education to make it more attractive to poor children, coupled with a system of mandatory attendance enforced by local pressure groups could be an effective way of controlling the influx of children into the labour force. The second suggestion is that non- governmental organisations can play a bigger role in not just providing literacy and non- formal education but also assist in identifying and monitoring units where child labour is used.

Basu and Van (1998) establishes child labour as a mass phenomenon parental decision coupled with the assumption of substitutability in production between child and adult labour that results in multiple equilibrium in the labour market, with an equilibrium where children work and the other where adult wage is high and children do not work. The model, in principle, can be extended to analyze gender issues in supply of labour in market.

Basu (1999) argued in this paper that there is much that ought to be done to eradicate child labour, but the precise policy to be followed depends on the economic milieu for which the prescription is being sought. The main policy divide is between legal interventions and what may be called collaborative interventions, that is, public action which alters the economic environment such that parents of their own accord prefer to withdraw the children from the labour force. The availability of good schools, the provision of free meals, and efforts to bolster adult wages are examples of collaborative interventions.

Ahmed (1999) emphasised on a quantitative empirical cross-country study, provides policy insights to the tackling of the root causes of child labour. The level of development (GNP per capita), poverty, income inequality, school enrolment, parental education, dominance of agriculture and age structure of the population are the variables under study. It can be said that a country's full commitment to the total abolition of child labour should be judged not merely on the basis of official

pronouncements but on whether the child labour objective is consciously considered in the above outlined social and economic policy framework.

Woolson (1999) points out that what is new is that trade unions and activists have succeeded in gaining the attention of the media and by implication consumer International union rights. What is clear is that conventions and resolutions by themselves, although a step forward, need to be backed by compliance regimes in which, for instance, multinational companies which employ or benefit from the use of child labour become international pariahs and are subject to stringent national penalisation.

Lieten (2000) observes that the rural hinterland children are considered an economic asset. Logically, this has led to the assumption that child labour and high fertility are two sides of the same coin. The field work in two villages of Uttar Pradesh suggests, the aggregate picture that children's labour market participation is rather limited however many parents beget children as an investment device. The thinking is associated with poverty levels and less-educated echelons of society (National Sample Survey, 43rd Round, 1990, in Sarvekshana).

Antony and Gayathri (2002) reveals the evidences from children's lives beyond a simple dichotomy between children at work and children at school, there exists a much more complex range of categories comprising of children in full time education, children in full time work, children who are neither at school nor at work, children who engage in occasional and seasonal work and children who are engaged in both school and work. This being the case, there is a need to rethink our conflicting views on the theoretical distinctions on child workers and child labourers.

López-Calva (2002) develops a model in which wages for children and adults are determined equilibrium, whereas parents take both the aggregate amount of child labour in the economy and the wages as given. Under reasonable assumptions as to stigma cost function, multiplicity of equilibrium arises. Intervention could, under specific circumstances, switch the equilibrium from a situation of positive child labour to one without it, which may be preferred from a welfare perspective.

Lieten (2003) at the core of the Indian social order, he argued, are notions concerning the respective role of upper and lower social strata, the former getting education and good white-collar jobs, and the latter being prepared for a long life of labour, service

and servitude. A distinction needs to be made between child-friendly forms of socialisation, including light work, child labour at specific ages and up to specific degrees of strain but not interfering with school, non-enrolment in school, even if not labouring, child labour interfering with school, and the worst and intolerable forms of child exploitation, even amounting to bonded child labour. Treating them differently will allow us to devise proper strategies to deal with the specific problems.

Sharma (2003) elaborated the demonstration effect created through social labelling programmes has not been felt at the level of the wider community and have played a limited role in addressing the problem of child labour in the carpet industry. Overall, it is found that the incidence of child labour has not reduced significantly as a consequence of these labelling initiatives. The only visible change relates to the nature of child labour in the carpet industry shift, i.e., from hired child labour to increased employment of family child labour. The new developments in this industry necessitate a coordinated effort on the part of the concerned actors - the government, NGOs and the labelling agencies.

Wazir (2003) provides the anecdotal evidence of the mechanisms by which the MV Foundation programme is growing. It has avoided being boxed into the confines of a project format with its inevitable, conscious rejection of a hierarchical or directive structure and well-circumscribed boundaries. Instead, it has evolved organically through the mobilisation of local initiatives and stakeholders who come to share a common philosophical approach to child labour and education. Field experience provides widespread evidence of other areas such as dowry, domestic violence, family break up, alcoholism, gender attitudes and budgetary changes within the family to cover the costs of schooling. Child labour becomes everybody's problem and getting children to school a shared responsibility.

Chaudhuri (2004) analyses the implications of a subsidy policy on education and of different liberalised trade and investment policies on the incidence of child labour in a developing economy in terms of a three-sector general equilibrium model with informal sector and child labour. The paper shows different policies produce mutually opposite effects on the incidence of child labour, thereby nullifying each other's effects, at least partially. For example, when  $X > 0$ , an inflow of foreign capital or a hike in education subsidy exerts a downward pressure on the incidence of child

labour, while a policy of tariff reform or trade liberalisation in agriculture accentuates the problem.

Venkatarayana (2004) explains that saying that all out-of-school children are child labourers is not convincing because, among other reasons, it sounds as if work and schooling are mutually exclusive activities for children. Referring to them as educationally deprived children is justified from the perspective of human capital, development and human rights.

Mehendale (2004) points out that the UN Convention on Rights of the Child is the first legally binding international treaty for children, yet the task of monitoring children's rights remains particularly complex. This contradiction was well highlighted in a recent session of the CRC when India's First Periodic Report was discussed. Issues such as respecting the views of children and increasing their participation in all programmes and policies that affect them, granting nationality to children of refugees, establishing a comprehensive policy for children with disabilities, inclusion of early childhood education in the general framework of education were acknowledged for the first time. The committee also elaborately discussed the problems of declining sex ratio, prohibition of corporal punishment, need to eliminate sale of children, child trafficking and child pornography and on the involvement of children in armed conflicts. These emerging thrust areas for children's rights in the Indian context are also a reflection of changing realities and priorities at the international and the national levels.

Aggarwal (2004) analyses child labour in the four states that show the supply of child labour generally tends to come from households in rural areas, are landless, have low MPCE, are Hindus, large-size households deep in debt. It is noticed that the literacy rate along with their dropout rates and gross enrolment rates is an important determinant of child labour. It indicates a link between child labour and the educational and economic attainment of the state. The strategy must aim at getting the 'nowhere children' into school and attempting to retain a much larger proportion of children from primary to middle school stage. Efforts also need to be made to simultaneously provide non-formal education, vocational education and training for child workers and income generating alternatives for families.

Bellettini (2005) adds to the present literature by supplementing the analysis with an investigation of the determinants of the demand of the firm for child labour. In general, she has shown that legislative intervention cannot be Pareto-improving unless some kind of a redistribution from the owners of the firm to the workers take place. More specifically, she has studied the relationship between technological innovation, education and child labour in a setting where the returns to education depend on the level of technology and the profitability of technological upgrade depends on the quality of the labour force.

Burra (2005) argues that the distinction at the conceptual level between child labour and child work is essentially flawed. It revisits some of the empirical questions around this distinction and concludes that such a distinction be abandoned both at the level of theory and practice. Those who have argued for a narrow definition have been motivated in part by the desire to reduce the size of the problem and thus make it more manageable. But this conceptual sleight of hand flies in the face of common sense and results in making the work of millions of children invisible to public policy and public action.

Ide and Parker (2005) in their article documents the potential magnitude of the problem of lead exposure in child labourers. Low levels of many toxicants will affect early brain growth and development. The remarkable dearth of information adds to the severity of the problem and provides a dramatic example of how toxic occupational exposures in children are overlooked.

Lieten (2006) recorded although the governments have become aware of the importance of resolving the social question with an eye on economic development, national integration and social development in general. It nevertheless seems that efforts to abolish child labour are faltering and that child labour, for all the advocacy towards its abolition, remains a confusing social phenomenon.

Bhukuth (2008) observes child labour as a heterogeneous phenomenon. The strictly economic definition given by the ILO does not encompass all forms of child labour, but it does enable a distinction to be made between light work and hazardous work. While light work is tolerated by the international organisations, hazardous work must be eliminated, because it jeopardises the passage from childhood to adulthood by damaging the physical and moral development of the child.

Mukherjee and Das (2008) use household level data from National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) of India, the 55th (1999-2000) and the 61st (2004-05) rounds, to show that even with a significant wage incentive for schooling of urban children, the school dropout rate and child labour incidence are not small over this period. The parent's level of education plays an important role in reducing this tendency; thus establishing the linkage between social and human capital outcomes in the family.

Nanjunda and Steven (2009) have emphasised on going beyond easing the often-ignored costs associated with "free" public education, the government should make improvements in the quality of education provided in schools in low-income areas. Higher level technical courses training be of a high quality in occupations in which there is a demand and can earn a good living. It is also essential that the government recognizes that alcohol abuse in low income areas is a major contributing factor to child labour and should launch a comprehensive initiative to curb it.

Choudhary (2010) emphasised that generation of gainful and decent employment is necessary for faster and inclusive growth. However globalisation and market led economic structure of global economies have affected labour market adversely. The quality and quantity of employment has shown deteriorating trends. Globalisation has accelerated the process of proletarianization of labour. The problem of unemployment, casualisation, lower wages, part time jobs, less or no security in jobs have manifested themselves in a much greater degree. Consequently, globalisation has given rise to extreme labour exploitation.

Prognosys (2012) in their report identifies the categories of child labour and emphasises on urban rural divide The report evaluated the pedagogical content of the teaching in NCLP Schools, when they work as special schools under the Provisions of Right to Education (RTE) for preparation of children for admission to age appropriate classes and the post mainstreaming behaviour of these children, their performance and problems in coping up with their regular counterparts and similar issues.

Dr. Mishra (2012) in her research paper explains how enforcement of labour regulations in the formal sector may drive workers to informality because they increase the costs of formal labour. As a result, lower paid formal sector jobs become attractive to some informal workers, inducing them to want to move to the formal sector. Child labour is the one chief source for formal adjustment to the labour

market. There is some effort to weed out this evil were made but their effect could at best be said to be minimal. This is a shame to the mankind and burning issue to our country from decade to decade.

Edmonds and Schady (2012) considers child time allocation responses to a lottery in Ecuador where women with children were randomly assigned to receive \$15 per month through the Bono de Desarrollo Humano (BDH) program. Winning this lottery results in an increase in income. Additional income allows families to feel that they can afford to continue schooling the children. It implies that small changes in income can reduce child labour if it moves families from below to above subsistence, and that the increase in income does not need to cover foregone earnings.

Webbink, Smits and Jong (2013) developed a new theoretical framework that distinguishes three (household, district and nation) and three groups of explanatory variables: Resources, Structure and Culture. At the household level it is found that resources and structural characteristics influence child labour whereas cultural characteristics have no effect.

Agarwal and Dr Pathak (2015) in their paper analyses the provisions added in the constitution of India and at the International level towards child welfare. But still there is a lot of effort needed to create an environment which is free from child abuse. The recent data as discussed in the various sections of the paper indicate how far we are in eradicating child labour and how hard work we work for the welfare of the poor, ignorant and unheard children.

#### **1.4 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY: Child is meant to learn not earn**

To address the traditional and stereotype demand and supply factors including cheap and docile labour, illiteracy, indebtedness, unemployment and landlessness that contribute to the prevalence of child labour and to find a solution to social evil that persists as a challenge throughout history. It is of paramount importance to have a gradual and sequential approach to address the issue of child labour.

Fundamental opportunities of right to life is denied as the children are engaged in hazardous conditions that adversely affect their health and safety like panna, bidi, auto-workshops, ceramics and worldwide agriculture that is the largest employer of child labour. There is a huge increase visible on the field with regard to migrant child labour, trafficked child labour, street working children, children in brick kilns,

sugarcane cutting, even on construction sites examples in states such as Orissa, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh and children working in hazardous industries such as brass factories in Uttar Pradesh and manufacture of fireworks in Tamil Nadu. Working children are increasingly being employed to meet export oriented industry demands, domestic labour in places like Delhi. Children's exploitation as labour has become the order of the day.

It forces the children to forego access and benefit of education that results in low school attendance rates and high dropout ratio which reduces their future individual productive capability and thereby the income earning capacity of the country in future. In a recent report, the National Human Rights Commission blamed societal indifference for child prostitutes whereas as per UNICEF rigidity of caste system in India has contributed to the mushrooming of child labour in the country.

India has distinct advantage of young age population with declining dependency while the industrial nations have ageing population with rising dependency ratio. This precisely gives India an advantage with huge competitive edge internationally. India can harness this potential if skill development initiatives are applied in right direction which will then be in real sense a 'population dividend'. To reap the benefit of demographic dividend, skill building has received much attention in the country.

Hence, a detailed study on incidence of child labour and remedial measures such as Skill development to eradicate the exploitation and enhance social protection and welfare measures for working children has become the call of the day. A concerted effort is required from all quarters in addressing the issue of child labour that remains grave and needs immediate attention.

### **1.5 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY: Bachpan Bachao**

- (a) To analyse the trends of child labour in India and at the global level and to identify the underlying fundamental causes of child labour.
- (b) To evaluate the extent to which, improvement in demographic profile like vocational education and technical training could effectively reduce the employment of child labour.
- (c) To provide a comprehensive base for framing policies to expand access to the school system, synchronising laws with departments and Skill development initiatives in the state of Uttar Pradesh.

## **1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- (a) Child Labour - Why and how to eradicate this social evil? Is poverty the sole reason of child labour?
- (b) Determine the crucial role of Skill Building as an endeavour in U.P. to reduce the extent of child labour.

## **1.7 DATA SOURCE AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The study is based on secondary data. Data has been collected from different sources such as National Sample Survey Organisation, Census of India, IPEC, UNICEF, ILO and the other documentary evidences of labour department in the centre and the district of Uttar Pradesh. General statistical tables, diagrams, percentage calculation and correlation will be used for describing the magnitude of child labour in the country and in the state of Uttar Pradesh. In addition to this some observations have been noted regarding the causes and magnitude of child labour by discussing with few households in the study region,

The data will be tabulated, analysed and presented in a meaningful manner with the help of simple mathematical tools like percentage, mean, standard deviation and correlation. The results will be interpreted in the light of the objective and contents to probe deeply into the problem of child labour and to suggest skill development as a measure for strengthening their position in the society.

The indicator used to measure the economic activity of children includes rates of participation by children in family's economic activities and an index of value of such contributions (the work index). Child labour measured by the percentage of children working is positively associated with poverty (poverty line) and Income inequality (Gini Coefficient). Child labour is expected to be negatively associated with GNP per capita, with school enrolment and adult literacy ratio.

## **1.8 CHAPTERISATION OF THE STUDY**

The outline of the study is as follows:-

- (a) Chapter 1- This is the introductory chapter of the study which gives the overview and includes review of literature, objectives of the study, research methodology and significance of the study.

- (b) Chapter 2- In this chapter endeavour is to link the theories of labour market with socio economic determinants of child labour and examine the constitutional safeguards and legislative provisions for protection of child labour.
- (c) Chapter 3- This chapter discusses the global trends in child labour, magnitude of child labour in the India along with child labour data analysis based on demographic profile, sectoral distribution, urban -rural divide and statewide magnitude of child labour.
- (d) Chapter 4- This chapter presents the magnitude of child labour in the state of Uttar Pradesh. It also presents some observations at field level regarding the causes and nature of child labour in the state.
- (e) Chapter 5 - This chapter emphasises on skill development and capacity building as a way forward to eradicate child labour and make India a knowledge economy by providing quality education and vocational training.
- (f) Chapter 6 - This chapter projects the Uttar Pradesh government's initiative of skill development, their achievements, constraints and challenges in its implementation and its linkages to eliminate poverty and child labour.
- (g) Chapter 7 - This chapter summarizes the major findings, conclusion and provide suggestive measures to combat child labour in India.

## CHAPTER 2

### CHILD LABOUR MARKET: A THEORITICAL LINKAGE

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Childhood creates the foundation for future individuals. So goes the saying that Children are like raw pieces of soil and whatever shape is given to them by their surroundings or the society at large, they take it during their childhood itself. However, all the children in the society do not get equal opportunity to develop their personality through formal education and other kind of experiences which a normal child enjoys. In tiny shoulders they have to bear the responsibility of their families, financially, which literally steals their childhood and they become child-adults. Lack of adequate number of schools, poor infrastructure, and lack of basic facilities such as drinking water and toilets in schools, the expense of schooling and poor quality of schooling are factors that push children out of school and into work. Weak law enforcement fails to check the increase in the demand for children as cheap and convenient labour.

It is aptly described ‘child labour is a symptom and not a problem’ of something bigger amiss in the society or the economy. Despite the countless policies and programmes launched against the issue, the resultant dent caused in the numbers is very meagre. This chapter endeavours to study the economic justification of demand and supply of child labour in labour market.

#### 2.2 CATEGORIES OF CHILD LABOUR

Rodgers and Standing (1981) categorised activities in which children participate into nine categories: domestic work; non-domestic, non-monetary work; tied or bonded labour; wage labour; marginal economic activities; schooling; idleness and unemployment; recreation and leisure; reproductive activities.

To explain the prevalent categories, children undertake domestic chores in almost all societies. This may take the form of simple cleaning tasks and washing clothes to sibling-care and fetching water or collecting firewood, depending on the nature of household needs. Many of these **domestic works** are not imposed upon children; nonetheless often they are ‘actively’ promoted in the name of child-rearing process. Apparently non-exploitative, the notion of domestic work needs unpacking in the light

of the fact that many children never get enrolled in school or are forced to drop out because they have to look after the home chores or undertake sibling care, and this is especially true for girls. This was an area that was highlighted and discussed even when the debate around child labour was at its nascent stage and continues to be discussed. Little has changed. For a long time this kind of employment was not considered non-hazardous work till evidence showed otherwise. With increasing reports of abuse and exploitation of children employed in other people's homes, this was added to the list of hazardous occupations in 2006.

According to the report of ILO, 1983, **Non-domestic, Non-monetary Work** formed a major part of child activity in subsistence communities, encompassing farm work, and collection of goods, tailoring, weaving etc. Although these activities are non-domestic, they are non-remunerative as well, and therefore do not qualify for being part of the conventional definition of 'labour' or 'work', they do take children away from their right to education. NSSO captures these activities of children as well. The gender stereotyping of such activities is the most clearly visible because of non-remunerative nature of these activities. However, boys are not spared. This is because many children are employed in home based or family based work.

**Bonded labour** arises as one of the obligations to landlords/occupiers whereby children's labour is pledged as part-payment of the debts. The parents in need of money have no other option but to pledge children's services against a paltry sum. Although poverty and absence of livelihood options are cited as the major reasons for bonded labour, it is actually demand factors, which attribute value to child labour. This has been clearly defined in the Bonded Labour Act 1976 and has been interpreted broadly by the Indian Judiciary so as to include those employments that do not provide minimum wage to the workers.

The **Wage employment** covers children working as part of a family group or individually in agriculture, manufacturing and services, either on a piece rate or time rate basis, as regular or casual workers." Children as part of a family group are very common in agriculture production. In the last two decades, with greater informalization of manufacturing sector, such a system can widely be seen in manufacturing sector as well, such as in the bangle or brick making industries. In both cases, the relations of production actually play a major role in creating exploitative conditions of child labour, as children do not work within the 'protective' realm of the

family, and even if they do, the external relations of production overshadows the other relations.

**Marginal Economic Activities** are typically characterised by their irregularity and short-term nature, though some of those individuals practicing the activities may do so on a regular, long term basis. This type of work includes the selling of newspapers, sweets and other small items; running errands; shining shoes and sorting garbage. Most of the activities undertaken by street children as part of their livelihood needs come under this category. In most of the cases, street children are 'self-employed', in the sense that children are not under one employer. However, that does not discount the incidence of exploitative elements, as children work and live under difficult circumstances.

## **2.3 THEORIES OF LABOUR MARKET**

### **2.3.1 Classical Theory of Employment-Output Determination: Labour Market**

To build up a classical macroeconomic model, the labour market can be studied where in production function capital stock is fixed and labour is the variable input.

The aggregate production function is:  $Y = f(K, L)$  where K denotes a constant capital stock and L denotes quantities of variable input, labour.

In the classical model, equilibrium level of output is determined by the employment of labour. The level of output and the level of employment is established in the labour market by the demand for and supply of labour.

Assuming a profit-maximising economy, labour will be demanded up to the point where the revenue earned from selling the total product produced by the marginal unit of labour is equal to the MC of labour. MC of labour is equal to the money wage divided by the marginal product of labour,  $MP_L$ , i.e.,

$$MC = W/MP_L$$

The condition for profit maximisation is

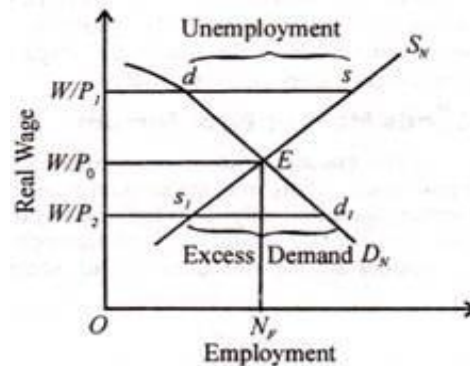
$$P = MC = W/MP_L$$

$$P * MP_L = W$$

$$MP_L = W/P$$

Where W is the money wage, P is the absolute price level and W/P is the real wages.

We know that the MP curve for labour indicates the firm's demand for labour. More labour is demanded at a lower wage. The demand for labour is a decreasing function of the real wage rate, as shown by the downward sloping  $D_N$  curve in Fig 2.1.

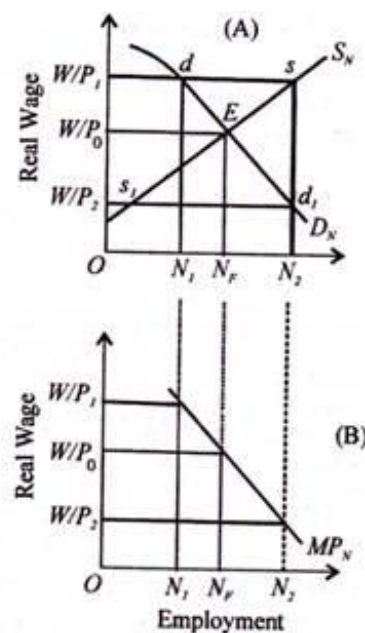


**Fig 2.1 Demand for and supply of the labour**

Thus, the demand labour depends inversely on real wage. The aggregate demand curve for labour is the horizontal summation of all individual firm's demand curve for labour. Aggregate labour demand function, shown in equation is also inversely related to the real wage rate. That is,  $D_L = f(W/P)$

The supply of labour also depends on the real wage rate,  $S_N = f(W/P)$ ,

Where  $S_N$  is the supply of labour but it is an increasing function of the real wage rate as shown by the upward sloping curve in Fig 2.1. It is by increasing the real wage rate that more workers can be employed.



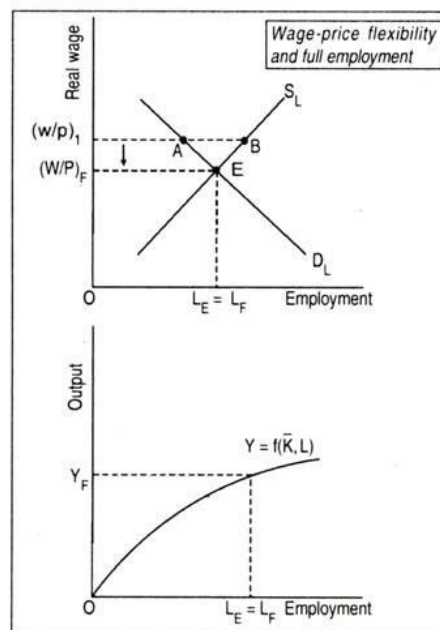
**Fig 2.2 Real wage and demand and supply of labour**

When the  $D_N$  and  $S_N$  curves intersect at point E, the full employment level  $N_F$  is determined at the equilibrium real wage rate  $W/P_0$ . If wage rate rises from  $W/P_0$  to  $W/P_1$  the supply of labour will be more than its demand by  $d_s$ . Now at  $W/P_1$  wage rate,  $d_s$  workers will be involuntary unemployed because the demand for labour ( $W/P_{1-d}$ ) is less than their supply ( $W/P_{1-s}$ ). With competition among workers for work, they will be willing to accept a lower wage rate. Consequently, the wage rate will fall from  $W/P_1$  to  $W/P_0$ .

The supply of labour will fall and the demand for labour will rise and the equilibrium point E will be restored along with the full employment level  $N_f$ . On the contrary, if the wage rate falls from  $W/P_0$  to  $W/P_2$  the demand for labour ( $W/P_{2-d}$ ) will be more than its supply ( $W/P_{2-s}$ ). Competition by employers for workers will raise the wage rate from  $W/P_2$  to  $W/P_0$  and the equilibrium point E will be restored along with the full employment level  $N_f$ .

$D_L = S_L$  determine output, employment and real wage in the classical system.

Once we know the equilibrium level of employment from the aggregate production function we can derive the equilibrium level of output.



**Fig 2.3 Labour Market Equilibrium**

This is shown in Fig 2.3, the intersection between  $D_L$  and  $S_L$  curves at point E in the upper part of the figure determines the equilibrium level of employment ( $L_F$ ) at the equilibrium real wage rate ( $W/P_F$ ). The equilibrium of the classical labour market is

one where everyone willing to work at the real wage rate is able to find work. Incidentally, this is the full employment position denoted by  $L_E = L_F$ . The corresponding equilibrium level of output ( at the equilibrium level of employment) is  $Y_F$ . This equilibrium output level is also called full employment output level.

### **2.3.2 NEOCLASSICAL MICROECONOMICS OF LABOUR MARKETS**

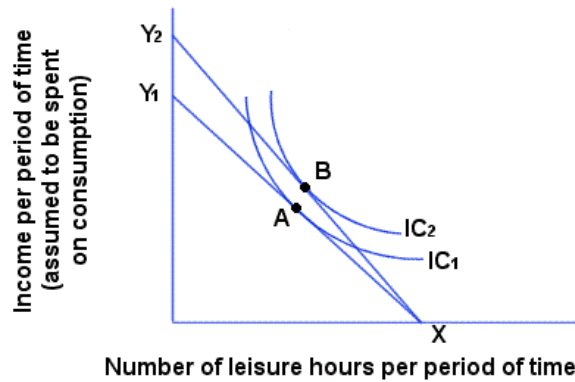
Neoclassical economists view the labour market as similar to other markets in that the forces of supply and demand jointly determine price (in this case the wage rate) and quantity (in this case the number of people employed). However, the labour market differs from other markets (like the markets for goods or the financial market) in several ways. In particular, the labour market may act as a non-clearing market. While according to neoclassical theory most markets quickly attain a point of equilibrium without excess supply or demand, this may not be true of the labour market: it may have a persistent level of unemployment. Models that assume perfect competition in the labour market, as discussed below, conclude that workers earn their marginal product of labour.

The neoclassical supply model analyzes the trade-off between leisure hours and working hours. Households are suppliers of labour. In microeconomic theory, people are assumed to be rational and seeking to maximize their utility function. In the labour market model, their utility function expresses trade-offs in preference between leisure time and income from time used for labour. However, they are constrained by the hours available to them.

Let  $w$  denote the hourly wage,  $k$  denote total hours available for labour and leisure,  $L$  denote the chosen number of working hours,  $\pi$  denote income from non-labour sources, and  $A$  denote leisure hours chosen. The individual's problem is to maximise utility  $U$ , which depends on total income available for spending on consumption and also depends on time spent in leisure, subject to a time constraint, with respect to the chosen labour time and leisure time.

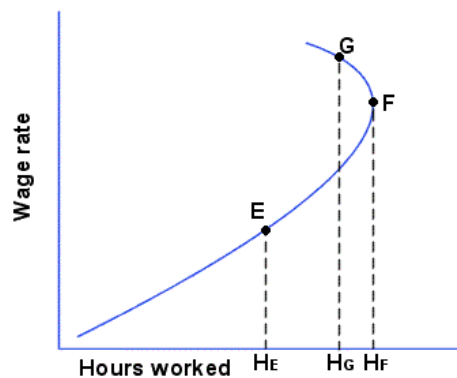
This is shown in the graph below, which illustrates the trade-off between allocating time between leisure activities and income-generating activities. The linear constraint indicates that every additional hour of leisure undertaken requires the loss of an hour of labour and thus of the fixed amount of goods that labour's income could purchase. Individuals must choose how much time to allocate to leisure activities and how much

to working. This allocation decision is informed by the indifference curve labelled  $IC_1$ . The curve indicates the combinations of leisure and work that will give the individual a specific level of utility. The point where the highest indifference curve is just tangent to the constraint line (point A), illustrates the optimum for this supplier of labour services as shown in Fig 2.4.



**Fig 2.4 Effects of a wage increase**

If the wage rate increases, this individual's constraint line pivots up from  $X, Y_1$  to  $X, Y_2$ . He/she can now purchase more goods and services. His/her utility will increase from point A on  $IC_1$  to point B on  $IC_2$ .



**Fig 2.5 The Labour Supply curve**

If the substitution effect is greater than the income effect, the labour supply curve in Fig 2.5 will slope upwards to the right, as it does at point E for example. This individual will continue to increase his supply of labour services as the wage rate increases up to point F where he is working  $H_F$  hours (each period of time). Beyond this point he will start to reduce the amount of labour hours he supplies (for example at point G he has reduced his work hours to  $H_G$ ) because the income effect of the wage rate has come to dominate the substitution effect. Where the supply curve is

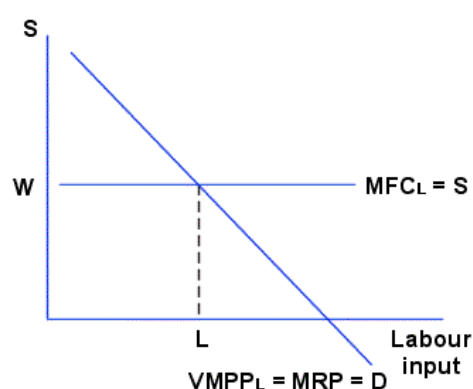
sloping upwards to the right (showing a positive wage elasticity), the substitution effect is greater than the income effect. Where it slopes upwards to the left (showing a negative wage elasticity), the income effect is greater than the substitution effect. The direction of slope may change more than once for some individuals, and the labour supply curve is different for different individuals.

A firm's labour demand is based on its marginal physical product of labour ( $MPP_L$ ). This is defined as the additional output (or physical product) that results from an increase of one unit of labour (or from an infinitesimal increase in labour).

Labour demand is a derived demand; that is, hiring labour is not desired for its own sake but rather because it aids in producing output, which contributes to an employer's revenue and hence profits. The demand for an additional amount of labour depends on the Marginal Revenue Product (MRP) and the marginal cost (MC) of the worker. With a perfectly competitive goods market, the MRP is calculated by multiplying the price of the end product or service by the Marginal Physical Product of the worker. If the MRP is greater than a firm's Marginal Cost, then the firm will employ the worker since doing so will increase profit. The firm only employs however up to the point where  $MRP=MC$ , and not beyond, in neoclassical economic theory.

According to neoclassical theory, over the relevant range of outputs, the marginal physical product of labour is declining (law of diminishing returns). That is, as more and more units of labour are employed, their additional output begins to decline.

### Neoclassical microeconomic model – Equilibrium



**Fig 2.6 A firm's labour demand in the short run (D) and an horizontal supply curve (S)**

The marginal revenue product of labour can be used as the demand for labour curve for this firm in the short run. In competitive markets, a firm faces a perfectly elastic supply of labour which corresponds with the wage rate and the marginal resource cost of labour ( $W = S_L = MRC_L$ ). In imperfect markets, the diagram would have to be adjusted because  $MRC_L$  would then be equal to the wage rate divided by marginal costs. Because optimum resource allocation requires that marginal factor costs equal marginal revenue product, the firm would demand  $L$  units of labour as shown in the diagram 2.6.

The demand for labour of the firm can be summed with the demand for labour of all other firms in the economy to obtain the aggregate demand for labour. Likewise, the supply curves of all the individual workers can be summed to obtain the aggregate supply of labour. These supply and demand curves can be analysed in the same way as any other industry demand and supply curves to determine equilibrium wage and employment levels.

## **2.4 ECONOMIC JUSTIFICATION OF CHILD LABOUR**

So far child labour has been accepted in India because it is believed to have an economic basis that fits into a demand-supply framework.

### **2.4.1 Demand for child labour**

The demand comes largely in the form of wage employment in industry or in domestic and commercial establishments, and in the agricultural sector where they are found assisting their families in odd jobs. This excludes bonded labour and the self-employed street children of whom there are more than plenty but who cannot strictly be included on the demand side of the analysis. In industry, children lend themselves mostly to employment in the small-scale sector. This is for two reasons. Firstly, there is no statutory protection for children in this sector. Even the new child labour (prohibition and regulation) act of 1986 excludes family labour which removes a large number of small-scale units that operate as household/ family units, from its purview. As a result, child labour in this sector is rampant. Besides, employing children is believed to be a cheaper and more stable proposition, and therefore, a more profitable one. The piece-rate system of remuneration that is the norm with child labour, benefits only the employers. Children do not form unions; they are less likely to change jobs quickly and "they can be coaxed, admonished, pulled up and punished for faults

without jeopardising relations." [Singh 1980]. The benefits to employers are so many that the producers would rather stop production than hire adult workers because of the great reduction in profits.

Hence, as children apparently constitute a much cheaper source of labour, and since the law can be easily circumvented to take advantage of this fact, use of child labour is rampant. The other reason why there exists a demand for children is that children are supposed to be better than adults at tedious, mechanical jobs that require manual dexterity and nimbleness, rather than training and skills. As a result they are considered more adept at labour-intensive tasks that categorise the method of production in small-scale units. Therefore, not only does employing children keep the wage bill low, it also acts as a disincentive to modernise and use less labour-intensive technology, which would be a costly proposition. They are considered an asset particularly to employers in export-oriented industries (also concentrated in smaller units). The reason being that children can be easily laid off in case of a slack in demand without compensation and therefore make ideal employees in export industries where demand is variable. The lower costs thus effected allow exporters to sell at lower prices, thereby apparently giving them a competitive advantage.

Also, demand for child labour by some industries is often justified on the ground that children are most suitable for certain jobs, for instance, there is 'Nimble Finger' argument in carpet industry. However, the 'substitution' axioms (Basu and Van, 1998) of the child labour theory essentially refutes this argument and propounds that subject to some 'adult equivalence corrections' adults are equally substitutable for any kind of works. It is now well documented that employers whether in farms, households or industries, employ children because of, both, pecuniary and non-pecuniary reasons. It is a common phenomenon that child workers are invariably underpaid as compared to current market wages; they are exposed to long working hours; denied compensation for overtime; and are deprived of social security.

#### **2.4.2 Supply of child labour**

On the supply side, the most commonly cited explanation given for child labour is the poverty of households that supply children to the labour force. The perception is that exist towards children and work are believed to be dictated by the low economic status of the families where children are seen as economic assets. It is commonly

believed that the families of the working children are so poor that their very survival is threatened by removing them from the labour force. Thus, children work as family labour in household enterprises, assisting in contracts undertaken by parents; take over various household duties to enable parents to do other work; and work outside the home as cheap labour. Hence, it is perceived that not only do they earn their own livelihood and often that of others as well, they allow parents to spend more time on income generating activities by taking charge of household.

Moreover, apologists of child labour believe that the work done by children is more in the nature of an apprenticeship whereby they acquire a skill that will stand them in good stead later in life. Schools, they contend, detach children from the village economy creating aspirations for white collar jobs that are hard to get. And finally it is argued that the quality of schools is quite poor and that neither the parents are induced to send their children to them nor are the children motivated to attend. Hence, it appears that the overall economic situation, coupled with a lack of proper educational facilities justifies the persistence of child labour.

Several questions arise in this seemingly simple framework of demand and supply that demand a serious re-examination of issues. How much are the children contributing to household income? Are their earnings critical to the survival of the family? How is their productivity and hence their capacity to earn higher wages affected during their lifetime as a whole? What are the long- term effects on industry of persisting with less modern technology that is dependent on child labour? And what is the cost to the economy as a whole of an ever increasing illiterate, low skilled workforce? Even though there does not exist as yet any empirical study on the impact of child labour on family income, the work of several researchers shows that it cannot be clearly established that the child and her/his family stand to gain financially from child labour. Wiener (1990) observed that 'it remains unclear how much worse off the family will be if the children were in school. Financial contributions by children to household income are often small'.

In fact some studies show that families above the poverty line also send their children to work in order to maximise family earnings, (or to prevent children from idling, as schools are rarely seen as an alternative) and not as a matter of survival. The experience of ILO's IPEC programme also shows that parents are more than willing to send their children to a school that functions regularly even if not paid a

compensatory stipend for removing the child from work. In most cases the money earned by children, far from sustaining the family, is used for conspicuous consumption (mostly alcohol) of the male members of the household. Even on the demand side the so-called advantages to the employers of using a juvenile labour force, are limited and in the long run would cost them heavily in terms of efficiency and quality. True competitiveness which can be achieved only through improvements in efficiency and quality is compromised by using less modern technology using child labour.

Actually both supply and demand factors are responsible for the prevalence of child labour and the supply and demand of child labourers is certainly determined by the socio-economic status of parents. The global distribution of child labour is similarly a reflection of the country's economic status, the poorer the country the higher the prevalence of child labour. The problem of child labour is more pathetic in India, children in the poor families are sent to work to supplement the family income and since the poor do not have resources to send them to schools so they send them to work instead of keeping them idle.

In fact, the supply of child labour is not their own but that of their parents' decision, yet the loss in the long term is not only private but social as well. The working children are deprived of education and a fair chance to move out of the poverty trap in which they are born. Socially, if we take the human capability or human capital perspective, then incidence of child labour in any society leads to lower human capital and human capability which means enormous loss to the economy. Thus we can say, child labour not only prevents from acquiring the skills and education they need for a better future, but it also perpetuate poverty that affects economy negatively through loss of competitiveness, productivity, and potential income. Thus, incidence of child labour is not only influenced by supply side determinants but also from demand side determinants.

## **2.5 SOCIO ECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF CHILD LABOUR**

### **Poverty**

International Labour Organisation (ILO) suggests poverty is the greatest single cause behind child labour. For impoverished households, income from a child's work is usually crucial for his or her own survival or for that of the household. Income from

working children, even if small, may be between 25 - 40% of the household income. This makes it very difficult for poor families to invest in their children's education. In fact, educating a child can be a significant financial burden, poverty force parents to send their children to hazardous job.

### **Lack of Educational facilities and illiteracy**

Many parents of working children are illiterate and unskilled with little prospect of being able to improve their situation. Many communities, particularly rural areas where between 60–70% of child labour is prevalent, do not possess adequate school facilities. Even when schools are sometimes available, they are too far away, difficult to reach, unaffordable or the quality of education is poor. There is a lack of faith in the existing education system as it does not necessarily lead to employment.

### **Family size**

Parental attitudes to have large families so that children go out in the job market and earn their own livelihood with the objectives to maximise present income. Children sometimes combine work with education and may even work to finance their education but mostly children enter the labour market in India at an early age in significant numbers as part of their families' subsistence strategies with limited resource and more mouth to feed, children are employed in various form of work.

### **Rural to Urban migration**

In general, neglected children migrate to big cities with their families or alone. Often they must beg or drift on the streets in order to earn a living and will consider any work that helps them survive. Children born out wedlock, children with no parents and relatives, often do not find any one to support them .thus they are forced to work for their own living.

### **Industrialization and Urbanization**

Multinational Corporations in the developing world prefer to employ child workers. The industrialist and factory owners find it profitable. Children are cheap, productive and obedient. They would therefore be less troublesome, more willing to take orders and uncomplainingly perform monotonous tasks. They do not create union problem. Also, children working in the industrial sector have no contract of employment and so find it difficult to stand up for themselves and fight for their rights.

### **Social and Cultural factors**

In India, the practice of child labour exists mainly because of the effects of social and cultural traditions. It has been observed that higher concentration of child labour is usually seen among the lower strata of society as they do not have gainful employment opportunities and most of them are unskilled and illiterate. In many informal economy and thriving handicraft businesses, the cultural tradition is that children follow in their parents' footsteps; child labour then is a means to learn and practice that trade from a very early age. Most view that work is good for the character-building and skill development of children. Similarly, the education of girls is less valued or girls are simply not expected to need formal schooling, and these girls pushed into child labour such as providing household services. Even in urban areas many children do domestic work to help support their families.

### **Natural calamities**

Floods, land erosion, cyclones etc, have a devastating effect on many area of the country every year. This further increases the pressures on poor families and leads to many new children entering the labour force.

### **Macroeconomic causes**

Biggeri and Mehrotra have studied the macroeconomic factors that encourage widespread child labour across the world. They suggest that the causes for child labour include both the demand and the supply side. While poverty and unavailability of good schools explain the child labour supply side, they suggest that the growth of low-paying informal economy rather than higher paying formal economy is amongst the causes of the demand side. Other factors like inflexible labour market, size of informal economy, inability of industries to scale up and lack of modern manufacturing technologies are major macroeconomic factors affecting demand and acceptability of child labour.

### **Child labour law and rights**

Child labour laws protecting citizens aged below 18 years are often inadequate. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 prohibits the employment of children below the age of 14 years in hazardous industries but it provides a scope for employment of these children in non-hazardous industries. On a closer look, laws meant to curb child labour, end up endorsing it. The most evident misuse of

constitutional provisions is to be found in areas such as agriculture, roadside eateries domestic help. Children are being employed in the name of vocational training.

## **2.6 GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES TO COMBAT CHILD LABOUR**

Child Labour exists in India notwithstanding the laudable provisions of the Constitution and laws addressing child labour. Despite the fact that a host of social, economic and cultural factors is responsible for continuance of child labour, Government is committed to the task of elimination of child labour in all its forms by adopting gradual and sequential approach to address the problem in its enormity.

To address the traditional and stereotype demand and supply that contribute to the prevalence of child labour, Government of India follows a multipronged strategy which involves strong enforcement of legal provisions relating to child labour with simultaneous efforts towards rehabilitation of children and by making efforts of raising the income levels of parents through linkages with the employment and income generation and poverty alleviation programmes of the Government.

### **2.6.1 Constitutional safeguards in India**

In India, the constitution carries important expression of the attitude of the State towards children,

Article-15 (3) of the constitution authorizes the state for the making any special provision for women and children.

Article-21 provides that no person shall be deprived of his life or his personal liberty except according to procedure established by law.

Article-21A - The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 6-14 years in such manners as the state may, by law, determine.

Article -23- prohibits trafficking in human being and begging and other forms of forced labour and any contravention of this position shall be an offence punishable in accordance with the law.

Article 24, provides that child below the age of 14 years shall not be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any hazardous employment.

Article-38 (1) provides that the State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively, as it may secure a social order in which justice, social, economic and political shall be ensured.

Article 39 (E) proclaims that the State shall its policy towards securing that the health forced by economic necessity to enter a vocation unsuited to their age or strength. It further enjoins that childhood and youth are to be protected against exploitation, against moral and material abandonment.

Article-42 and 43 provide for securing just and human conditions of work and hold out a promise that the State shall endeavour to secure, by suitable legislation, economic organization or in any other way, for all workers, a living wage with specified conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full employment of leisure and social and culture opportunities. This definitely includes child labourers in widest sense.

In Article-45 the constitution provide free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years.

Article-46 makes provisions for promotion, with special care of the educational and economic interest of SC and STs and other weaker sections of the society.

Article-47 lays emphasis on raising standard of living of people by the State. These also include children in their purview. While assessing the progress and implementation of these provisions, it is noteworthy that child labour is increasing day by day.

The general provisions under Article, 38, 42, 43, 45 and 47 of Directive Principles of State Policy, although do not deal directly with child welfare but provides strategy for indirectly promoting welfare of children.

## **2.6.2 Legislative provisions for protection of child labour**

Children are valuable assets of a nation. Government of India is committed to ensuring protection, rights and development of children in our country thus there exists a wide gamut of legislations to tackle the complex problem of child labour.

**‘Total abolition of child labour is central to human development’.**

### **2.6.2.1 Acts and other interventions**

#### **The Factories Act 1881**

It was the first law to define child and to prescribe prohibitory regulations for employment of children below 7 years of age. The Factories Act 1911 prohibited employment of children in dangerous occupations and working during night hours.

The first Convention of ILO, compelled amendment of the Act in 1922, to raise the minimum age of child to 15 years. However, children below the age of 12 years were prohibited from employment. The age rose to 13 years in 1935 under the Act.

#### **Indian Factories Act, 1948**

The act prohibits employment of children below 14 years of age in any factory.

#### **Plantation Labor Act 1951**

The Act prohibits the employment of children less than age of 12 years.

#### **Mines Act, 1952**

The Minimum age of a person to be employed in mine is eighteen years as specified under sub-section (1) of Section 40 of the Mines Act, 1952. Section 45 of Mines Act, prohibits presence of any person below 18 years of age in any part of the mine above ground where any operation connected with or incidental to any mining operation is being carried on.

#### **The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958**

The Act prohibits children less than 14 years of age to or carried to sea work in any capacity in any ship, subject to certain exceptions.

#### **The Motor Transporters Act, 1961**

The Act prohibits employment of children less than 14 years in any motor transport undertaking.

#### **The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966**

The Act prohibits the employment of children less than 14 years of age in any industrial premises manufacturing beedi or cigar.

#### **Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970**

The Act provide that employment of children is a punishable offence.

#### **Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act 1976**

The Act prohibits the employment of any person including children.

#### **Explosive Act, 1984**

The Act prohibits the employment of children below the age of 18 years.

## **The Shops and Commercial Establishments Acts**

These Acts of different States, also prohibit employment of children in the shops hotels, dhabas, street shops and commercial places. Those young persons who are employed, these legislations are careful about their health. While restricting the night work, they provides for medical fitness certificates for the young persons.

## **Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986**

The Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986 defines ‘child’ as a person who has not completed his 14 years of age. The child labour Act, 1986, was the culmination of efforts and ideas that emerged from recommendations of various committees on child labour. Significant among them are National Commission on Labour (1966-69), Gurupadaswamy committee on child labour (1979) and Sanat Mehta Committee (1984).

The basic objectives of the Act, 1986, are to ban employment of children below the age of 14 years in factories, mines and hazardous employments, and regulate the working conditions of children in other employments. The Act prohibits employment of children in 18 occupations and 65 processes contained in Part A & B of the Schedule to the Act (Section 3). These include the transport of passengers, goods and mails and other hazardous work in railways and ports, the process like Beedi making, cement manufacturing, manufacturing of matches and explosives, mica cutting, soap manufacturing, wool cleaning and building and construction industries. The 3rd part of the Act provides for regulations of conditions of work by prescribing minimum working hours, prohibiting work at night, prohibiting overtime work, and weekly holiday. Also, the Act provides measures for health and safety of child workers. It emphasized on maintenance of a register having details of children if employed by any organization. While prohibiting employment in certain occupation and processes, the law legalized employment of children in other cases. Any person who employs any child in contravention of the provisions of section 3 of the Act is liable for punishment with imprisonment for a term.

The Central and the State Governments enforce the provisions of the Act in their respective spheres. State shall ensure upkeep of the health and strength of child workers, the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter a vocation unsuited to their age. Also, ensure that children

are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.

The National Consultation on child labour came up with policy recommendations on the enumeration of child labour and synchronisation of laws in the light of RTE and proposed changes in CLPRA 2006. The endeavour was to build sharing experiences among State, civil society, NGO's and academics which have bearing on child labour.

### **Sexual offence Act 2012**

The Act protects the children from sexual offence.

#### **2.6.2.2 Policy and programmes**

##### **National Policy on Child Labour 1987**

In consonance with the Government approach to eradicate child labour, a National Policy on Child Labour was formulated in 1987, setting out objectives and priorities to eradicate child labour and protect all children from exploitation. The three components stated in the National Policy on Child Labour are:

- (a) Legislative Action Plan emphasizing strict and effective enforcement of legal provisions relating to Child Labour.
- (b) Focus on General Development Programmes for benefiting children and their families, and
- (c) Project-based Plan of Action focusing on areas with high concentration of child labour through implementation of National Child Labour Project.

##### **National Child Labour Project (NCLP) 1988**

With the objective to implement the multi-pronged strategy the National Child Labour Project (NCLP) was first initiated in 1988 the project was implemented in nine districts., as a part of a larger Plan of Action arising out of the National Child Labour Policy. The National Child Labour Project has been strengthened by several major initiatives at national, state and district level in the country aiming at elimination of child labour. The main thrust of this scheme has been to reduce the incidence of child labour in the pockets of their concentration. Providing education through special

schools and subsequently mainstreaming them in regular schools are the major activities under the NCLP at the ground level.

The main focus of the National Child Labour Project is to eliminate hazardous conditions for children by providing "basic needs" (food, clothing and shelter) and education. According to the Indian Ministry of Labour, children under the age of eight have been encouraged to stay in school with the support of Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (Giving Education to All), a part of the Ministry of Human Resource Development. Older child labourers are mainstreamed into schools, also with the help of this organization.

As the results of the National Child Labour Project were satisfactory, the government of India, according to India's Ministry of Human Resources, with the collaboration of the United States Department of Labour (INDUS), decided in 2000 to rehabilitate children engaged in hazardous work. Under this project, the districts served have increased from five to 21, including Delhi, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu. It is estimated that about 80,000 children will benefit under this project. Also, about 10,000 families are given support services (National Child Labour Project).

## **2.7 CONCLUSION**

With increasing globalisation and integration with the world economy, how long can India afford to persist with low grade technologies, and more importantly, with a predominantly illiterate, low skilled labour force. Increased competitiveness and use of modern technology in today's globalised scenario is sending a signal that employing children is no longer an economically viable solution for them. Hence, many large industries may be interested in setting adequate labour standard by stopping the use of child labour. The concept of 'social labelling' as designed and pursued by some big industries' associations around the world.

Further, several studies show that damage done to children that are pushed into the labour force very early in life makes them unemployable later. In many instances the hazardous conditions under which they have to work result in accidents or health problems that make them unfit to continue working from an early age. As a result for most of their adult life they earn much less (if at all) than they could have earned had they not been forced into working in childhood. Besides, the so-called skills earned do

not in any way augment the earning capacity of the children as most of the jobs done by them are highly monotonous, low skilled, tedious jobs that condemn them forever in low paying jobs.

Clearly, the earnings foregone in adult life, due to disabilities or lack of training and education that could have been attained in childhood, are far greater than what is earned as a child. Hence, a closer and harder look at the so called economics of the situation reveals a different story. It is therefore more appropriate to say that child labour perpetuates poverty - it does not reduce it as it condemns one generation after another to its vicious circle. The benefits that accrue from an education far outweigh any benefits that the family derives from the meagre earnings. These benefits are manifest in not just the earning capacity but reflect in other spheres of the child's and later, adult's life.

Despite many government legislations and policies there still exists market where demand for child labour is high both due to pecuniary and non-pecuniary reasons. Also, due to poverty of household and in the garb of learning skills and helping in the household activities, supply of child labour continues. The incidence of child labour is determined by both demand and supply side of determinants.

# **CHAPTER 3**

## **MAGNITUDE OF CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA AND AT GLOBAL LEVEL**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Child labour is extensively used in India as elsewhere in many countries of South Asia. The prevalence of child labour is more or less seen in all periods of time, it varies in nature and dimension depending on the existing socio - economic structure of society. In India, the problem of child labour is inextricably linked to certain basic social problems that we have been grappling with over the past five decades of freedom, illiteracy, unemployment and poverty. Child labour is one of the problems that occur as a result of responses to the economic problems faced by vulnerable children.

It is well recognized that child labour is one of the most grave and extensive problems in Indian society. India has got the dubious distinction of employing the largest number of children in the world. Child labour in India is to be found in almost every sector of the informal economy. It has the largest number of world's working children. The report of Human Rights in U. S. Department of State (1998), the ILO estimated the number of child workers as 44 million, while Ministry of Labour and other NGO's estimates show it as 55 million. According to their estimates there are 25 million children employed in agricultural sector, 20 million in service jobs and as servants in home and 5 million in the handloom, carpet making, gem cutting and match making industries. 91 per cent of child labour in India are in rural areas, while 9 per cent are in urban areas. Thus a considerable number of children are not only losing their childhood but also opportunities for education.

Human Development Report estimates of the number of employed children vary from 14 million to 100 million children in India. It also rightly points out that "millions of children are put to work in ways that deny them their right to childhood....Most of these children belong to marginal communities and to socially and economically deprived groups. The worst consequence of all may be that child labour keeps children out of school, thereby preventing the development of their capabilities - a priority for a long-run solution to poverty and exploitation".

The magnitude of child labour in India has been witnessing enormous decline in the last two decades, both in terms of magnitude and workforce participation rates. Evidence drawn from the National Sample Survey data suggest that India's child workforce during 2009-10 was estimated at little over nine million (9.07 million) as against twenty-one and half million (21.55 million) in 2003. During this period, the number of child employment has declined sharply by 12.48 million. There is considerable fall in child workforce is observed among boys than girls. The corresponding fall in boys and girls workforce during 2003 to 2009- 10 is observed to have decreased from 12.06 to 4.76 million, and 9.49 to 4.31 million, respectively.

**Table 3.1 UNICEF Report on Working Children in India as on 2012**

Particulars of Children				Children of the Age Group (5-14 Years)		
Number of Children (in 100s)				Number of Children (in %)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Engaged in Domestic Duties	3865	37305	41170	00.30	03.15	01.67
Engaged in collection of goods, tailoring, weaving for households only)	3189	23714	26903	00.25	01.92	01.26
Attending Schools	926180	745816	1671996	72.98	61.45	67.44
Children at work	60017	116318	176335	04.73	08.93	06.75
Children engaged in economic activity	53806	45712	99518	04.18	03.86	04.02
Children neither at work nor at school	228398	251167	479565	17.26	20.42	18.80

Source : Annual Report of UNICEF, 2012-13

However, in absolute numbers, the problem is large. As per the Census 2011, there are 1.26 crores economically active children in the age-group of 5-14 years. It was 1.13 crores in the 2001 Census.

### 3.2 GLOBAL SCENARIO

Child labour has existed in varying extents across the globe. Today, throughout the world, around millions of children work, many full-time. Child labour is a phenomenon pervasive mostly in the transitional societies of the developing economies where multiclass social structures exist and a complex of traditional and pre capitalist production relations are operative. In extreme economic distress, parents send their children to work as a desperate measure to overcome the challenges of poor conditions. For impoverished households, income from a child's work is usually crucial for his or her own survival or for that of household.

**Table 3.2 Estimates of various forms of children's work, 5-17 years, 2008- 2012**

	Total children	Children in employment		Child labour		Hazardous work	
	('000)	('000)	%	('000)	%	('000)	%
<b>World</b> 2008	1,586,288	305,669	19.3	215,269	13.6	115,314	7.3
2012	1,585,566	264,427	16.7	167,956	10.6	85,344	5.4
<b>Boys</b> 2008	819,891	175,777	21.4	127,761	15.6	74,019	9.0
2012	819,877	148,327	18.1	99,766	12.2	55,048	6.7
<b>Girls</b> 2008	766,397	129,892	16.9	87,508	11.4	41,296	5.4
2012	765,690	116,100	15.2	68,190	8.9	30,296	4.0
<b>2008 5-14 yrs</b>	1,216,854	176,452	14.5	152,850	12.6	52,895	4.3
2012	1,221,071	144,066	11.8	120,453	9.9	37,841	3.1
<b>2008 15-17 yrs</b>	369,433	129,217	35.0	62,419	16.9	62,419	16.9
2012	364,495	120,362	33.0	47,503	13.0	47,503	13.0

Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

There were some 264 million children aged 5 to 17 yrs in economic activity in the world in 2012 (16.7 per cent). This is 42 million fewer than in 2008. Boys continue to be more exposed to employment than girls (18.1 per cent against 15.2 per cent). Child labour, a more restricted category than is “children in employment”, excludes all children working legally in accordance with ILO Conventions Nos.138 and 182. About one-tenth of the total child population i.e. 168 million children aged 5-17 years was involved in child labour in 2012. The global number of child labourers in this age group dropped considerably, from 215 million in 2008 (13.6 per cent) to 168 million in 2012 (10.6 per cent). This represents 47 million fewer than in 2008.

Working children in these countries are subjected to a process of implacable exploitation characterised by low wages, long hours of work, unhygienic and unsafe working conditions in Industries which are plainly dangerous and hazardous. The number of children in worst form of child labour in hazardous work accounts for almost half of all child labourers (85.3 million). Boys outnumber girls in hazardous work (55 million and 30.3 million, respectively). The number of children in hazardous work in the world declined by 30 million, from 115.3 million in 2008 to 85.3 million in 2012.

### **3.2.1 Regional estimate of child labour in the world**

The Asia-Pacific region has the largest number of children in employment (64.4 million) in 2012, followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (57.6 million), Other regions (13 million, of which 7.1 million for the Middle East and North Africa) and Latin America and the Caribbean (9 million). About 1 in 4 children younger than 15 years were in employment in the Sub-Saharan African region (26.2 per cent) compared to 1 in 10 in the Asia-Pacific region (10.1 per cent), 1 in 12 in the Latin and the Caribbean (8.2 per cent) and 1 in 20 in Other regions (5.1 per cent), of which 1 in 12 in the Middle East and North Africa.

In Latin and the Caribbean, the situation among children in employment continued its decline albeit at a slower rate, both in absolute and relative terms. The incidence decreased slightly from 9.0 to 8.2 per cent. The absolute number of children in employment dropped by 1 million in a total population of 9 million. In the Middle East and North Africa, there were 7 million children in employment. This accounts for 1 in 12 children younger than 15 years. We are not in a position to present a trend for

this region since there was no estimate for Middle East and North Africa in the previous exercise (2008).

**Table 3.3 Regional estimates of various forms of children's work, 5-14 years old, 2008 and 2012**

	Children	Children in		Child labour		Hazardous work	
	('000)	('000)	%	('000)	%	('000)	%
<b>World</b>							
2008	1,216,854	176,452	14.5	152,850	12.6	52,895	4.3
2012	1,221,071	144,066	11.8	120,453	9.9	37,841	3.1
<b>Asia and the Pacific</b>							
2008	651,815	96,397	14.8	81,443	12.5	-	-
2012	637,579	64,419	10.1	52,702	8.3	-	-
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean</b>							
2008	110,566	10,002	9.0	9,722	8.8	-	-
2012	110,035	8,986	8.2	7,924	7.2	-	-
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>							
2008	205,319	58,212	28.4	52,229	25.4	-	-
2012	220,077	57,623	26.2	47,735	21.7	-	-
<b>Other regions</b>							
2008	249,154	10,700	4.3	9,456	3.8	-	-
2012	253,380	13,038	5.1	12,091	4.8	-	-

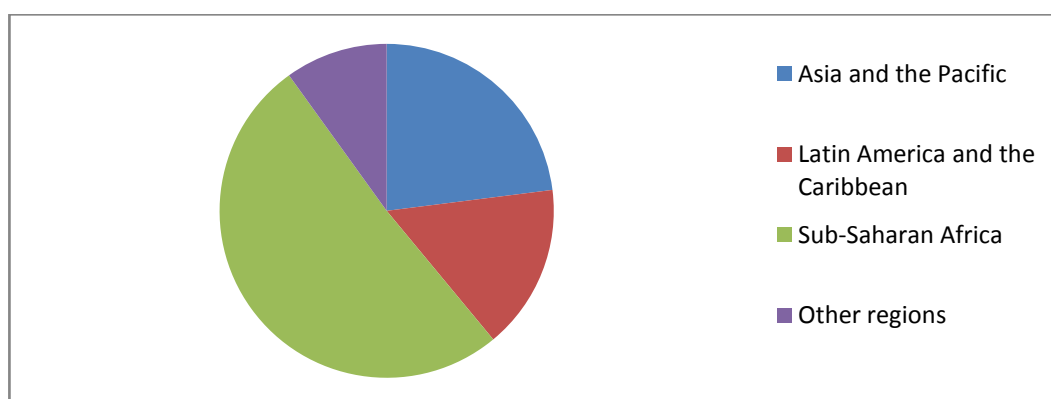
Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

In Sub-Saharan Africa, there is a slight reduction, the incidence rate declined by 2.2 percentage points to 26.2 per cent and the absolute number is more or less stable about 58 million. Asia and the Pacific, the incidence was reduced by 4.7 percentage points to 10.1 per cent, and the absolute number of children in employment aged 5-14 years dropped to 64.4 million.

In absolute terms, it is the Asia-Pacific region that has the most child labourers ages 5-17 (77.7 million) as compared with 59 million in Sub-Saharan Africa and 12.5 million in Latin America and the Caribbean. Yet Sub-Saharan Africa region has the highest incidence of child labour, with one in five children involved. About one in twelve of the total child population in Middle East and North Africa (9 million) was in child labour in 2012 (Table 3.3). In the age group 5-14 years old, most of the observed decline in the overall number of child labourers is in the number of child labourers in Asia and the Pacific. The number of child labourers also decreased modestly in Latin America and the Caribbean.

For the first time, there was a slight decrease in child labour in Saharan Africa region, not only in absolute numbers but also in relative terms (from 52.2 million to 47.7 million and a 3.7 percentage point decrease in incidence). With regard to children in hazardous work (5-17 years-old), the largest number of children in this worst form of child labour is found in the Asia-Pacific (33.9 million) and Sub-Saharan Africa (28.8 million) regions. There are 9.6 million children in hazardous work in Latin America and the Caribbean and 5.2 million in Middle East and North Africa regions. In relative terms, Sub-Saharan Africa region has the highest incidence of children in hazardous work, with one in ten children involved (Fig 3.1).

**Fig 3.1 Children employment by regions 5-14 yrs in 2012**



Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

### 3.2.2 Sectoral distribution of child labourer

Children engaged in child labour work in all the three broad groupings of economic activity (agriculture, industry and services). Among child labourers aged 5 to 17 in the world, 58.6 per cent are involved in the agricultural sector, 7.2 per cent are employed in industry and 32.3 per cent in services (of which 6.9 per cent are in domestic work).

These results are almost identical to those obtained in 2008 except for services (60 per cent in agriculture, 7 per cent in industry and 25.6 per cent in services). The bulk of child labourers remain in the form of contributing family workers (68.4 per cent), 22.5 per cent are in paid employment and 8.1 per cent in self-employment. In 2008, there were 68 per cent of child labourers among contributing family workers, 21 per cent in paid employment and 5 per cent in self-employment.

### 3.2.3 Global trend of Child employment by gender

In 2012, an estimated population of 144.1 million children aged 5-14 years were in employment in the world. This represents 11.8 per cent of all children in this age group. In the age group 5 to 17 years, the total child population in employment was estimated at 264.4 million (16.7 per cent).

**Table 3.4 Global trend (2008-2012) in the number of children in employment, 5-17 years old**

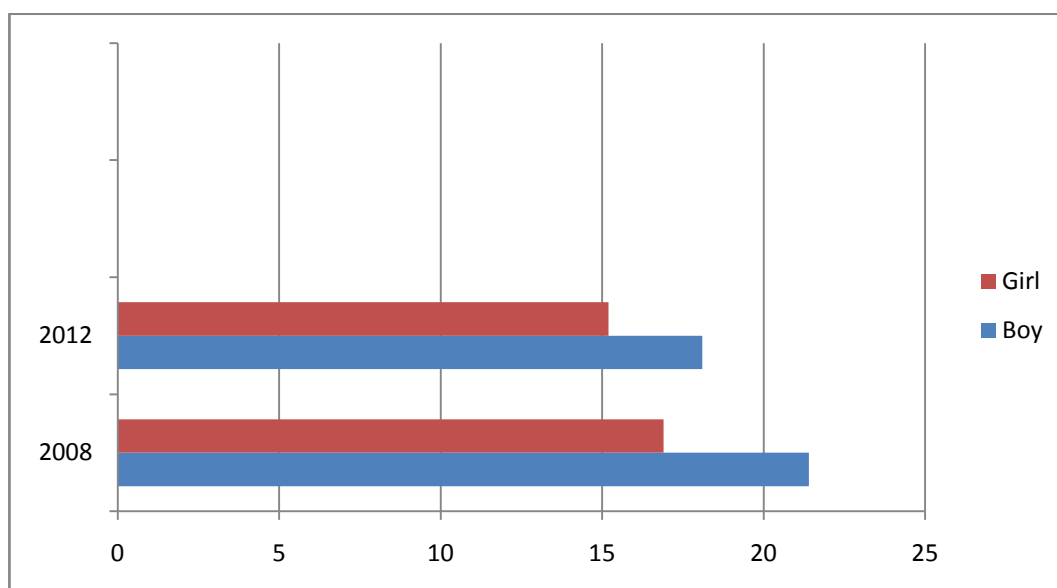
Year	Population ('000)		Children in employment ('000)		Activity rate (%)		% difference activity rate
	2008	2012	2008	2012	2008	2012	
World	1,586,288	1,585,566	305,669	264,427	19.3	16.7	-2.6
Boys	819,891	819,877	175,777	148,327	21.4	18.1	-3.3
Girls	766,397	765,690	129,892	116,100	16.9	15.2	-1.7
5-14	1,216,854	1,221,071	176,452	144,066	14.5	11.8	-2.7
15-17	369,433	364,495	129,217	120,362	3	3.0	-2

Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

As Table 3.4 shows, globally incidence of employment among children declined in both absolute and relative terms. The trend is consistent across all major groups. The 2012 estimates reveal some differences by sex in terms of overall magnitude of children in employment and its relative incidence. Boys tend to be more involved in employment than are girls (148.3 million versus 116.1 million for girls). The employment rate was 18.1 per cent for boys compared to 15.2 per cent for girls.

Between 2008 and 2012, employment in the 5-to 14-year core age group declined by 2.7 percentage points, from 176.5 million (14.5 per cent) to 144.1 million (11.8 per cent), a decrease of 32 million. Over the same period, employment among children aged 15-17 years decreased almost by 9 million, or from 129.2 million (35.0 per cent) to 120.4 million (33.0 per cent).

**Fig 3.2 Global trend 2008-12 Children employment by gender**



Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

It is interesting to note that the younger the age group, the more pronounced was the downward change of incidence rate. Table 3.4 shows that incidence rates declined by 2.7 percentage points among the 5-to 14-year-olds versus 2 percentage points among those aged 15-17 years, respectively. The number of children in employment decreased among both sexes over the last four years. It is noteworthy that in relative terms employment rates seem to have declined somewhat faster among boys than among girls (a decrease of 3.3 percentage points among boys compared to a decrease of 1.7 percentage points among girls).

### 3.2.4 Global trend of child employment by age group

In 2012, there were about 168 million child labourers in the world, of whom more than two thirds (120 million) were in the age group 5 to 14 years old. Child labour is by no means only a problem among older children. In fact, about 4 in 10 child labourers were younger than 12 years (73 million) in 2012 (Table 3.5).

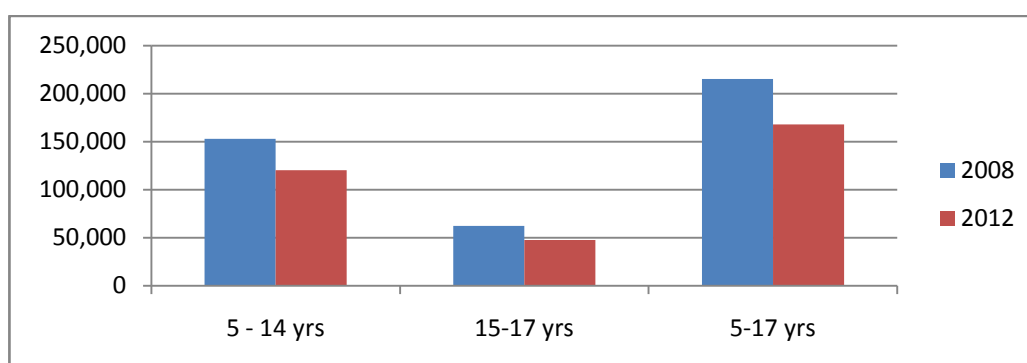
**Table 3.5 Global estimates of child labour by age group, 2008 and 2012**

Major age group	Child labour ('000) 2008	Child labour ('000) 2012
5-11	91,024	73,072
12-14	61,826	47,381
Total 5-14	152,850	120,453
Total 15-17	62,419	47,503
Total 5-17	215,269	167,956

Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

Child labour declined sharply during the period 2008 to 2012, reflecting trends in children in employment. The results indicate that globally the number of child labourers decreased by 47 million from 215 to 168 million. This corresponds to 22 per cent decrease over the four years. The drop was slightly pronounced among older children compared to children less than 15 years (23.9 per cent among 15-17 year age cohort against 21.2 per cent among children aged 5 to 14 years).

**Fig 3.3 Global estimate of child labour by age group 2008-2012**



Source : Global Child Labour Trends 2008-2012, IPEC

In relative terms, the worldwide incidence of child labour also dropped from a rate of 13.6 per cent to 10.6 percent (Table 3.5). However, in absolute terms, Fig 3.3 presents a more positive trend in the age group of younger children than the one of older children (15-17 years). Among 5-14 year olds, the number of child labourers declined by 32 million between 2008 and 2012. In the case of older children, 15-17 years old, there was a reduction by 15 million.

**Graphic 3.4 International standards on child labour statistics**

<b>Children (5-17 years old) in productive activities</b>				
<b>Children in employment</b>				Children in other productive activities of which included as child labour under the general production boundary Hazardous unpaid household services
<b>CHILD LABOUR</b>			Permissible light work (12-14 years old) Work not designated as worst forms (15-17 years old)	
<b>Worst forms of child labour</b>		<b>Employment below Min age</b>		
<b>Hazardous work by children</b> Exposure to physical, Psychological or sexual abuse. Underground, under water, dangerous heights, confined spaces. Dangerous machinery, heavy loads. Unhealthy environment, hazardous substances, temperatures, noise levels or vibrations damaging to health. Long hours, night work.	<b>Other worst forms of child labour</b> All forms of slavery, trafficking, debt bondage, serfdom, forced or compulsory labour, forced or compulsory recruitment in armed conflict. Child prostitution Pornography and Illicit activities.			

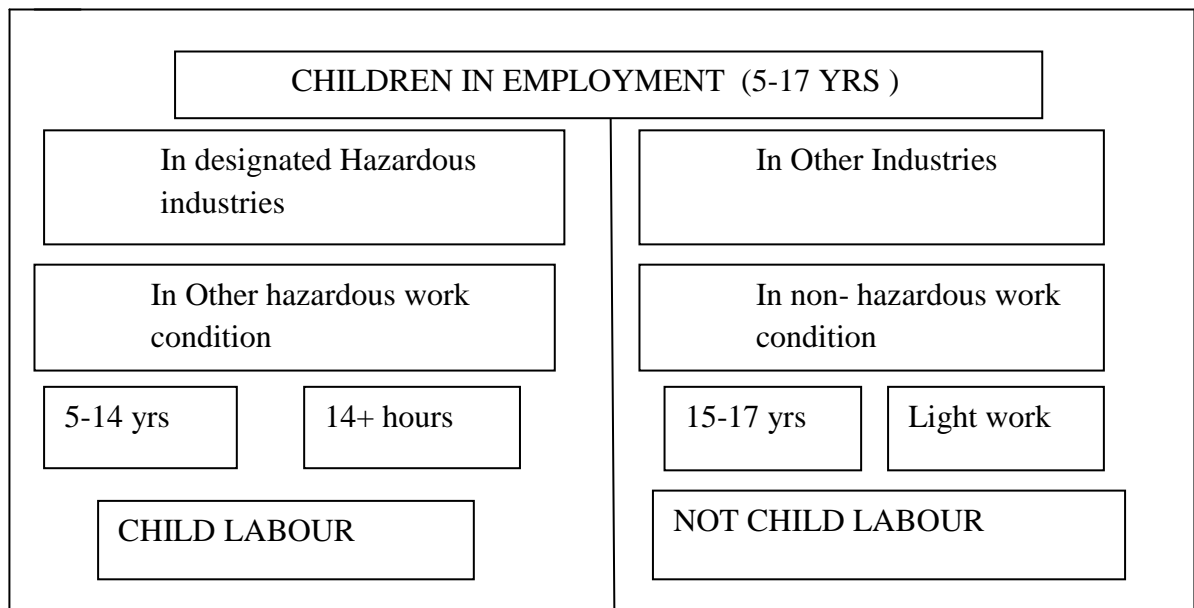
Source: 18th International Conference Labour Statisticians (ICLS). ILO Geneva 2008

### 3.3 ILO GLOBAL ESTIMATION

For the purpose of global estimation, a specific sequential procedure for measuring child labour has been adopted within the framework of the international standards as schematically represented in the graphic below. Some technical issues regarding thresholds and combined economic activities and unpaid household services need to be settled before full measurement of child labour on the basis on the general production boundary can be adequately carried out. The starting point of the

measurement of child labour for the purpose of global estimation is therefore the population of children in employment. These are children (5 to 17 years old) who were engaged in any economic activity where economic activity includes essentially all production of goods whether intended for sale on the market or not, and all paid services.

**Graphic 3.5 Conceptual framework of the ILO global estimation of child labour**



Source: 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). Resolution concerning statistics of child labour (ILO, Geneva, 2008).

Across the globe to a lesser or greater extent, visible or invisible, admittedly or otherwise, child labour exists. Child labour is a pervasive problem throughout the world. Empirical estimates of the ILO show that the proportion of child labourers varies greatly among countries and even regions inside those countries. The percentage of child labourers is greater in Asian countries than in Western countries. Additionally, child labour is much more common in developing countries than in developed countries. For example, in Asia and the Pacific over 127.3 million children under 14 are engaged in child labour as compared to the 2.5 million children aged 5 to 7 engaged in child labour in developed countries.

In many of the third world countries, the problem of child labour is accepted either as a harsh reality or as an inescapable necessity. Increasing inter-linkages of economies and societies across the world have resulted in reaching an emergent consensus that child labour poses a serious threat to real and meaningful social development, while in

turn perpetuating poverty and compromising with the objectives of attaining economic growth along with social justice (ILO, 2002).

Africa has the highest incidence of child labour, a total over 59 million i.e. 21% of children aged 5–17 employed as child labour. Asia and the Pacific, with its larger population, has the largest number of children employed as child labour at about 78 million or 9.3% of child population. Latin America and Caribbean region have lower overall population density, but there are 13 million, 8.8% of children in child labour in Latin America and the Caribbean and in the Middle East and North Africa there are 9.2 million or 8.4% child labourers, has high incidence rates too.

**Table-3.6 Work Participation Rates Of Children, 10-14 Years**

Country	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	1995	2000	2010
World	27.57	24.81	22.30	19.91	14.65	13.02	11.32	8.44
Africa	38.42	35.88	33.05	30.97	27.87	26.23	24.92	22.52
Latin America	19.36	16.53	14.60	12.64	11.23	9.77	8.21	5.47
Asia	36.06	32.26	28.35	23.42	15.19	12.77	10.18	5.60
Europe	6.49	3.52	1.62	0.42	0.10	0.06	0.04	0.02
Ethiopia	52.95	50.75	48.51	46.32	43.47	42.30	41.10	38.79
Brazil	23.53	22.19	20.33	19.02	17.78	16.09	14.39	10.94
China	47.85	43.17	39.03	30.48	15.24	11.55	7.86	0.00
Italy	29.11	10.91	4.12	1.55	0.43	0.38	0.33	0.27
India	35.43	30.07	25.46	21.44	16.68	14.37	12.07	7.46

Source: ILO

In developing countries, with high poverty index, poor schooling opportunities and lack of meaningful alternatives such as affordable healthcare facilities, child labour is most prevalent. In 2010, sub-Saharan Africa had the highest incidence rates of child

labour, with several African nations witnessing over 50 percent of children aged 5–14 working. Worldwide agriculture is the largest employer of child labour 98 million, or 59% but the problems are not negligible in services that employs 54 million child labour and vast majority of child labour i.e. 12 million is found in rural settings and informal urban economy.

Children are predominantly employed by their parents, rather than factories. Globally the incidence of child labour decreased from 25% to 10% between 1960 and 2010, according to the World Bank. Nevertheless, the total number of child labourers remains high, with UNICEF and ILO acknowledging an estimated 168 million children aged 5–17 worldwide, involved in child labour in 2013.

### **3.4 RECENT TRENDS IN CHILD LABOUR COUNTS: ACROSS THE GLOBE AND INDIA IN PARTICULAR**

The recent statistics as available with the International Labour Organization (ILO) on child labour presents a hopeful picture. The child labour numbers is found to be decreasing in many parts of the world. Only in Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of economically active children has increased. Asia and the pacific regions, despite the decrease in child labour numbers is still the highest in the world. The higher number, among other reasons, is also due to presence of most populous nations in the region, viz. India and China.

In India, the picture has been impressive. Analysis of successive census data shows that the ratio of child labour to total population in the country has decreased from 1.37 per cent in 1991 to 0.36 per cent in 2011 and same is true for states as well. While that is a positive trend, getting accurate figures on the actual number of child labourers in the country however, still remains a challenge.

There are varying estimates of the number of working children in the country due to differing definitions and methods of estimation. The varying definitions of child labour means varying data, depending on the definition It is in this context that defining child labour becomes extremely crucial for the accurate estimation of the number of children working as well as for designing and implementing comprehensive and effective strategies to ensure the rights of all children, as enshrined in our constitution and in the UNCRC.

However, consistent efforts are being made to create awareness and eradicate child labour. 12<sup>th</sup> June every year is marked as ‘World Day against Child Labour’.

### 3.5 CHILD LABOUR POPULATION IN INDIA

Indian economy is going from strength to strength benefiting from the demographic dividend of a young and growing workforce. This largest democracy of the world, home to the largest number of children in the world, paradoxically bears the scourge of having tens of millions of child labourers living a life of bondage and slavery.

Census data on child labour in table 3.7 shows that there were 14.5 million child workers in 1961 which declined to 10.8 million in 1971 then increased to 13.6 million in 1981. The number again fell to 11.3 million in 1991 and then rose to 12.7 million in 2001. Notwithstanding fluctuations in absolute numbers, the proportion of working children in the workforce has declined over the decades. The data given in table 3.2 shows a continuous declining trend in the child labour participation rate. The child population in India has increased from 113.09 million in 1961 to 253.16 million in 2001, in the mean time the proportion of working children has declined from 12 per cent to 5 per cent that is a fall of 7 percentage point. The child population in 2011 was 238.37 million with child workers population of 4.98 and the percentage of working children falls to 2.08.

**Table 3.7 Working Children in India (5-14 years) (Census)**

Years	Number of Children (in millions)	Number of Child Workers (in millions)	Proportion of Working Children (percentage)
1961	113.09	14.5	12.07
1971	150.07	10.8	7.01
1981	179.05	13.6	6.01
1991	209.09	11.3	5.37
2001	253.16	12.7	5.0
2011	238.37	4.9	2.08

Source: Census of India 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. <http://labour.nic.in>

Besides this, there are about 74.4 million children who are neither enrolled in school nor accounted for in the labour force, who come under the category of ‘nowhere’ children. The trends between 1991 and 2011 of declining main child workers along with increasing marginal workers may indicate the changing nature of work done by children. Thus, India holds the dubious distinction of having the highest concentration of child labour in the world. Despite several proactive legislations and policies in India, and child labour related provisions in various other labour laws, the decline in the magnitude of child labour has been less progressive than expected and as a result, the problem persists as a challenge to the country.

Due to multiplicity of definition, different methods of computation and the collection of data at different point of time, there are variations in the data on child labour. A declining trend similar to that observed from Census data is also evident in the NSSO (National Sample Survey Organization) results. According to NSSO the estimated total number of working children was 19.4 million in 1977-78 (35<sup>th</sup> Round) which was increased in 1983 to 20.6 million but after that, from 1987-88 to 2009-010 the number of working children has been declined continuously (17.7 million to 4.98 million). (Table 3.8).

**Table 3.8 Working Children in India (5-14 years) (NSSO 2009-10)**

Years	No. of Child Workers(in millions)
1977-1978	19.4
1983	20.6
1987-1988	17.7
1993-1994	13.3
1999-2000	10.23
2004-2005	8.6
2009-2010	4.98

Source: NSSO, Various Rounds, Employment and Unemployment Situation in India.

### **3.6. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA**

#### **3.6.1 Trends in child workforce by gender**

As per the NSSO result the estimated total number of working children was 13.3 million in 1993-94, 8.6 million in 2004-05 and 4.98 million in 2009-10. They

constituted about 6.2 per cent of children in age group 5-14 years in 1993-94, 3.4 per cent in 2004-05 and 2.3 per cent in 2009-10.

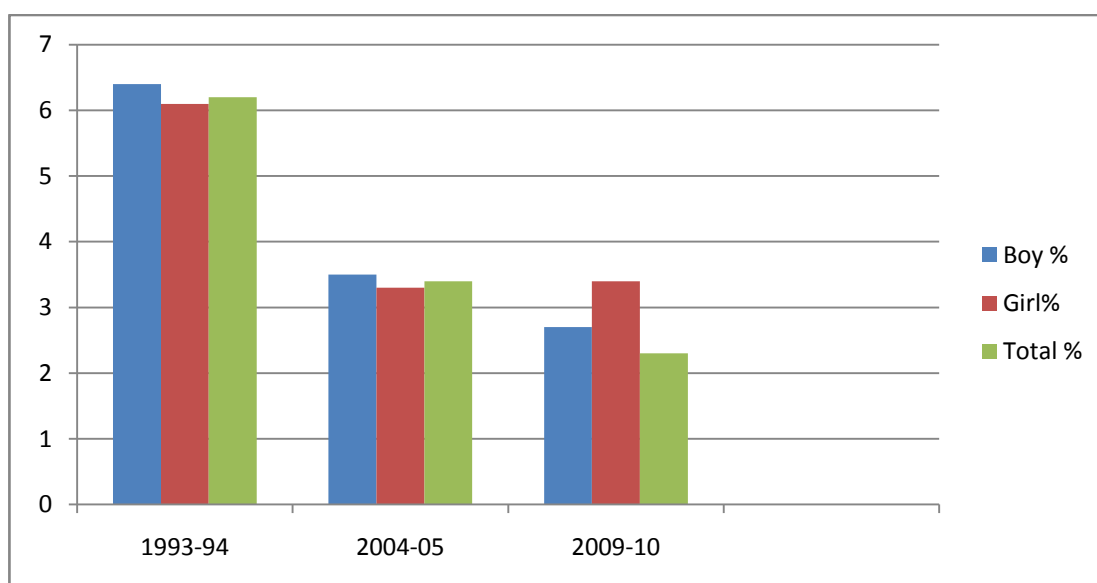
**Table 3.9: Proportion of Working Children by Gender (5-14 years) (NSSO)**

	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	Total (%)
1993-94	6.4	6.1	6.2
2004-05	3.5	3.3	3.4
2009-10	2.7	1.9	2.3

Source: NSSO, Various Rounds, Employment and Unemployment Situation in India.

Table 3.9 shows that there is a massive decline in proportion of working children in case of both boys and girls during 1993-94 to 2009-10 (Boys from 6.4 percent to 2.7 per cent and Girls 6.1 percent to 1.9 per cent). The proportion of working male children was more than those of girl children (Figure 3.6). This can be due to the fact that girls (many of who worked in homes, side by side with their female kin at home) had remained invisible, and it could have been a reason why boys, who were most likely to work out in open (in agriculture), were more visible, and were, therefore, reported.

**Figure 3.6 Proportion of Working Children by Gender (5-14 years)**



Source: NSSO

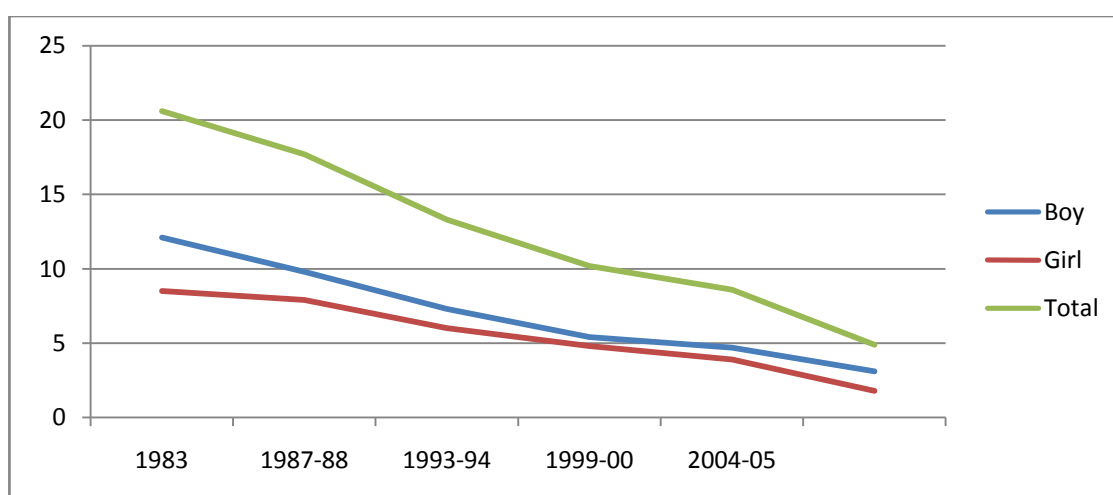
From this analysis it is seen that the work done by girls is usually underestimated, thereby, may lead to serious implications for the total count of girl workers. Further, from the table 3.5 a considerable fall in child workforce can be observed among boys and girls. During 1983 to 2009-10, this number has declined from 12.1 million to 3.1 million, and 8.5 million to 1.8 million respectively for boys and girls. During 2009-10 total magnitude of child workforce stood at 4.9 million as against 20.6 million in 1983. Table 3.10 shows that from 1983 to 2009-10, the number of working children has declined sharply by 15.7 million. This decline shows a great progress in eliminating child labour in India. This could have been possible only because of government efforts and social awareness regarding education among people.

**Table 3.10: Magnitude of Child Labour in India,1983-2009/10,NSSO (in millions)**

	Boys	Girls	All
1983	12.1	8.5	20.6
1987-88	9.8	7.9	17.7
1993-94	7.3	6.0	13.3
1999-00	5.4	4.8	10.2
2004-05	4.7	3.9	8.6
2009-10	3.1	1.8	4.9

Source: NSSO, Various Rounds, employment and Unemployment Situation in India.

**Figure 3.7 Trends in Child Workforce in India by Gender, 1983 to 2005**



Source NSSO

In effect, the gender difference that existed between boys and girls (adverse against boys) during the early 1980s has almost dissipated in recent years, the difference being slowed down from 3.6 million to roughly 1.3 million (Figure 3.7). It is clear from the figure 3.2 the fall in boys during 1999-00 to 2009-10 (2.3 million) is less as compared to 1983 to 1993-93 (4.8 million) but the fall in case of girls during 1999-00 to 2009-10 (3.0 million) is high as compared to 1983 to 1993-93 (2.5 million). Although there is substantial evidence that girls in developing countries like India have significantly less accessibility to schools as compared to boys (World Bank, 2009). But in recent years, the awareness among parents for girls' education has increased and even government is also encouraging girl education by providing various amenities to poor people who cannot send their children especially girls to schools due to financial problems.

Considering schooling and labour market participation as the two extremes of activity statuses of children four different situation may emerge, such as children

- (a) Only pursuing schooling and do not participate in labour market;
- (b) Mainly pursuing schooling and also participates in labour market;
- (c) Neither pursue schooling nor participate in labour markets;
- (d) Do not pursue schooling only participate in labour market.

NCEUS (2007) has computed the trends of child labour in India by including the out of school children as they are always being at the risk of entering the labour force. Table 3.11 shows that as per NSSO results, the number of children who are not studying has declined by 2004-05 compared to 1993-94, but still about 18 per cent of the child population (15 per cent of boys and about 21 per cent of the girls) is not studying in the schools. This amounts to 45.2 million children during 2004-05. Out of these 8.6 million (3.4 per cent) are involved in an economic activity while 36.6 million (14.5 per cent) are out of school, who may be considered as potential child labour.

**Table 3.11 Number and Percentage of Children (5-14 years) who are Workers, Non-workers and Students by Sex ( NSSO) (in millions)**

Usual Status	1993-1994			2004-05		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Labour	7.3 (6.4)	6.0 (6.1)	13.3 (6.2)	4.7 (3.5)	3.9 (3.3)	8.6 (3.4)
Non-Workers	22.2 (19.5)	32.0 (32.2)	54.1 (25.4)	16.1 (12.0)	20.5 (17.4)	36.6 (14.5)
Total Out of School	29.4	38.0	67.4	20.8	24.4	45.2
Labour Pool	25.9	38.3	31.6	15.4	20.8	17.9
Students	84.4 (74.1)	61.3 (61.7)	145.8 (68.4)	113.9 (84.6)	93.2 (79.2)	207.1 (82.1)
All (5-14)	113.9 (100.0)	99.3 (100.0)	213.2 (100.0)	134.7 (100.0)	117.6 (100.0)	252.3 (100.0)

Source: Computed by NCEUS (2007) from NSSO 50th and 61st Rounds

The NSSO data on child labour force participation rate in India by gender and residential status from 1993-94 to 2009-10 has been shown in table 3.12. Table shows a sharper decline in work participation of children among the age groups 10-14 than among the 5-9 age group (9.3 per cent decline in boys and 9.6 per cent in girls).

**Table 3.12 Child Labour force Participation Rates in India, 1993-94 to 2009-10 (in percentage) (NSSO)**

Particulars	1993-94 (50th Round)		1999-00 (55th Round)		2004-05 (61st Round)		2009-10 (66th Round)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
<b>Rural</b>								
5-9	1.1	1.4	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
10-14	13.9	14.2	9.3	9.6	7.0	7.5	4.6	3.6
<b>Urban</b>								
5-9	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
10-14	7.1	4.7	5.2	3.7	5.3	3.5	3.0	1.2

Source: NSSO, Various Rounds, employment and Unemployment Situation in India.

### 3.6.2 Social character of child labour in India

NSSO data on caste-wise break-up of workforce participation rates indicates that the children among lower castes are more vulnerable to labour related exploitation in India.

**Table 3.13 Child Workforce Participation Rates in India by Caste 1999-00 to 2004-05 (in per cent)**

Age Group	STs	SCs	OBCs	Others	All
1999-00					
5-9	1.43	0.50	0.56	0.27	0.54
10-14	14.87	8.87	7.96	5.17	7.79
5-14	7.71	4.50	4.14	2.74	4.08
2004-05					
5-9	0.45	0.22	0.19	0.10	0.20
10-14	7.31	5.26	5.21	3.93	5.12
5-14	3.79	2.80	2.87	2.03	2.74

Source NSSO 2004-05

It is clear from the table that the higher the caste hierarchy, the lower the participation rates of children and vice versa. The NSSO data 2004-05 shows that the children among scheduled tribes are twice likely to be engaged in gainful economic activities than the 'others' essentially drawn from upper castes. Almost close to three per cent of children belonging to scheduled castes are engaged in some form of employment as against two percent of 'others' castes. When we take the children in the age group of 10-14, the data in Table 3.13 essentially shows that the WPR is highest for STs followed by SCs and other castes reflecting the caste hierarchy in the society.

If we look at the religious categories among working children, the WPR is higher among Minority religious communities than that of the children hailing from Hindu groups and others during 2004-05. During the same period, 6.5 percent of children in the age group 10-14 among Muslim children were engaged in gainful employment as against over 4.5 percent of Hindu children.

**Table 3.14 Child Workforce Participation Rates by Religion, 1999-00 to 2004-05  
(in per cent)**

Age Group	Hindus	Muslims	Others	All
1999-00				
5-9	0.56	0.54	0.20	0.54
10-14	7.91	7.81	5.89	7.79
5-14	4.15	4.00	3.15	4.08
2004-05				
5-9	0.25	0.40	0.04	0.26
10-14	4.71	6.58	3.12	4.90
5-14	2.48	3.47	1.63	2.58

Source NSSO 2004-05

The data presented in Table 3.14 also indicates that the decline in WPR among Muslim children is slower than other groups over a period of time. This is reflective of long-term neglect and discrimination of minority religious groups in job market and educational opportunities.

### **3.6.3 Economic conditions of child labour households**

Though poverty cannot be an alibi for condoning child labour, there is definitely a positive correlation between incidence of child labour and household economic status. NSSO data on expenditure quintiles of households shows that the magnitude of child labour is significant among poorer sections than the richer sections.

The incidence of child labour declines as the households goes up in the economic ladder (Table 3.15). Given the economic process that the country is undergoing now, where the gap between wealth and poverty is increasing, it is a matter of urgent concern that the people living in poverty are uplifted to address the issue of child labour. However, a clear shift is observed among various economic quintiles over the last one decade so far as child workforce is concerned. While the 1990s have witnessed enormous concentration of child employment among the poor households, during 2004-05 the child workers appear to be more and more spread among illiterates, and primary and secondary educated households. This is also a reflection of the declining employment growth in the country.

**Table 3.15 Child Labour by Expenditure Quintiles, 1999-00 to 2004- 2005**

Year	Age	Poorest	Middle	Richest
1999-00	5-9	36.40	21.63	5.79
	10-14	33.91	19.39	6.85
	5-14	34.08	19.54	6.78
	All	22.25	20.98	16.09
2004-05	5-9	45.09	15.10	2.02
	10-14	35.21	19.46	4.72
	5-14	35.60	19.29	4.61
	All	30.38	18.34	12.91

Source: Derived from Respective Unit Level Records of NSSO

### 3.6.4 Literacy levels of head of child labour households

Illiterate and semi illiterate parents who struggle to survive, use their children as supplementary sources of income. Though the literacy levels are increasing in the country, the incidence of child labour seems to be high among the households where the head of the household is an illiterate.

**Table 3.16 Household Head's Education and Child Labour 1999-00 to 2004-05**

Year	Age Group	Illiterates	Primary	Secondary	Graduate & Above
1999-00	5-9	72.25	16.60	9.58	1.57
	10-14	68.82	22.07	8.35	0.75
	5-14	69.06	21.70	8.43	0.81
	All	46.91	26.21	22.39	4.49
2004-05	5-9	46.89	26.33	23.52	3.27
	10-14	45.50	27.16	23.64	3.70
	5-14	46.19	26.75	23.58	3.48
	All	43.23	27.47	25.01	4.29

Source: Derived from Respective Unit Level Records of NSSO

As revealed by NSSO data (Table 3.16) about 50 percent of all the child workers are found in the households whose head is illiterate. This is followed by the household's

head whose education level is up to primary and secondary in which case roughly one-fourth of the child labourers are found. It is to be expected that the lowest share of child workers are found among households who are literate and economically well-off.

### 3.7 URBAN RURAL DIVIDE

According to the Government of India 2011 census, there has been a decline in child labourers in India under the age of 14 from an estimated 12.6 million in 2001 which has reduced to an approx 11.72 million. Census data shows that there is a decline in the absolute number as well the percentage of main workers of children. The reduction in the workforce participation rate of children is more pronounced in rural areas than in urban areas, to some extent a reflection of growing and substantial rise in enrolment of children in rural schools. Urban India, however, appears to have reached a stage wherein further reduction in children's work participation is hard to come by owing to higher demand for such menial jobs and also due to sustained inflow of rural children flocking to urban areas in search of employment due to acute distress experienced in rural areas.

**Table 3.17 Estimates of Trends in India's Child Labour by Rural-Urban, NSSO (1993-94 to 2009-10) (in millions)**

Area	Year (Round)	5-9	10-14	5-14
Rural	1993-94 (50th Round)	1.1	10.5	11.6
	1999-00 (55th Round)	0.7	8.1	8.8
	2004-05 (61st Round)	0.2	6.8	7.0
	2009-10 (66th Round)	0.2	4.0	4.2
Urban	1993-94 (50th Round)	0.2	1.5	1.7
	1999-00 (55th Round)	0.07	1.33	1.4
	2004-05 (61st Round)	0.08	1.42	1.5
	2009-10 (66th Round)	0.02	0.68	0.7
Combined	1993-94 (50th Round)	1.3	12.0	13.3
	1999-00 (55th Round)	0.77	9.43	10.2
	2004-05 (61st Round)	0.38	8.22	8.6
	2009-10 (66th Round)	0.11	4.79	4.9

Source: NSSO, Various Rounds, employment and Unemployment Situation in India.

Further Table 3.17 shows the trend of child labour in India by their age group and residential status. According to the NSSO data of 1993-94 (50th Round), 1999-00 (55th Round), 2004-05 (61st Round), and 2009-10 (66th Round), Rural-Urban break up of child workforce also reflects some disquieting concerns.

The data documented in the table reveals that much of the reduction in child workforce has primarily occurred in rural areas during the last two decades. Accordingly, the magnitude of child labour has declined from approximately 11 million in 1993-94 to about 4.2 million in 2009-10. On the other hand, in urban areas a significant proportion of working children has declined (1.7 million to 1.0 million) over the period 1993-94 to 2009-10 but if we observe the table, it has shown a rising tendency from 1999-2000 to 2004-05. Data shows that the number of working children are much higher in rural areas than urban areas specially in the age group of 10-14 but it is also interesting to note that child workforce in the age group 5-9 has recorded sharp decline than in the 10-14 age group in rural areas.

Although the incidence of child labour has declined during 1993-94 to 2009-10 but still a large bulk of children working specially in rural India. Actually most of child labour come from the poor families and the higher incidence of poverty accounted in rural than urban India. Thus, it was not surprising that child workers were concentrated in the rural areas.

Further, the proportion of labour in rural areas in 1993-94 was 6.4 per cent which increased to 7.3 per cent in 2004-05 (Table 3.18). The proportion of non-workers of total labour pool in rural areas is also increased in 2004-05. In rural areas, the total labour pool for the children has increased from 25.9 per cent in 1993-94 to 36.5 per cent in 2004-05. While in urban areas this percentage has declined from 38.3 per cent to 16.9 per cent during the same time period. As a result, the proportion of students in urban areas increased to 83.1 per cent from 61.7 per cent over the period, whereas the proportion of students in rural areas in 1993-94 was 74 per cent which gradually decreased in 2004-05 to 63.5 per cent. One of the reasons for decreasing the percentage of students in rural areas can be a huge seasonal demand of child labour in India. The agrarian households use their children's labour during seasonal shocks, resulting in erratic school attendance. Another important reason can be debt bondage which is commonly found in rural areas where traditional class or caste structure and semi – feudal relationship survive. Landless or near landless households, as well

migrant labourers, are particularly vulnerable to debt bondage because they have no alternative sources of credit so, due to debt their whole family including children work for employer as bonded labour (ILO, 2002). Thus, we can find high incidence of child labour in rural areas as compared to the urban areas.

**Table 3.18 Number and Percentage of Children (5-14 years) by Workers, Non-Workers and Schooling Status by Rural/Urban Residence (NSSO)**

Usual Status	1993-1994		2004-2005	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
	Number (million)			
Labour	11.6	1.7	7.0	1.5
Non-Workers	46.9	7.3	31.0	5.6
Total Labour Pool	58.5	9.0	38.0	7.2
Students	101.6	44.2	152.0	55.1
All (5-14)	160.0	53.2	190.0	62.3
	Percentage			
Labour	6.4	6.1	7.3	3.2
Non-Workers	19.5	32.2	29.3	13.7
Total Labour Pool	25.9	38.3	36.5	16.9
Students	74.1	61.7	63.5	83.1
All (5-14)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSS, 50th and 61st rounds, 1993-94 and 2004-05, Employment and Unemployment (NCEUS Report, 2007).

The recent round of the National Sample Survey (NSSO) estimates that the child labour in the country is around 8.9 million in 2004/2005. As per NSSO publication "Theories and Concepts" workforce participation rate is of 3.4 per cent.

According to NSSO estimates WPR for children in the 5-9 age group is negligible and for children in the age group of 10-14, it still continues to be significant though declining. If we look at the WPR for different age groups among children, the trend is different. The WPR for children in 5 to 9 age group has marginally decreased from 2 percent during 2004-05 to 1 percent during 2009-10. In the case of 10-14 years age group children the decline is Substantial - from 52 percent during 2004-05 to 26 percent during 2009-10.

**Table 3.19 Work Participation of Children as per NSSO (2009-10)**

Distribution of (per 1000) of persons by principal usual activity category in percentage							
Years	Age in Years	Rural		Urban		Total	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2004-05	5-9	2	1	2	1	2	1
	10-14	54	49	44	24	52	43
2009-10	5-9	2	1	0	0	1	1
	10-14	27	21	24	8	26	18

Source: NSSO

This indicates that a substantial number of children in the 10 to 14 age group are in the labour force despite the decline in the proportion of children in the total population. NSSO data is based on a sample survey, this reflects the current economic situation. Decline in child labour has to be seen in the context of general decline in employment growth. The current economic process has rendered many more children vulnerable to labour related exploitation.

**Table 3.20 NSSO Estimate of Child Labour Rural- Urban in Major Indian States, 2004-05 (in thousands)**

States	Rural	Urban	All	% share
A.P	1052	140	1201	13.2
Assam	124	8	133	1.5
Bihar	333	30	364	4.0
Chhattishgarh	225	31	263	2.9
Delhi	0	10	9	0.1
Goa	3	2	6	0.1
Gujrat	220	77	302	3.3
Haryana	83	14	99	1.1
H.P	36	1	37	0.4
Jharkhand	167	38	206	2.3
Karnataka	510	41	571	6.3

Kerala	7	4	11	0.1
M.P	414	68	491	5.4
Maharashtra	664	84	783	8.6
Orissa	413	22	440	4.8
Punjab	23	21	101	1.1
Rajasthan	714	110	821	9.0
Tamil Nadu	95	79	173	1.9
U.P.	1620	459	2074	22.9
Uttaranchal	59	3	64	0.7
West Bengal	488	217	690	7.6
India	7445	1525	9075	100

Source NSSO, 2004-05

There is across the board decline in the incidence of child labour in the Southern and Western Indian States and UTs however, there has been an increasing trend in the Eastern and North Indian States and UTs. As revealed by NSSO (2004-05) data, the share of Uttar Pradesh has dramatically shot up compared to 50th round of NSSO data (1993-94) from less than 13 per cent to close to 23 per cent in 2004-05, which is a cause for serious concern.

### **3.8 SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD LABOUR**

It's a common sight in India to see children engaged in various forms of work ranging from "carrying head loads of grass, firewood, pots of water, grazing cattle from dawn to dusk, spending hours in back-breaking chores of transplanting, weeding, working to cross-pollinate plants and applying pesticides and chemical fertilizers on the farms" (Burra, 2005).

Despite having a stringent legislation against child labour particularly in hazardous industries, children continue to be engaged in significant numbers both in hazardous and non-hazardous sectors. Reflecting the overall trend in the workforce participation most of the child employment is concentrated in agriculture and allied activities. According for over two-thirds of child workers, agriculture is the single largest sector of the concentration of child labour in India.

**Table 3.21: Percentage of Children (5-14 years) by Sector of Employment, 1993-94 and 2004-05 (NSSO)**

Sectors	Percentage of Child Labour	
	1993-94	2004-05
Agriculture	75.8	66.6
Mining	0.6	0.2
Manufacturing	12.7	17.2
Electricity, Gas Water	0.03	0.02
Construction	1.2	2.0
Trade	4.57	6.38
Hotels	1.7	2.5
Transport	0.4	0.7
Real Estate	0.01	0.6
Education	0.01	0.02
Community	1.38	1.7
Household	1.58	1.78
Total	100.00	100.00

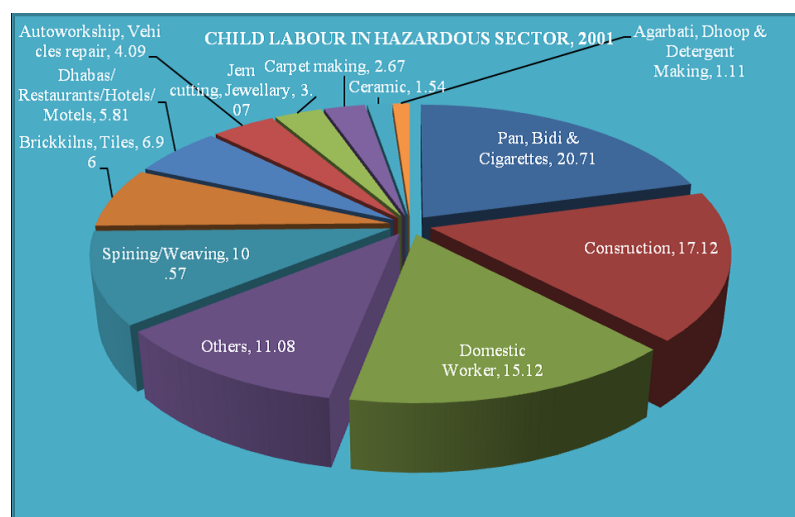
Source: NSS 61st and 50th Rounds, 2004-0, 1993-94, Employment and Unemployment (Table taken from NCEUS Report, 2007).

Table 3.21 shows the percentage of child labour by sector of employment during 1993-94 and 2004-05. Observations are very clear from the table that agriculture sector has the highest incidence of child labour in India and it stands at 66.6 per cent in 2004-05. This is followed by manufacturing wherein 17.2 per cent of total working children are found to be engaged. After observing the table, we can see that the percentage of child labour by sectors in 2004-05 slightly increased from 1993- 94 except in agriculture and mining sector. The percentage of children in agriculture sector was 75.8 per cent in 1993-94 which decreased to 66.6 per cent in 2004-05. In mining sector the percentage of working children has declined from 0.6 to 0-2 per cent during the period. Trade, Hotels, and household also account for a significant share of child workers, with 6.4, 2.5 and 1.3 per cent respectively.

India also has the highest number of children in hazardous work in the world. They are involved in factories manufacturing beedis (cigars), diamonds, fireworks, silk and carpets, stone quarries, gems cutting and polishing, brick kilns, and many more. These

children are denied their fundamental right to childhood, to education, to play and to dream like normal children. In the name of learning the family craft in our caste based occupation system, we are taking away their childhood, happiness, joy, play, affection, independence, emotion and most important is their child rights. In today's seller-buyer mark system these children are now considered as a cheap article of trade.

The nature of occupations that children are engaged in and the conditions in which they are employed is dynamic and changing. For example in 1986 when the law on child labour was drafted, there were no computers and hence there was no question of children being employed in dealing with micro-chips as they are now. In the wake of globalisation and growing consumerism, children find their way into newer occupations every day. Rescue operations carried out in Delhi and Mumbai in 2007-08 have exposed the employment of children in the textile and garments industry, including their employment by sub-contractors and suppliers who work for large export houses and companies India's domestic textile market too takes its toll on children. Children are employed in cotton-seed farming, mining and the diamond industry. Growing informalisation of labour has led to so many new home-based occupations that are emerging, that it is often difficult to keep track. Accompanying this is the invisibilisation of the child workforce and use of children for illegal activities such as drug peddling and liquor vending or transportation.



**Fig 3.8 Child working population in India according to 2001 Census**

Children between 14-17 years engaged in hazardous work account for 62.8% of the India's child labor workforce, 10% of who are hired in family enterprises. Over half of

working adolescents do not study. This number is higher for adolescents doing dangerous work.

**Table3.22 Child workers (5-14 years) engaged in Hazardous Occupations**

S.No.	Occupations	2001
1	Pan, Bidi & Cigarettes	252574
2	Construction	208833
3	Domestic workers	185505
4	Spinning/ weaving	128984
5	Brick-kilns, tiles	84972
6	Dhabas/ Restaurants/ Hotels/ Motels	70934
7	Auto-workshop, vehicle repairs	49893
8	Gem-cutting, Jewellery	37489
9	Carpet-making	32647
10	Ceramic	18894
11	Agarbati, Dhoop & Detergent making	13583
12	Others	135162
	Total	1219470

Source Census2001

It is not surprising that more boys than girls (38.7 million vs. 8.8 million) are forced into doing hazardous work (according to International Labor Organization's World Report on Child Labor 2015).

Whatever trend in the magnitude of child labour is shown in the official data, it is a common sight in India to see children engaged in various forms of work, whether paid or unpaid. Despite having legislation against child labour particularly in hazardous industries, children are continued to be engaged in significant numbers in hazardous and non-hazardous sectors. Reflecting the overall trend in the workforce participation, most of the child employment is concentrated in agriculture and allied activities in India. As revealed by the NSSO data 2004-05, this sector alone account for over two thirds of the child employment. This sector is followed by followed by manufacturing sector which account for 16.55 percent of child employment.

**Table3.23 Sectoral Distribution of Child Labour in Major States 2004-05**

State	Agri.	Mini	Mfg	Elec	Cons.	Trad	Tpt	Fin	Com	Tot
A.P.	68.96	0.96	9.70	0	3.20	9.02	1.05	0	7.11	100
Assam	69.26	1.78	8.42	0	1.78	7.76	0.05	0	10.96	100
Bihar	71.84	0	11.16	0	0	15.4	0.07	0.38	1.05	100
Chhattisgarh	87.9	0	2.37	0	0.86	7.17	0	0	1.7	100
Delhi	0	0	11.08	0	0	57.8	0	0	31.09	100
Goa	0	0	0	0	4.6	0	72.4	0	22.94	100
Gujrat	76.69	1.04	2.58	0	0.28	17.7	0.16	0	1.48	100
H.P.	87.42	0	0	0	0	6.71	1.21	0	4.66	100
Haryana	65.57	0	3.81	0	7.03	8.08	0	0	15.51	100
Jharkhand	65.28	0	14.63	0	4.25	12.0	0.66	0.26	2.84	100
Karnataka	82.6	0.22	9.27	0	1.19	5.73	0.70	0	0.30	100
Kerala	19.22	0	32.78	0	0	31.9	0	0	16.05	100
M.P.	82.89	0	9.93	0	1.5	4.33	0	0	1.34	100
Maharashtra	82.62	0	5.34	0	1.92	5.75	0.13	0.14	4.09	100
Orissa	73.18	0.88	17.36	0	3.25	3.34	0.91	0	1.08	100
Punjab	67.91	0	12.71	0	1.16	7.21	2.59	0	8.43	100
Rajasthan	75.78	0	9.6	0.19	2.94	7.26	0.05	3.74	0.44	100
T.N.	39.49	0	44.55	0	5.91	5.68	1.54	0.16	2.68	100
U.P.	61.24	0	25.34	0	0.40	9.73	0.68	0.5	2.11	100
Uttaranchal	80.73	0	4.72	0	5.24	9.31	0	0	0	100
W.B.	34.57	0	43.93	0	3.27	9.66	1.19	0.8	6.59	100
Total	68.14	0.25	16.55	0.02	1.95	8.45	0.66	0.57	3.41	100

Source NSSO, 2004-05

Across states, the general pattern of sectoral distribution of workforce in the economy is observed in the case of child labour. Except in Tamil Nadu, Kerala and West Bengal where agricultural and allied sectors account for less than 40 percent of the

total child labour force. Among manufacturing sector, Tamil Nadu seems to have employed a higher share of its child workers (44.55 %) closely followed by West Bengal (43.93%). It is noted that during 2004-05, over 87 percent of child labourers are located in farm activities in states like Himachal Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, while this accounted for 82 percent in Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. So far the magnitude and other aspects of child labour in India are analyzed to look at the changes that are taking place over a period of time

Today India has taken various pro-active measures to tackle this problem. However, considering the magnitude and extent of the problem and that it is essentially a socio-economic problem inextricably linked to poverty and illiteracy, Government has declared the right to education as a fundamental right in the constitution to eliminate the root cause of child labour. Census 2011, showed some optimistic signs, the number of child labours decreased by 65% - from 1.26 crore to 82.2 lakh between Census 2001 to and Census 2011.

### **3.9.1 STATE WISE MAGNITUDE OF CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA**

India has seen an entry of the young into the labour markets in spite of the legal provisions and mandatory requirement of universal coverage and retention of all children from the ages of 6-14 years in schools. Distribution of child labour in India is not uniform across different states. We observe a decline in the incidence of child labour in the Southern and Western Indian States and UTs between 2001 and 2011. However, there has been an increasing trend in the Eastern and North Indian States and UTs. There is an increase in the absolute magnitude of child labour between 1991 and 2001 in the states of UP, Bihar, Rajasthan, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.

Among the states, Uttar Pradesh accounts for a larger share of close to one fourth of all child labour in India followed by Andhra Pradesh, while Maharashtra and West Bengal respectively garnered nine and eight percent of India's child employment. If we combine the bifurcated states from MP, UP and Bihar, the increase in the magnitude is much more than what is seen in the divided states. On the other hand it is interesting to see that the state of Andhra Pradesh, that had a dubious distinction of having the largest child labour force in the country, shows reduction in magnitude of child labour and work participation rates.

**Table 3.24 Statewise details of working children (Census)**

Sl. No	Name of State/UT	No. of working children in the age group of 5-14 years	
		Census 2001	Census 2011
1	Andaman & Nicobar Island	1960	999
2	Andhra Pradesh	1363339	404851
3	Arunachal Pradesh	18482	5766
4	Assam	351416	99512
5	Bihar	1117500	451590
6	Chandigarh U.T.	3779	3135
7	Chhattisgarh	364572	63884
8	Dadra & Nagar H.	4274	1054
9	Daman & Diu U.T.	729	774
10	Delhi U.T.	41899	26473
11	Goa	4138	6920
12	Gujarat	485530	250318
13	Haryana	253491	53492
14	Himachal Pradesh	107774	15001
15	Jammu & Kashmir	175630	25528
16	Jharkhand	407200	90996
17	Karnataka	822615	249432
18	Kerala	26156	21757
19	Lakshadweep UT	27	28
20	Madhya Pradesh	1065259	286310
21	Maharashtra	764075	496916
22	Manipur	28836	11805
23	Meghalaya	53940	18839
24	Mizoram	26265	2793
25	Nagaland	45874	11062
26	Odisha	377594	92087
27	Pondicherry U.T.	1904	1421
28	Punjab	177268	90353
29	Rajasthan	1262570	252338
30	Sikkim	16457	2704
31	Tamil Nadu	418801	151437
32	Tripura	21756	4998
33	Uttar Pradesh	1927997	896301
34	Uttarakhand	70183	28098
35	West Bengal	857087	234275
	Total	12666377	4353247

Source Census 2001,2011

According to the census figures of child labour populations, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra are the two best states in terms of absolute decline in child labourers between 2001 and 2011. Despite this, in the states of Goa and Gujarat, however, there has been increasing demand of child labour in the hospitality and tourism industries, reported low level of incidence of child labour.

In order to understand the magnitude of the problem of child labour employed in different parts of our country, State wise details of working children in the age group of 5-14 years as per Census 2001 and Census 2011 are as under The share of Uttar Pradesh has dramatically shot up in the last one decade from less than 13 per cent in the mid-1990s to close to 23 per cent in 2004-05, which is a cause for serious concern. On the other hand, the share of Andhra Pradesh seems to have declined quite considerably during this period as shown in table 3.24.

As far as the percentage of child labour across the states, Uttar Pradesh account for a larger share of about 15 per cent all child workforce in India followed by Andhra Pradesh, with 10.8 per cent. Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar respectively garnered 10, 8.8 and 8 per cent of India's child employment. But in case of Uttar Pradesh, the share of working children has shot up from less than 10 per cent during 1991 to 15.2 percent in 2001, which is a cause for serious concern. Similar increase is also evident in many other states like Punjab, Bihar, Rajasthan, West Bengal etc. Over 53 percent of the child labour in India was accounted for by the five states namely UP, AP, Rajasthan, MP and Bihar during 2001. Karnataka, Maharashtra and West Bengal together had about 20 percent of the child labourers in India during 2001. It is also to be noted here that there is a general increasing trend in the magnitude of child labour in the north east region of the country.

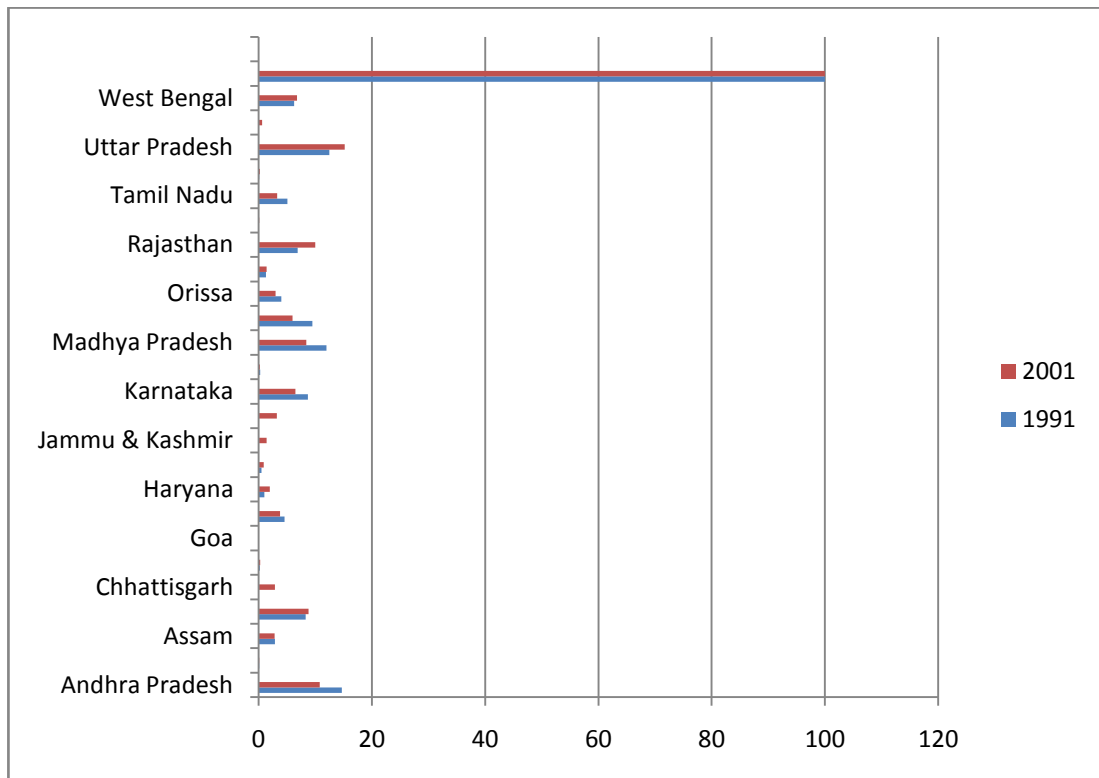
States like Karnataka, Orissa, Assam has also shown a significant fall in per cent of working children. In case of work participation rate Sikkim had the highest WPR in the country with 12.04 percent (child labourers among total children in the age group of 5 to 14); among major states Rajasthan had the highest WPR with 8.25 percent during 2001. Himachal Pradesh closely followed Rajasthan with 8.14 percent. The other states having higher than the national average of 5 percent WPR for children are Andhra Pradesh (7.7 per cent), Chhattisgarh (6.96 per cent), Karnataka (6.91 per cent), Madhya Pradesh (6.71 percent), J&K, Arunachal Pradesh, Jharkhand and Assam .

**Table 3.25 Magnitude of Child Labour and WPR between 1991-2001 (5-14 years)**

States	Child Workers 1991 (In Numbers)	Child Workers 2001 (In Numbers)	Work Participation Rates (%)		Percentage Share of Child Labour in the State	
			1991	2001	1991	2001
Andhra Pradesh	1661940	1363339	9.98	7.7	14.7	10.8
Arunachal Pradesh	12395	18482	5.65	6.06	0.1	0.1
Assam	327598	351416	5.46	5.07	2.9	2.8
Bihar	942245	1117500	3.99	4.68	8.3	8.8
Chhattisgarh	-	364572	-	6.96	-	2.9
Delhi	27351	41899	1.27	1.35	0.2	0.3
Goa	4656	4138	1.95	1.82	0.04	0.03
Gujarat	523585	485530	5.26	4.28	4.6	3.8
Haryana	109691	253491	2.55	4.78	1.0	2.0
Himachal Pradesh	56438	107774	4.55	8.14	0.5	0.9
Jammu & Kashmir	-	175630	-	6.62	-	1.4
Jharkhand	-	407200	-	5.47	-	3.2
Karnataka	976247	822665	8.81	6.91	8.7	6.5
Kerala	34800	26156	0.58	0.47	0.3	0.2
Madhya Pradesh	1352563	1065259	8.08	6.71	12.0	8.4
Maharashtra	1068418	764075	5.73	3.54	9.5	6.0
Orissa	452394	377594	5.87	4.37	4.0	3.0
Punjab	142868	177268	3.04	3.23	1.3	1.4
Rajasthan	774199	1262570	6.46	8.25	6.9	10.0
Sikkim	5598	16457	5.18	12.04	0.05	0.1
Tamil Nadu	578889	418801	4.83	3.61	5.1	3.3
Tripura	16478	21756	2.29	2.79	0.1	0.2
Uttar Pradesh	1410086	1927997	3.81	4.04	12.5	15.2
Uttaranchal	-	70183	-	3.24	-	0.6
West Bengal	711691	857087	4.16	4.5	6.3	6.8
India	11285349	12666377	5.37	5.0	100.0	100

Source: Census of India 1991 and 2001

**Figure 3.9 Percentage Share of Child Labour across States where Magnitude is Significant**



Source: Child Labour (Census 2001)

NSSO data 2004-05 reveals that work participation rates for children in the age group of 5-9 is less than one percent in all the state However the WPR for children in the age group of 10-14 remains higher ranging from less than one percent in Kerala to 12.38 percent in Andhra Pradesh.

WPR of children in the age group of 10-14 is significant in the states of A.P., Chattisgarh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, UP and West Bengal. In these states WPR for children (10-14) is higher than the National average of 6.38 percent. These figures are presented in Table 3.26.

**Table 3.26 Child Workforce Participation Rates in Major Indian States, 2004-05**  
(in per cent)

States	5-9 yrs	10-14 yrs	5-14 yrs	All population
A.P	0.56	12.38	6.61	50.48
Assam	0.19	3.44	1.82	38.55
Bihar	0.08	2.90	1.36	31.15
Chhattisgarh	0.35	8.70	4.58	48.65
Delhi	0	0.49	0.26	33.21
Goa	0	5.35	2.70	35.03
Gujrat	0.14	4.83	2.53	46.79
H.P	0.16	4.97	2.73	52.35
Haryana	0	3.28	1.71	40.11
Jharkhand	0.41	4.78	2.48	40.71
Karnataka	0.20	8.49	4.66	49.32
Kerala	0	0.39	0.20	39.33
M.P	0.14	5.74	2.82	43.30
Maharashtra	0.22	6.27	3.42	46.63
Orissa	0.50	9.18	4.87	43.64
Punjab	0.05	3.16	1.73	41.65
Rajasthan	0.41	9.42	4.86	43.32
T.N.	0	2.83	1.51	48.58
U.P.	0.40	7.73	3.92	36.29
Uttaranchal	0	5.07	2.61	43.90
W.B.	0.32	6.45	3.47	38.04
Total	0.26	6.38	3.33	42.02

Source NSSO, 2004-05

The following table 3.27 represents the Rank-wise Indian States pertaining to Child Labour with combined total of main and marginal workers (3-6 months) in the age group 5-14 years according to Census 2011

**Table 3.27 Rank wise States with Child Labour 2011**

S.No	States	Numbers	Rank
1	Jammu & Kashmir	78405	18
2	Himachal Pradesh	47773	20
3	Punjab	165528	15
4	Chandigarh	4226	31
5	Uttarakhand	55120	19
6	Haryana	99635	17
7	NCT Of Delhi	35322	23
8	Rajasthan	549996	4
9	Uttar Pradesh	1850566	1
10	Bihar	912879	2
11	Sikkim	5934	29
12	Arunachal Pradesh	13550	26
13	Nagaland	29082	24
14	Manipur	26905	25
15	Mizoram	4531	30
16	Tripura	11050	27
17	Meghalaya	35337	22
18	Assam	230336	14
19	West Bengal	461974	6
20	Jharkhand	253717	13
21	Odisha	254081	12

Source Census 2011

### **3.9.2 State Wise Analysis Of Different Scenarios Of Child Labour**

It is pertinent to mention here that 2011 census presented a different picture when compared to the statistics on child labour presented by the previous census reports. From 1971 onwards every census statistics presented a child labour force of more than 10 million or one crore. It is only in census 2011, one can observe that the child labour force has been reported below 5 million. This is a significant outcome of myriad policies and efforts of equal number of Government and Non-Government organizations directed at fighting the menace of child labour, tooth and nail. It is

pertinent to mention here that there is no significant change in census methodology during the period under consideration.

The scenario of child labour in India varies from state to state. In states like Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Bihar and Gujarat, the issue of child labour is an important point of debate for the social watchers as it has assumed unbearable proportions. But the silver lining is that in these states also the phenomenon of child labour is reducing gradually. Below we give the details of states with highest and lowest number of child labour and the ratio of child labour to total population in these states.

**Table 3.28 States with highest and lowest number of child labour and the ratio of child labour to total population( census 1991, 2001, 2011)**

	1991	2001	2011	1991	2001	2011
States / UTs with highest number of child labour			Ratio of Child labour to total population in these states			
Uttar Pradesh	1410086	1927997	896301	1.0	1.2	0.4
Maharashtra	1068427	764075	496916	1.4	0.8	0.4
Bihar	942245	1117500	451590	1.5	1.3	0.4
A P	1661940	1363339	404851	2.5	1.8	0.5
M P	1352563	1065259	286310	2.0	1.8	0.4
States / UTs with lowest number of child labour			Ratio of Child labour to total population in these states			
Lakshadweep	34	27	28	0.1	0.0	0.0
Daman & Diu	941	729	774	0.9	0.5	0.3
Andaman & Nicobar	1265	1960	999	0.5	0.6	0.3
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	4416	4274	1054	3.2	1.9	0.3
Puducherry	2680	1904	1421	0.3	0.2	0.1

Source: Census database of different years.

As per the information presented above, Uttar Pradesh leads the chart having the maximum number of Child labourers in India, followed by Maharashtra and Bihar in that order. In these three states the ratio of child labour to total child labour in the

country is also the highest. The bottom three states in terms of number of child labourers in India are Sikkim, Mizoram and Arunachal Pradesh. It is observed that populous states are having the most number of child labourers and the least populous state have contributed less to the ranks of child labourers.

In terms of the ratio of child labour to total child labour in the country, all the UTs except Delhi fair well. In relative terms Uttar Pradesh alone accounts for 20.6% followed by Maharashtra (11.4%), Bihar (10.4%), Andhra Pradesh (9.3%), Madhya Pradesh (6.6%), Gujarat & Rajasthan (5.8%), Karnataka (5.7%) and West Bengal (5.4%). Over the years there have been changes in the relative share of states in the country's total child labour force. For example, the share of U.P. in the country's total child labour force has gone up from 12.3% as per census 1991 to 15.2% in census 2001 and to 20.6% in census 2011. It is pertinent to mention here that the state is the most populous state in the country. The share of Maharashtra in total child labour force had gone down from 9.3% as per census 1991 to 6.0% in census 2001 before rising again to 11.4% as per census 2011. The state of Bihar has witnessed its share in total child labour force rising from 8.2% in census 1991 to 8.8% as per census 2001 and finally to 10.4% in census 2011.

**Table 3.29 State wise ratio of child labour to total child labour**

Table 2:			
State / UTs	1991	2001	2011
States / UTs with highest concentration of child labour			
Uttar Pradesh	12.27	15.22	20.59
Maharashtra	9.29	6.03	11.41
Bihar	8.20	8.82	10.37
Andhra Pradesh	14.46	10.76	9.30
Madhya Pradesh	11.77	8.41	6.58
States / UTs with lowest concentration of child labour			
Lakshadweep	0.0003	0.0002	0.0006
Daman & Diu	0.01	0.01	0.02
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	0.01	0.02	0.02
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	0.04	0.03	0.02
Puducherry	0.02	0.02	0.03

Source: Census database of different years.

### 3.9.3 Child Labour As A Ratio Of Total Population And Grading Of States

In order to study the gravity of the issue of child labour in different states we have referred to the ratio of child labour in a state to the total population of that state. Using this measure we have also been able to produce a comparative picture. The ratio of child labour to total population has been steadily declining from 1991 when it was 1.37 per cent, an alarming portion by any measure. As per Census 2001, it declined to 1.24 per cent and further to 0.36 per cent in 2011. Even the NSSO (66th round of survey) on child labour in Major Indian States, 2009-10, gives the total number of child labour in the country at 49,83,871 while census 2011 gives the number of child labour in the country at 43,48,249 and thereby providing credibility to the later.

Surprisingly, it is observed that the traditionally well off states such as Maharashtra, Gujarat, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh etc. have not been able to ward off the problem of child labour in a manner that is warranted. On the other hand states like Odisha, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Jammu & Kashmir, Assam, Himachal Pradesh, etc which are also poorer of the poorest states in the country have been able to do better and boast of lower child labour to total population ratios.

**Table 3.30 Gravity of the problem of Child labour**

Sr. No.	Grade	Indicating
1.	A	The state / UT is consistently below the national average of Child labour as a ratio of total population for the last 3 census periods i.e. 1991, 2001, & 2011.
2.	B+	The state / UT is has a child labour to population ratio below the national average as per the latest census i.e. 2011. However, in either of the preceding two census periods or in both the census periods they were above the national average.
3.	B-	The state / UT has a child labour to population ratio above the national average as per the latest census.
4.	C	The state / UT has a child labour to population ratio above the national average for all the reference census periods.

Looking at both the estimates and also taking into account the declining trend in child labour in the country, the data seems to be reliable and consistent in its estimates. In this study we have identified all the states and the union territories of the Indian union

into four categories grading them as A, B+, B- and C categories. The criteria was used by National Multidisciplinary Conference On Child Labour: Issues & Challenges in IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science

Based on the definitions mentioned above grade wise list of states / UTs are given hereunder:

**Table3.31 Grade wise list of states / UT**

Sr. No.	Grade	Total number of states / UT	State	UT
1.	A	12	Haryana, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	A & N Islands, Chandigarh, Daman & Diu, Delhi, Lakshadweep, Pudducherry
2.	B+	8	Assam, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Mizoram, Odisha	Dadra and Nagar Haveli
3.	B-	6	Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Manipur, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh	-----
4.	C	9	Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Rajasthan, Sikkim	-----

In this context we observe that the phenomena of migration of people from less well off states to better off states have accentuated the problem of child labour in the later. The developed states provide better employment opportunities thereby creating the pull factors for the people of states where employment opportunities and so as other opportunities are less. Southern states like Tamil Nadu & Kerala and industrially developed state of Haryana have been able to make good progress and their ratio of child labour to total population in the country has been steadily declining and also has been below the national average for the last three census periods. All the centrally administered union territories have showcased better performance in this regard, having their ratio of child labour to total population decreasing on a continuous basis.

### 3.10 CONCLUSION

Every child deserves to be in school and not in fields and factories. India has seen a dramatic fall in child labour both in absolute numbers and percentage in last two decades 2004-2005 to 2009-10 There has been a marked 45% reduction in child labour due to government schemes like Right to education, MNREGA, Mid day meal which gave children an initiative to come to school. The role of NGOs was also important in bringing about this fall in child labour magnitude in India.

Child labour is prominent in rural India. 805 of working children live in India's villages, where most of them work in agriculture. Some of them also work in household industries and are employed in home based businesses. Children between 14-17 years engaged in hazardous work account for 62.8% of the India's child labour force, 10% of which are hired in family enterprises. Over half of working adolescents do not study. This number is higher for adolescents doing dangerous work. It is not surprising that more boys than girls (38.7 million vs. 8.8 million) are forced into doing hazardous work (according to International Labour Organizations World Report on Child Labour 2015).

In spite of existence of various policies and laws on child labour, it is still a pervasive problem to be tackled. So to accelerate the progress of child labour elimination, joint action is needed at all levels; local, national, regional and international. Moreover, it is important to understand the interconnected causes and consequences of child

labour at all levels. This issue is too complex to be dealt with by a single government ministry or a few organizations and agencies (MFAN, 2009). Thus, Ministries of Finance, Economic Affairs, Education, Labour, Health, Social Welfare, Women and Gender all have to cooperate each other's initiatives to deal with this multifarious problem.

## CHAPTER 4

### STATISTICS OF CHILD LABOUR IN UP

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Child Labour in Uttar Pradesh has become a major impediment for growth and development in the State. It is a major cause for the lack of an environment for growth of children and young persons, thereby seriously endangering the future of children in the State.

Child Labour on one level is quoted as a social issue and there is a need to work with guardians and parents, on another level it needs to be recognised that child labour is more an economic issue. Employers justify child labour as an act of benevolence for a poor child. An effective plan needs to work on both these aspects.

An unskilled worker in Uttar Pradesh (non agriculture) is paid Rs 6735 per month as minimum wages for an 8 hour work day. In addition, he is entitled for payment bonus and overtime at double rates. He is also entitled to a weekly off day. So presuming a two hour overtime per day, this would mean an additional Rs 129 per day or Rs 3225 for 25 days. This means Rs 9960 per month. If he works for all days of the week, this would mean an additional Rs 1024 for 8 hours. Adding bonus etc, he should be paid approximately Rs 12000 per month.

A survey of the Labour Department shows that most children are paid between Rs 1000 to Rs 3000 per month for a work day which ranges between 8 to 16 hours a day. A negligible number reported getting a weekly off day. This shows that an employer saves approximately Rs 8000 to Rs 9000 per child worker per month. An illiterate and ill trained workforce hampers productivity. Child workers will join the large force of ill equipped unskilled labour, endangering their own future and the future of the country. Moreover, underpaid child labour also impacts the labour prospects of adult labour thereby increasing unemployment.

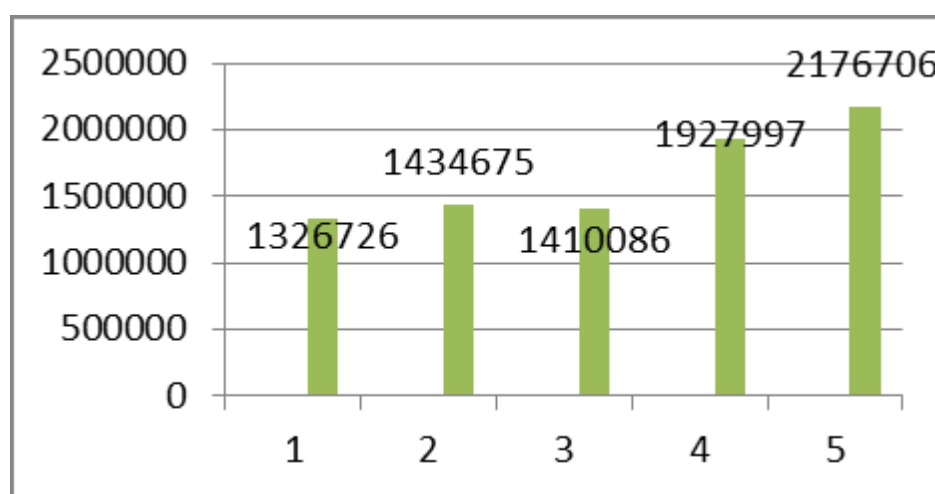
**Table 4.1 Child Labour in Uttar Pradesh in successive Census**

Year	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Uttar Pradesh	1326726	1434675	1410086	1927997	2176706

Source: Census 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001, 2011

Uttar Pradesh has the largest number of Working Children in the India. As per the 2011 census, of the 1,01,28,663 working children below the age of 14 , the share of Uttar Pradesh was 21,76,706. Globally the number of child workers has declined by one third since 2000. In the country, the number of Child Workers has declined by more than 20% from 2001. More than 21% of working children upto the age of 14, in the country are in Uttar Pradesh. 2% of the total working children below the age of 14, in the world are in Uttar Pradesh. This situation calls for urgent action to eradicate child labour from Uttar Pradesh.

**Fig 4.1 Child Labour in Uttar Pradesh in Census (1971 to 2011)**



The National Commission for Protection of Child Rights (NCPCR) has ordered a survey of child labour in five districts of Uttar Pradesh in Varanasi, Bhadohi, Mirzapur, Sonbhadra and Maharajganj, where a large number of children are employed in carpet industry and other labour intensive units. The survey was to include data on the number of children rescued and action taken for their rehabilitation. UP has seen the least reduction in child labour numbers since 2009 (only 7.9%), the practice has been decreasing at an abysmal rate of 2.2% per year from 2001 to 2011 (Child Rights and You).

#### **4.2 COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF UP WITH STATES HAVING HIGH CONCENTRATION OF CHILD LABOUR**

Over half of India's total child labour population works in five states which are Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. India's biggest hub of child labour is Uttar Pradesh and it accounts for almost 20% of India's child labours. According to a Campaign Against Child Labour (CAC) study in 2016, India has

1,26,66,377 child labours, of which UP has 19,27,997 child labours i.e. one out of five child labourers is from Uttar Pradesh.

In the 1971 census it was estimated that there were slightly over 13 lakh (13,26,726) working children in the State of Uttar Pradesh. In the same year, among the States with the maximum number of child workers, there were more than 16 lakh (16,27,492) working children in Andhra Pradesh, around 11 lakhs (11,12,319) in Madhya Pradesh, around 10 lakh (10,59,359) in Bihar and just under 10 lakh (9,88,357) child workers in Maharashtra. There were over one crore child workers in India (1,07,53,985) that year.

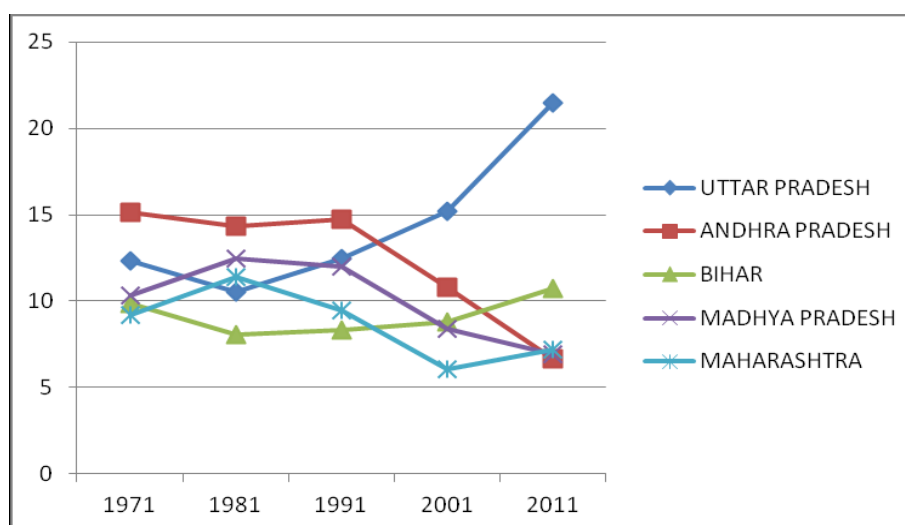
**Table 4.2 State wise ratio of child labour to total child labour**

State / UTs	1991	2001	2011
Uttar Pradesh	12.27	15.22	20.59
Maharashtra	9.29	6.03	11.41
Bihar	8.20	8.82	10.37
Andhra Pradesh	14.46	10.76	9.30
Madhya Pradesh	11.77	8.41	6.58

Source Census 1991, 2001, 2011

Actually, Uttar Pradesh has not always had the largest number of child workers in the country. In the 1981 census, 3 states had more child workers than Uttar Pradesh, in absolute numbers. The percentage of child workers in major States as percentage of total child labour in the country, can be seen in the graph 4.2.

**Fig 4.2 Percentage of Child Workers in Major States**



Source Census 1971- 2011

By the 2011 census, the number of child workers in the country had declined marginally from 1971 levels to 1,01,28,663, but compared to the all time high number of the 1981 census (1,36,40,870) or even the 2001 census (1,26,66,377), it had declined significantly. For the States mentioned above, the number of child workers had declined significantly. In Andhra Pradesh it had come down to less than seven lakhs (6,73,003), in Madhya Pradesh to just over seven lakhs (7,00,239) while for the State of Maharashtra the corresponding figure was just over seven lakhs (7,27,932). In Bihar the figure was almost constant at 10,88,509, but had declined from the 2001 levels.

In Uttar Pradesh, however, the number of child workers had shown an increase in every census, and in 2011, it stood at an all time high, crossing 21 lakhs (21,76,706), with a child worker ratio of 4.27. A look at the 2011 census reveals that of the 21.77 lakh child workers, in the State, 41% are girls and 59% are boys. In Rural Areas, 28% of boys work as cultivators, while 35% work as agricultural labour. In other words 63% work in the agriculture sector. 7% work in household industries and 30% in other sectors. Similarly, 26% of girls work as cultivators, while 32% work as agricultural labour. In other words 58% work in the agriculture sector. 9% work in household industries and 35% in other sectors. In Urban areas only 10% boys work in the agriculture sector, 11% in household industries and 79% in other works. Similarly, 8% girls in urban areas work in the agriculture sector, 14% in household industries and 78% in other works.

It is pertinent to mention here that there is no significant change in census methodology during the period under consideration. As per the information presented above, Uttar Pradesh leads the chart having the maximum number of Child labourers in India, followed by Maharashtra and Bihar in that order. In these three states the ratio of child labour to total child labour in the country is also the highest.

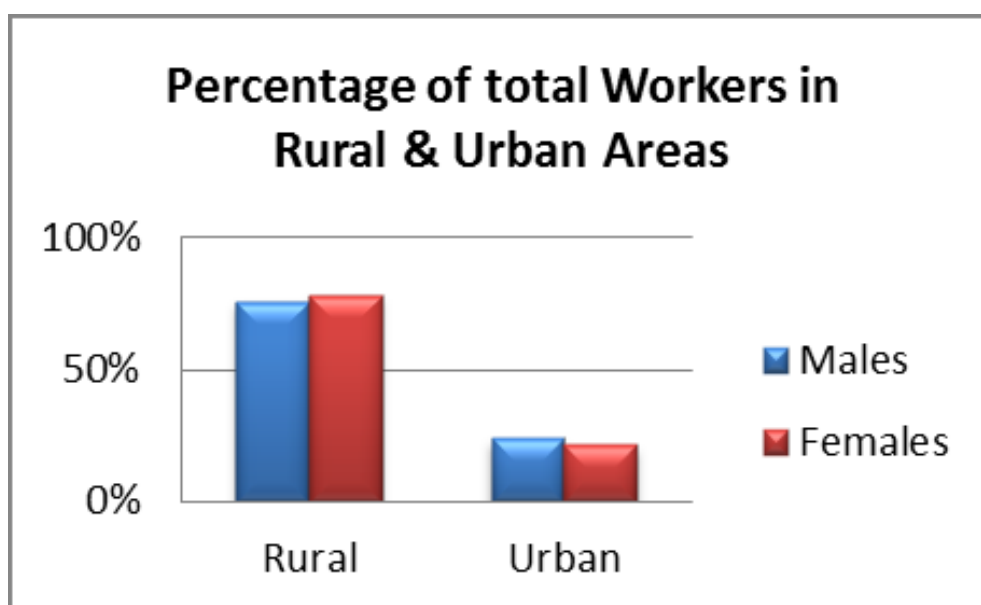
In relative terms Uttar Pradesh alone accounts for 20.6% followed by Maharashtra (11.4%), Bihar (10.4%), Andhra Pradesh (9.3%), Madhya Pradesh (6.6%), Gujarat & Rajasthan (5.8%), Karnataka (5.7%) and West Bengal (5.4%). Over the years there have been changes in the relative share of states in the country's total child labour force. For example, the share of U.P. in the country's total child labour force has gone up from 12.3% as per census 1991 to 15.2% in census 2001 and to 20.6% in census 2011. It is pertinent to mention here that the state is the most populous state in the

country. The share of Maharashtra in total child labour force had gone down from 9.3% as per census 1991 to 6.0% in census 2001 before rising again to 11.4% as per census 2011. The state of Bihar has witnessed its share in total child labour force rising from 8.2% in census 1991 to 8.8% as per census 2001 and finally to 10.4% in census 2011.

#### 4.3 TRENDS IN CHILD LABOUR IN UTTAR PRADESH

State statistics and evidence collected from various sources clearly indicates that child labour has a high prevalence in Uttar Pradesh and needs to be tackled with a renewed effort.

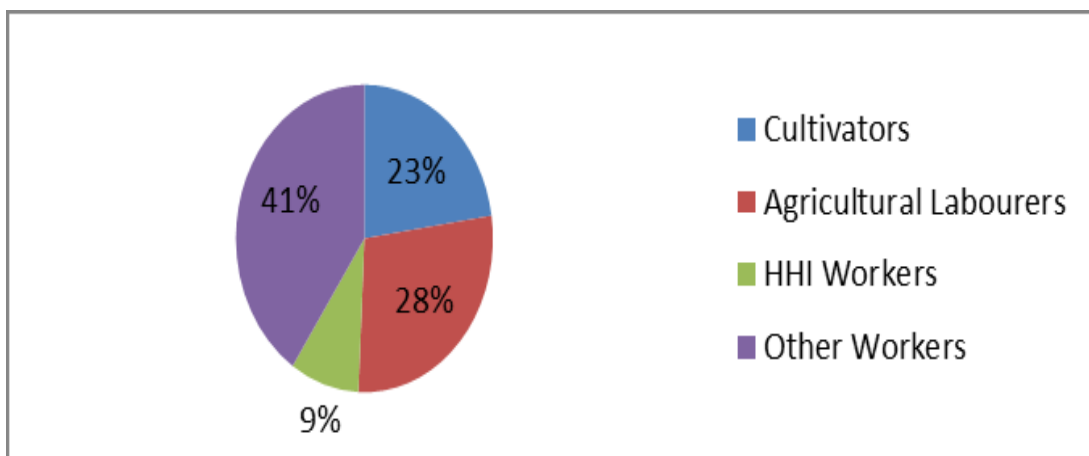
**Fig 4.3 Proportion of child Labour by gender**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

There are more than 21 lakh workers in the 5- 14 age group in Uttar Pradesh. In case we add the 3,63,669 Marginal workers available/ seeking work, the number of workers is 25,40,375. This number has increased steadily from the 1971 census and is currently at an all time high. Of these 21,76,706 child workers, 23% reside in Urban Areas and 77% are in Rural Areas. The data also tells us that boys are more vulnerable than girls, in terms of child labour. 66% of workers in the 5- 14 age group are boys while 34% are girls. It needs to be kept in mind, however, that the reason for this could be that domestic work is not counted as labour.

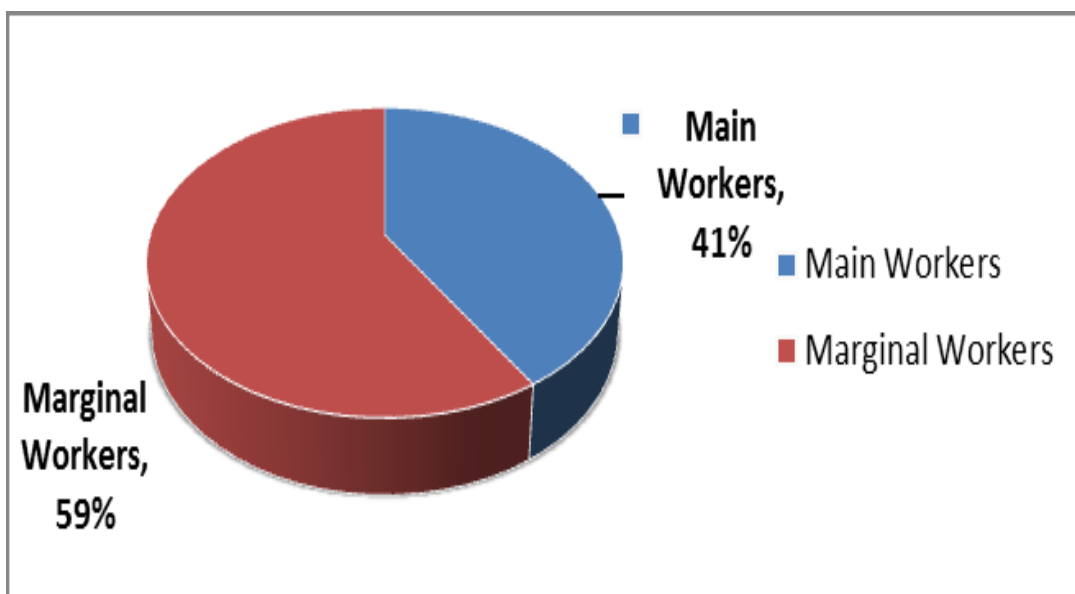
**Fig 4.4 Child labour by employment category**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

By employment category, 23% of child workers are cultivator, 28% are agricultural labourers, 9% work in House Hold Industries , while 41% work in other categories. If we look at Workers by category, we see that 41% of workers are main workers, that is they work for more than 6 months of the year. 59% are marginal workers, that is they worked for less than 6 months of the year.

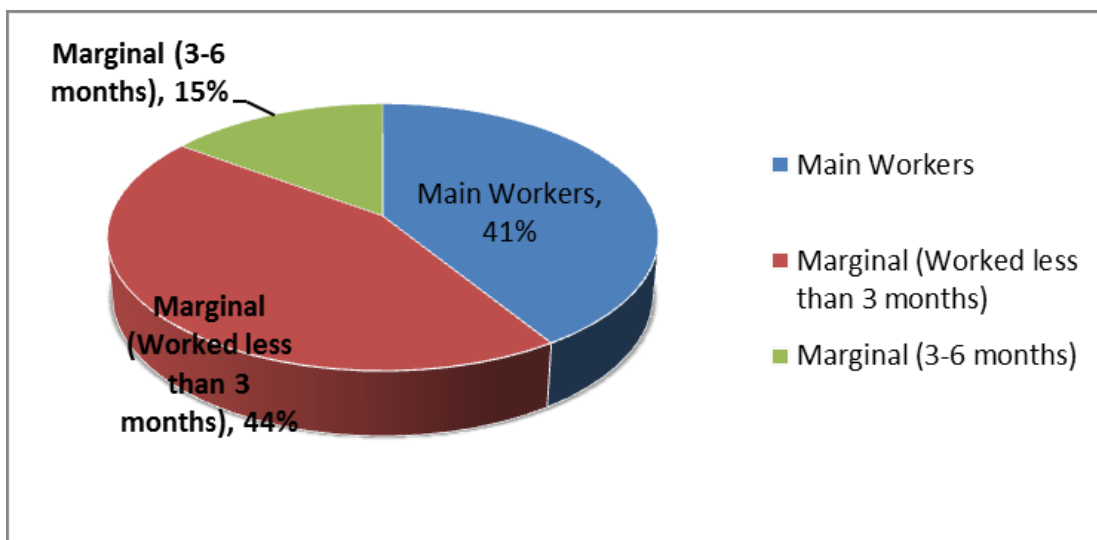
**Fig 4.5 Child workers by worker category**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

If we break up the marginal workers into those who worked for 3-6 months and those who worked for less that 3 months, then 15% children worked for 3-6 months and 44% worked for less than 3 months.

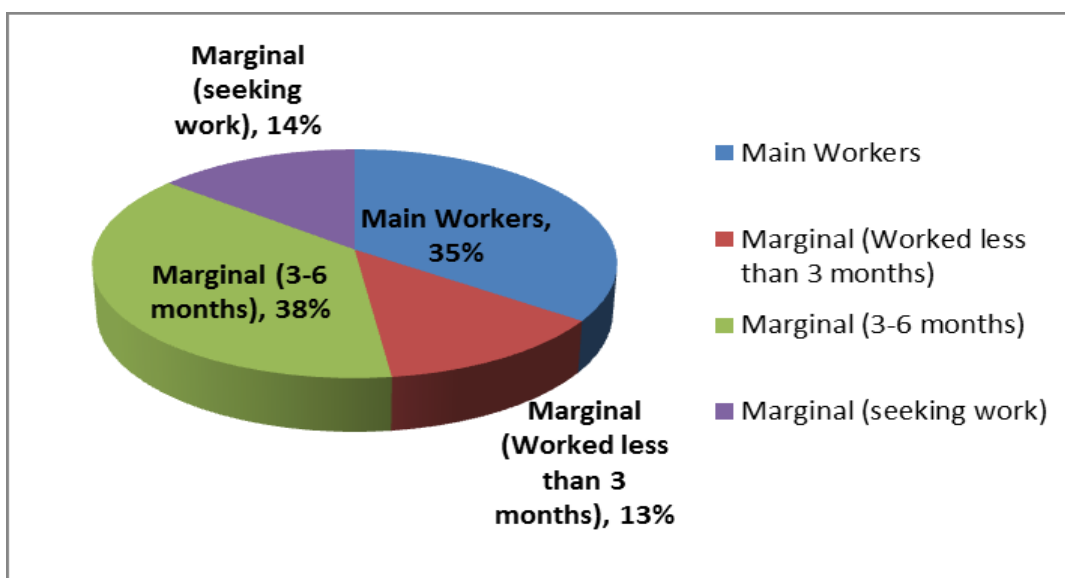
**Fig 4.6 Proportion of Marginal child workers with Main workers**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

Marginal workers who worked for 3-6 months constitute 13% of total workers, while those who worked for less than 3 months were 38%. 14% of children were seeking/available for work, and are likely to join the work force. If we add marginal workers looking for work, the situation is as follows:

**Fig 4.7 All Main and Marginal child workers of UP**

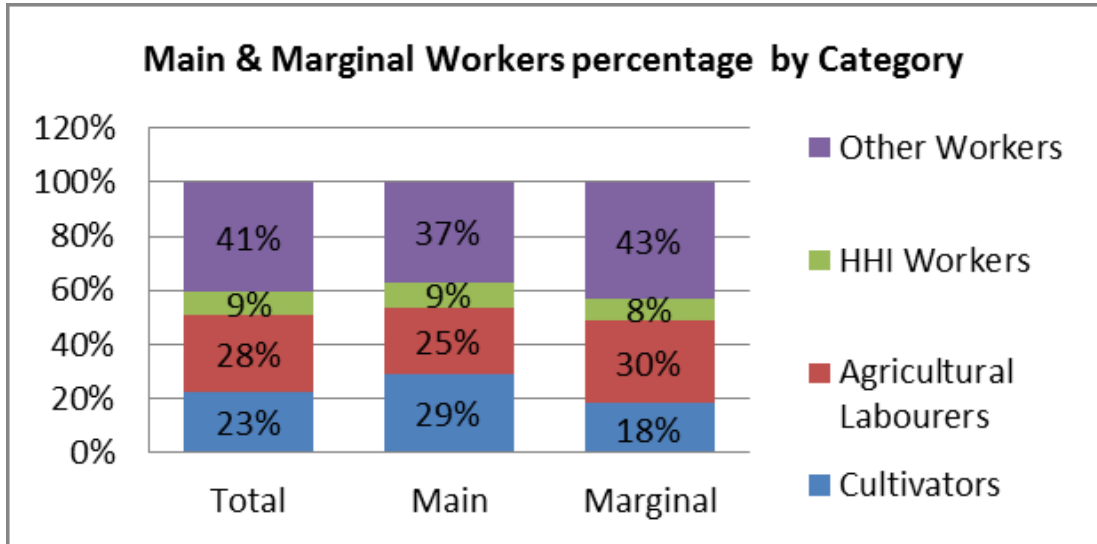


Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

It emerges from this table that “other workers” are largest in numbers, in both main and marginal categories, but are significantly more for marginal workers. If we look at

both Main and Marginal Workers by Employment Category, the situation that emerges is as follows.

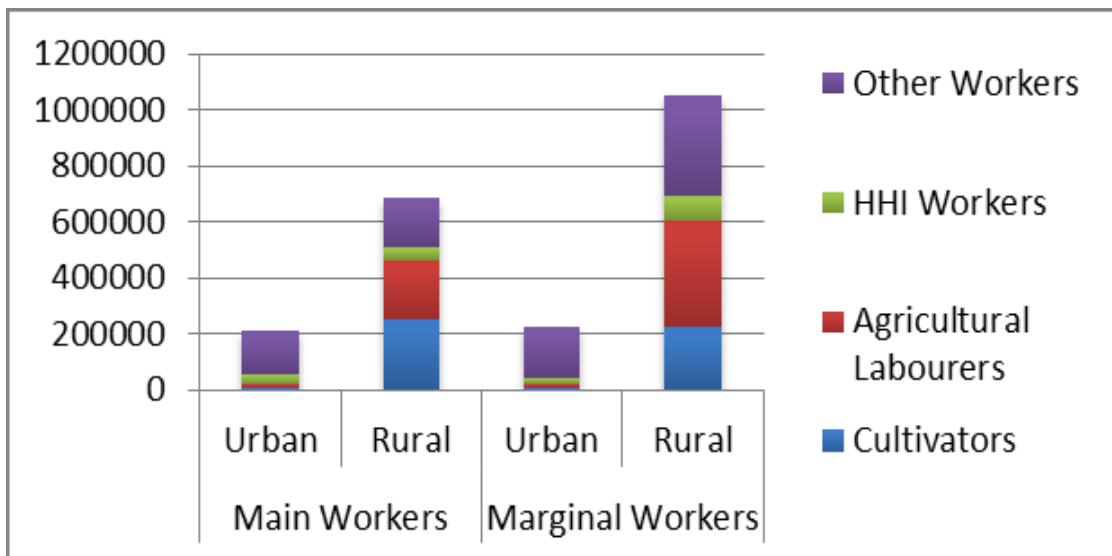
**Fig 4.8 Percentage of child worker by category**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

Cultivators, who form 29% of main workers are only 18% of marginal workers, and the proportion of Agricultural labourers are significantly higher in marginal workers. One reason for this could be the seasonality of agriculture. If we further examine this by both Employment Category & residence what emerges is as follows:

**Fig 4.9 Urban Rural , Main Marginal worker by Employment Category**



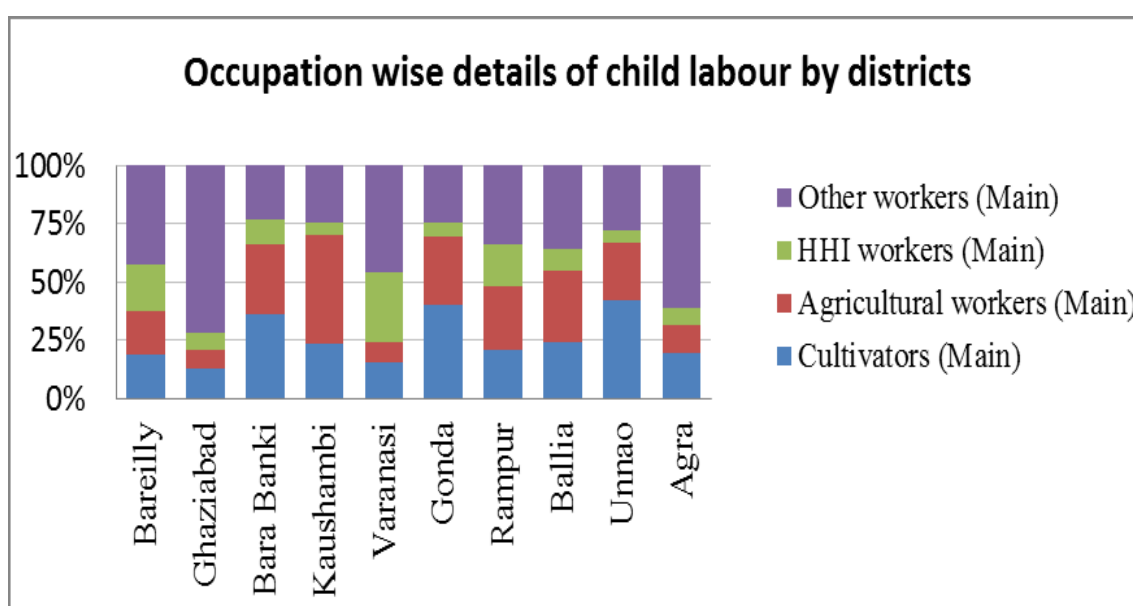
Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

As expected the proportion of both cultivators and agricultural labourers is negligible in Urban Areas. The graphs give us an idea of the incidence and nature of Child Labour in Uttar Pradesh. The map below shows the prevalence of Child Labour (Main Workers) across districts of the Uttar Pradesh. It is clear from the map that the incidence of Child Labour (as a percentage of total labour) varies considerably across the State.

As can be seen from the map below, the districts of Bareilly, Ghaziabad, Bara Banki, Kaushambi, Varanasi, Gonda, Rampur, Ballia, Unnao and Agra show the highest level of Child Labour, districts reporting lowest level of child labour are Auraiya, Deoria, Bhadohi, Banda, Chitrakoot, Etawah, Lalitpur, Chandauli and Sant Kabir Nagar. The low prevalence districts are falling in Bundelkhand and eastern part of the state.

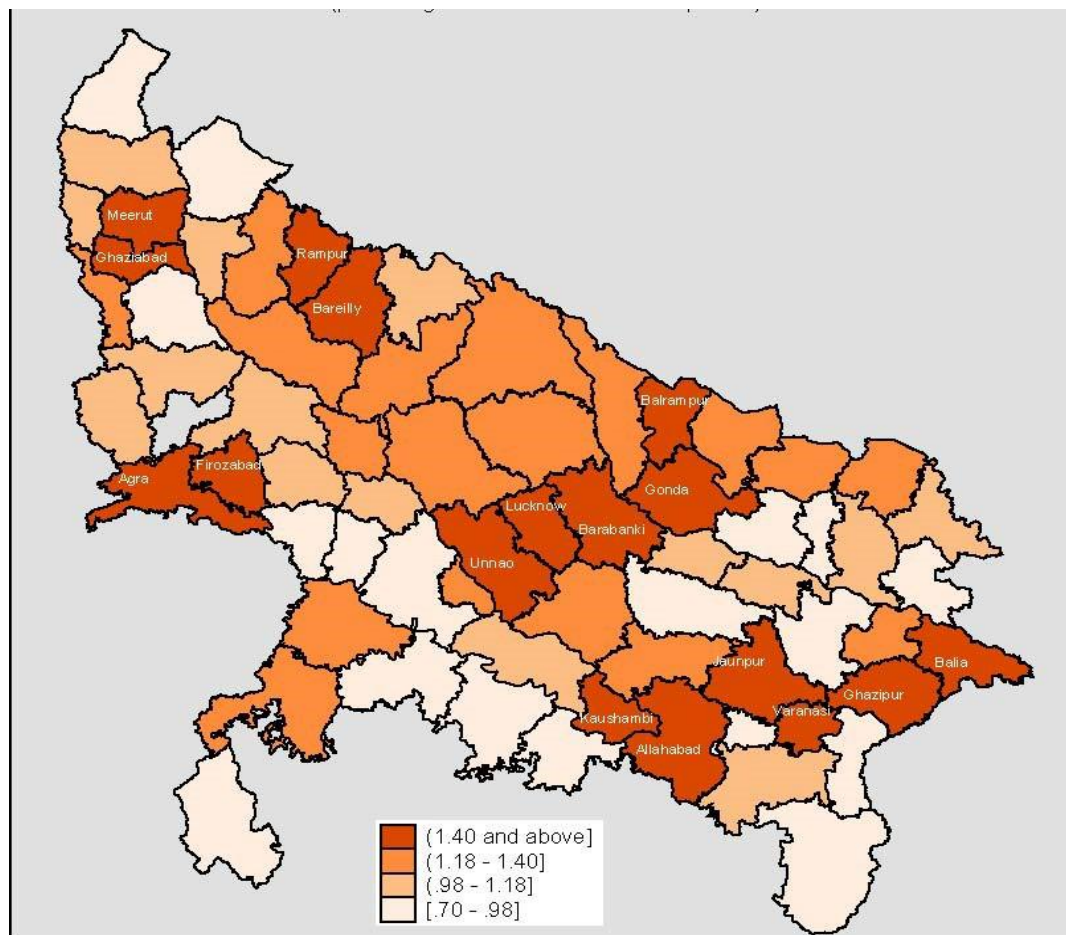
The proportion of working children by place of residence as well as by employment category also varies across each district and in each village and ward. This can be seen in the chart below, which shows the occupation wise details of main child workers in the ten districts with the largest number of Main Workers. However there are district wise variations in the occupational pattern. Kaushambhi has high proportion of agriculture child labour, Varanasi has larger number of house hold industries workers, Ghaziabad and Agra have higher percentage of ‘other’ workers.

**Fig 4.10**



Source : UP State action plan for child labour 2016

**Fig 4.11 Concentration of child labour in the districts of Uttar Pradesh**



Source UP State Action Plan for Child Labour 2016

#### **4.4 SOCIO ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF CHILDREN( SOME FIELD LEVEL OBSERVATIONS)**

Given the alarming increase in the number of child labourers in the State, it was felt that it was important to capture, at the micro level, the reasons underlying this increase and to devise an effective strategy to combat the same.

##### **Family Details**

During the interaction with the children or their families it was found that there were adult family members, that is father, mother or elder sibling who were capable of earning. Hence, child's earning added to the family's earning he/she was not the sole bread earner.

### **Availability of agricultural land**

Most of the families interviewed were landless. Those who had some land pointed out that after generational sub division, their share of plots were very tiny and did not yield any worthwhile income.

### **Residential areas**

Families of most of the children surveyed were residing in kuccha houses or in jhopras. There was scarcity of water, basic sanitation facilities but there were evidences of mobile phones, gas stoves, hens etc. in some of these houses.

### **Educational Status**

Some of children surveyed reported being enrolled in schools, or attending schools or Madaras before going off for work. But almost none of them could read or write. Talking to the villagers, it was clear that they knew that children were too young to work and should go to schools. Despite this almost no child was attending school and most have been sent out for work with the consent of their parents. Adult literacy especially female literacy was very low.

### **Poverty**

One of the major factors for persistence of child labour as most households studied were below poverty line (BPL). As despite parents agreeing that children were young for work, their income was required for sustenance of the family.

### **Income Inequality**

Greater the inequality in distribution of income (measured by Gini coefficient) higher is the incidence of child labour as expenditure at household level reflects the prevailing situation.

### **Employment Opportunity**

Families and other villagers were unanimous on the lack of employment opportunities in the area covered by the study. The landholdings were small, there were very few industries in the area. There was also a lack of any special skills or training facilities. Most of the family members had no skills and could only find work as unskilled labour. Most parents did not report any regular profession or earning, though they said that the father did seasonal work.

## **4.5 EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN AND CONDITIONS OF WORK**

### **4.5.1 Economic Utility of Children**

The children and family members were asked to estimate number of hours per day they had worked during the previous busy season. The children under 14 years worked between 6-8 hours in a day. Children between 15-17 years worked for 8-10 hours in a day. By age 17 years nearly all sons helped out full-fledged in terms of workdays contributed and with all kinds of activities performed.

Another approach to determining the economic utility of children was to question adult family members about the contributions their children made to the household economy. It was found that almost half the number of all sons and resident daughters below 14 years provided no economic benefits to their families. However, the percentage of sons giving no help declined rapidly after the age of 12.

Around age 17, boys increasingly participated in the family's earnings and by age 18 resident sons were expected to be full-time workers. The length of economic participation of rural girls increased earlier than that of boys but the activities compared are not equivalent. Girl's work included household chores which are not generally considered gainful activities.

Most parents did not report any regular profession or earning, though they said that the father did seasonal work. It was common profession in many areas that the male members migrated to Delhi / Mumbai either full time or seasonally. They were often accompanied by a young son who helped them at sporadic work. Once the male child reached the age of around 16, they were sent out for work and the adult member would stop going out permanently for work, although some still went out for seasonal work.

### **4.5.2 Conditions of work**

#### **Areas of employment of children**

The pattern of employment of the children were that the children surveyed were found to be working in the manufacturing industries, hotel/ dhabas, garment sector and in other sectors.

### **Pay and Wages received by child labourers**

The study showed that none of the children were receiving anything close to prescribed minimum wages for adults in these occupations. Efforts were made to understand who received the payment on behalf of the children for transferring to the families of the children. It was found that the wages of Child Labour will normally be deposited in the account of some agent of the employer, residing near the families, who would give the money to the parents.

### **Provisions made for stay of child workers**

Almost all children said that they would stay at the workplace. At the factories, they would stay in the same rooms in the factory premises where they worked. Similarly, children working in hotels/ dhabas said that they slept anywhere on the premises. It was clear that employers did not have to spend any money on the accommodation or transport of the children, and that they were available for work at their beck and call at any time. Some children reported that they stayed in villages near the premises.

### **Arrangements for Food**

Children working in factories reported that food was prepared for them on the factory premises, while those working at dhabas and hotels said that they ate food prepared at the hotel/ dhabas.

### **Holidays**

Many children working in the factories reported receiving a weekly holiday, but also said that in case there was extra work, they would have to forsake their weekly holiday. Children working in hotels and dhabas reported that they received no holidays and had to work on all days of the week.

### **Physical and Mental exploitation**

Most children admitted that they were scolded or even beaten if they committed any mistakes thus, leading to physical and mental oppression.

## **4.6 ANALYSIS OF POPULATION CENSUS AND CHILD LABOUR IN UTTAR PRADESH**

An analysis of literacy rates of 71 districts of Uttar Pradesh with its population and child labour as a percentage of population is enumerated in table 4.3. Although there

has been a rise in literacy levels in the state, the incidence of child labour seems to be high among the districts where the literacy rate is low.

As revealed by Census 2011 data that the lowest share of child workers are found in districts where the literacy is high, the population is low and economically well-off. There exists an inverse relation between literacy rates and child workers. Educating the youth seems to be the only viable solution to eradicating child labour. As provision of compulsory education is the state's main method of controlling child labour hence schooling must be made affordable and relevant to the child's circumstances, and should provide practical skills and knowledge if it is to be seen as worthwhile investment by the child's family.

**Table 4.3 Literacy rate and Child labour in districts of UP**

S.No	District in UP	Literacy%	Total Child Worker	Main Worker		Marginal
				Literate	Illiterate	
1	Agra	71.58	<b>54,869</b>	14030	9200	31,639
2	Aligarh	67.52	<b>34,911</b>	8231	6831	19,849
3	Allahabad	72.32	<b>87,237</b>	19673	10768	56,796
4	Ambedkar Nagar	72.23	<b>25,366</b>	6336	2496	16,534
5	Auraiya	78.95	<b>7,554</b>	2373	940	4,241
6	Azamgarh	70.93	<b>45,245</b>	11632	5011	28,602
7	Baghpat	72.01	<b>9,252</b>	3416	1758	4,078
8	Bahraich	49.36		8320	9210	NA
9	Ballia	70.94	<b>50,749</b>	12156	5864	32,729
10	Balrampur	49.51	<b>30,641</b>	5391	5952	19,298
11	Banda	66.67	<b>14,288</b>	3200	1644	9,444
12	Barabanki	61.75	<b>48,258</b>	21,986		26,272
13	Bareilly	58.49	<b>68,017</b>	18280	15593	34,144
14	Basti	67.22	<b>22,842</b>	5578	2757	14,507
15	Bijnor	68.48	<b>24,169</b>	8115	3916	12,138
16	Budaun	51.29	<b>39,822</b>	10038	9517	20,267
17	Bulandshahar	68.88	<b>26,972</b>	11,703		15,269

18	Chandauli	71.48	19,117	4009	2357	12,751
19	Chitrakoot	65.05	<b>7,840</b>	2209	987	4,644
20	Deoria	71.13	<b>27,365</b>	5357	2602	19,406
21	Etah	70.81	<b>17,945</b>	5009	2658	10,278
22	Etawah	78.41	<b>12,050</b>	2966	1467	7,617
23	Faizabad	68.73	<b>27,825</b>	6316	3250	18,259
24	Farrukhabad	69.04	<b>18,278</b>	5269	3402	9,607
25	Fatehpur	67.43	<b>32,938</b>	7011	3477	22,450
26	Firozabad	71.92	<b>27,688</b>	7769	5161	14,758
27	GautamBuddhaNagar	80.12	<b>16,667</b>	4813	2160	9,694
28	Ghaziabad	78.07	<b>56,388</b>	19530	9791	27,067
29	Ghazipur	71.78	<b>47,897</b>	12630	6068	29,199
30	Gonda	58.71	<b>55,984</b>	12625	9128	34,231
31	Gorakhpur	70.83	<b>49,787</b>	11884	5724	32,179
32	Hamirpur	68.77	<b>7,968</b>	2279	1092	4,597
33	Hardoi	64.57	<b>42,872</b>	12713	6888	23,271
34	Jalaun	73.75	<b>13,340</b>	4675	2162	6,503
35	Jaunpur	71.55	<b>60,291</b>	16442	6996	36,853
36	Jhansi	75.05	<b>18,890</b>	5824	2276	10,790
37	Kannauj	72.70	<b>10,961</b>	3880	2251	4,830
38	Kanpur Nagar	79.65	<b>36,598</b>	10946	5224	20,428
39	Kaushambi	61.28	<b>27,003</b>	6438	4929	15,636
40	Kheri	60.56	<b>45,236</b>	12216	8956	24,064
41	Kushinagar	65.25	<b>47,681</b>	8834	4919	33,928
42	Lalitpur	63.52	<b>9,866</b>	2799	1280	5,787
43	Lucknow	77.29	<b>49,423</b>	11812	6857	30,754
44	Maharajganj	62.76	<b>39,212</b>	7915	4069	27,228
45	Mahoba	65.27	<b>7,163</b>	2061	1039	4,063
46	Mainpuri	75.99	<b>17,791</b>	4635	2118	11,038
47	Mathura	70.36	<b>19,803</b>	6696	3672	8,196
48	Mau	73.09	<b>24,723</b>	6751	2894	15,078
49	Meerut	72.84	<b>31,792</b>	10643	5783	15,366

50	Mirzapur	68.48	<b>25,957</b>	6922	3593	15,442
51	Moradabad	56.77	<b>47,8 51</b>	11596	11611	24,644
52	Muzaffarnagar	69.12	<b>30,258</b>	10643	5795	13,820
53	Pilibhit	61.47		4505	2757	NA
54	Pratapgarh	70.09	<b>4 4,950</b>	10605	4536	29,809
55	Rae Bareli	67.25	<b>26,387</b>	9670	4499	16,311
56	Rampur	53.34	<b>30998</b>		14416	16582
57	Saharanpur	70.49	<b>19,8 03</b>	7677	3930	8,196
58	SantKabir Nagar	66.72	<b>17,736</b>	3898	2043	11,795
59	Shahjahanpur	59.54	<b>26,516</b>	8010	6180	12,326
60	Shrawasti	46.74	<b>18 ,623</b>	3342	3254	12,027
61	Siddharth Nagar	59.25	<b>37,880</b>	7539	4855	25,486
62	Sitapur	61.12	<b>48,583</b>	13891	8747	25,945
63	Sonbhadra	64.03	<b>22,462</b>	4153	2559	15,750
64	Sultanpur	69.27	<b>40019</b>		13260	26759
65	Unnao	66.37	<b>36708</b>		15,661	21,047
66	Varanasi	75.60	<b>40,251</b>	13013	7700	19,538

Source: Census 2011, Uttar Pradesh State Action Plan 2016

#### 4.6 CONCLUSION

Uttar Pradesh has the highest number of child labour cases in the age group of 10-14 years, according to a report published in The Times of India. The report also states that UP is third in terms of the worst record for children between 10-18 years of age. It is worth noting that Uttar Pradesh is the only State where the number of Child Workers has risen consistently. Rest all other states have shown a decline in the number of child workers from 1971-2011. This clearly calls for concerted action.

The data collected from field survey shows that child worker population has shown a decline in rural areas more than urban areas. Also, contribution of boys in terms of production activities is higher as compared to girls who are primarily involved in household chores. Socio economic background and the age of children are important factors in deciding economic utility of children in UP.

## CHAPTER 5

### INDIA'S SKILLING MANDATE: A WAY FORWARD

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Skill development is central to improving productivity and is an important source of growth and improved living standards. Effective skill development systems which connect education to technical training, technical training to labour market entry and labour market entry to workplace and lifelong learning can help India sustain productivity growth and eventually translate that growth into more and better jobs to alleviate poverty to reduce child labour. The critical role of skills to improve productivity, incomes and equitable access to employment opportunities seems particularly obvious and straight forward. Certainly, pronouncements abound on the fundamental importance of skills and capacity building of both children and their family members in the development process especially in the fight against poverty. Knowledge, skill and competencies of all men, women and children have become the corner stone of personal growth and employability, enterprise competitiveness and society's economic and social sustainability.

Child labour cannot be totally eradicated by legislation alone, unless supplemented by socio-economic and educational upliftment of the underprivileged section of the society. It was seen most prevalent (80%) among 11-13 year age group. It increases with decreasing parental socio-economic status. A little less than half (46.7%) of the child labourers had to work for more than 6 hours a day. Average duration of work is 6.1 days per week. There is a need to protect girl child, advocate reduction in family size and promote parental education/economic empowerment in order to reduce the urge on children to perform economic roles.

According to Article 21-A "The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age six to fourteen years in such a way as the state may, by law, determine" ([www.constitution.org/cons/india](http://www.constitution.org/cons/india)) but still a large number of children in this age group remain out of school or involved in economic activities. The economic value of education in the process of economic development is broadly assessed by the resources involved in the formation of human capital and the corresponding increments in productivity of labour force. Vocational education acts as the catalyst

for human resource development. Education infrastructure is one of the most crucial factors for rapid economic growth and improved quality of life.

## **5.2 BEYOND THE VISIBLE**

It is universally accepted that education is a basic right of every child (UNCRC, 1989) and he/she should have access to it. In this rights framework, children who are not found attending the school – whether they are idle, reported as working or working but not reported as working – are all deprived of their right to education. But in case of India an undesirable number of children are either working or are nowhere children. Out of total children 3.7 per cent are working only, 64.3 per cent are studying only while 1.3 percent are those who are studying and working both whereas 30.7 percent are nowhere children (neither studying nor working). It is clear that the percentage of children who are studying only is high than rest of the children with different status. Moreover a very few working children (1.3 per cent) get chance to continue their studies with work. Further, boys outnumber the girls, whether they are school going or working, whereas in case of nowhere children girls outnumber the boys. Girl children are engaged in non-remunerative household chores.

Every child should be in school because in the long run these out-of-school children miss the opportunity of benefiting from schooling. Thus in India, a significant proportion of children are denied of their right to education. Actually, scarcity and adequacy of teachers, inferior teaching facilities and inaccessible schools reinforce many parents' belief that education is worthless endeavour and that their children are better off learning skills at work, helping with domestic chores, or being idle rather than attending school (The Probe Team, 1999). Thus, all these factors make returns from education very low and make it unattractive for household to send their children to schools.

Undoubtedly, government of India spend huge amount on education and in social sector for the welfare of masses in general and children in particular. However, these expenditures may have a significant impact on the incidence of child labour. This can be observed from the table 5.1. This table depicts the state wise scenario of incidence of child labour, social sector expenditure and government expenditures on education and training.

**Table 5.1: Relationship between Total State Budgeted Expenditures in Social Sector and on Education and Incidence of Child Labour (Year 2004-05)**

States	% of Working Children	Social Sector Expenditures (%)	Expenditures on Education & Training (%)
Andhra Pradesh	39.2	29.3	13.94
Arunachal Pradesh	16.8	31.2	14.70
Assam	9.8	32.4	25.65
Bihar	9.2	30.5	19.09
Delhi	1.1	33.1	27.46
Goa	17.7	31.4	18.27
Gujarat	14.8	29.0	18.73
Haryana	4.9	24.2	16.61
Himanchal Pradesh	5.1	29.0	19.08
Jammu & Kashmir	22.0	27.9	9.5
Karnataka	23.5	28.5	19.11
Kerala	1.2	36.2	23.04
Madhya Pradesh	15.9	24.7	19.44
Maharashtra	16.3	28.1	22.61
Orissa	21.8	28.9	17.70
Punjab	7.3	17.8	13.59
Rajasthan	28.5	34.1	20.72
Sikkim	17.1	22.2	9.78
Tamil Nadu	10.8	32.6	18.89
Tripura	12.2	37.6	22.46
Uttar Pradesh	20.8	28.6	18.64
West Bengal	23.2	29.1	18.42
<b>India</b>	<b>17.7</b>	<b>29.7</b>	<b>18.99</b>
<b>R2</b>		<b>-0.043</b>	<b>-0.410*</b>
<b>N</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>23</b>

Sources: 1. Incidence of child labour from NSSO 61st Round, Employment and Unemployment Situation, 2004-05

2. Social Sector Expenditures From RBI Report on State Finances 2004-05.

3. Report of Human Resource Development (Department of Higher Education Planning Monitoring Unit, Government of India, 2007

Note: \*significant at 5 per cent level of significance

It has been observed that there is a negative relationship between government expenditure in social sector and on education and the incidence of child labour. It may be noted that although the relationship between incidence of child labour and government expenditure in social sector is not statistically significant but it is significantly and negatively correlated with expenditure on education. In this sense, only public expenditures in social sector are not enough, government must give emphasis on education which can be the key component to reducing the problem of child labour.

The role of human capital in determining labour productivity and earnings has been analysed in context of the child labour and it was found that children with primary and secondary education are more productive than the illiterates and suggested that providing on the job training would be useful strategies to enhance the productivity of the unorganised sector. Both technical and general education does have positive influence on per capita income, the former being more powerful. Countries with higher levels of knowledge and skill respond more effectively and promptly to challenges of child labour and opportunities of globalisation.

A major development in legislation on children has been the passing of the Right to Education (RTE) Act that came into force from 1st April 2010 and subsequently ratified by the state governments between 2010 and 2011. The RTE Act makes free and compulsory education for all children aged 6-14 a right under Article 21A of the Indian Constitution. However, there is a contradiction as it merely encourages drop outs, and inadvertently pushes children into the lower rungs of the labour market.

Strengthening the system of education to make it more attractive to poor children, coupled with a system of mandatory attendance enforced by local pressure groups could be a effective way of controlling the influx of children into the labour force. This would mean improving the quality of teachers, books, curricula and recreational facilities all of which require a substantial increase in the resources committed to education. Private initiative could be mobilised to play a role here. Midday meals, uniforms, books, blackboards, teaching aids, even land and building, could be

provided by private institutions. Another area where improvement could yield immediate results is rationalising the admission procedures and thereby making it more accessible. Presently, the documentation processes prevent several parents from approaching the system. The second suggestion is that non- governmental organisations can play a bigger role in not just providing literacy and non- formal education but also assist in identifying and monitoring units where child labour is used. This would strengthen the hands of the law enforcing machinery and probably be more effective in bringing the offenders to book. Last but not the least, is the reform in the education system that needs a complete metamorphosis from a degree based rote learning concept to a skill based vocational education process to ensure human resource development.

### **5.3 NEW DIRECTIONS AND TRENDS**

The existing body of research clearly demonstrates that poverty is directly correlated with the human capabilities. Self evidently, therefore, there is enormous need to upgrade the knowledge and skills of the economically vulnerable and socially excluded (EVSE). India is in transition to a knowledge based economy and its competitive edge will be determined by the abilities of its people to create share and use knowledge effectively. This transition requires India to develop child labours into knowledge workers.

There is a growing awareness in India of the country's failure to address the needs of children. Indian officials are under international pressure to eliminate child labour. Germany and the US are considering whether to impose restrictions on the import of goods produced by children. Since child labour is illegal in western countries, governments, trade unions and consumers are becoming increasingly loath to import carpets, textiles, sporting goods and gems produced by child labour. Even if a legislative ban is not imposed there may very well be a boycott by European and American consumers who are unwilling to buy products produced by child labour. The Indo-German Export Promotion Project (IGEP) has already targeted the carpet industry in developing countries. The German-supported Delhi- based Rugmark Foundation places its trademarks on carpets made without child labour in collaboration with South Asia Coalition on Child Servitude, headed by Kailash Satyarthi. "Rugmark represents years of campaigning in India, Germany and elsewhere. It's not the end of child labour, but it's a breakthrough", said Satyarthi.

At the same time, India is facing a dual challenge of severe paucity of trained quality labour as well as non employability of large sections of educated workforce that possess little or no job skills. Therefore a better education and skill formation facility for all is the need of the day. A greater amount of educational ability is a sign of more skilled and productive workers, who in turn are responsible for the increase in economy's output of goods and service.

Pressure for action on the educational front has also come from the World Bank, which has reminded governments that poor education and poor health are barriers to economic growth, from UNICEF, which has pointed to the links between compulsory education and child labour, and from the International Labour Organisation, which through its International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) has been providing funds to initiate programmes to reduce the use of child labour. In countries that have made education compulsory, education has soon become a norm in the local community, a norm more often enforced by community pressures than by authorities. Such a norm is already in place in Kerala where primary school education is nearly universal and drop-out rates are low.

#### **5.4 ISSUES AND CHALLENGES**

India has distinct advantage of young age population with declining dependency ratio while industrialized nations have ageing population with rising dependency ratio. This precisely gives India an advantage with huge competitive edge internationally. While industrialised nations will be facing acute shortage of skills with increasing dependency ratio, India should harness this huge potential if skill development initiatives fructify in right direction which will then be in real sense a 'population dividend'. If this opportunity is missed then it may well turn into 'demographic nightmare'. Skill building could also be seen as an instrument to empower the individual and improve his/her social acceptance or value. To reap the benefit of demographic dividend, skill development plays a vital role in deciding the quality of human resource in the country.

Recognising the fact and importance of skill building in the country, the Government of India has launched National Skill Development Policy 2009. The national policy recommends the formation of Skill Development Missions both at State and National levels. A new ministry named Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship

in May 2014. The immediate mandate of the ministry is to ensure that India meet its target of skilling 500 million people by 2022. At the same time create an ecosystem that eliminates bottlenecks which makes business easier and encourage entrepreneurship. In July 2015, the Prime Minister of India has launched the skill India campaign 'Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana' with an objective to make India as Skill Capital of the world. In order to provide adequate training to the youth and develop necessary skills GOI included it is, vocational schools, technical schools, polytechnics to improve skill training scenario. Training for self employment and entrepreneurial development is given under this policy learning , web based and distance learning as part of national skill development policy. The policy states the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders which include the government, industry, trade unions and civil society. It also lays down special emphasis on skill development for the unorganised sector with a separate institutional mechanism to plan, implement and monitor the target groups within the unorganised sector, literacy and soft skills, recognition of prior learning and skill development for self employment.

The tasks of skill development have several challenges which have been conceptualized and articulated in policy document (Government of India 2009). Skill development system is non- responsive to labour market needs and there are mismatches on quantitative and qualitative counts both from demand and supply sides that has severe implications to the productivity. A large proportion of young people enter in to informal economy at awfully low wages and precarious working and living conditions. One of the reasons for the low skill trained manpower is terribly low institutional training capacity and the vocational education and training systems as being too supply driven and far removed from market demand(NCEUS 2009). Huge number of illiterates, low level of general education and massive dropouts from school make it difficult to provide vocational training to youth who have not even completed elementary education.

The progress of vocational education and training (VET) in India has been slow and tardy. Skill levels among the Indian labour force are abysmally low. About 80 per cent of new entrants to the workforce have no opportunity for skill training. The unorganised sector which constitutes about 93 percent of workforce does not have any structural skills acquiring route and skill formation takes place within the sector

through informal means. Only 2.5 percent of the total unorganised sector workforce had formal training and 12.5 percent had non-formal training while in the organised sector this proportion is 11 percent and 104 percent respectively. The challenges to providing skill training are therefore, enormous and in particular in the informal sector in view of its complexity and heterogeneity. Government interventions through programme approach imparting training to this sector have only helped to minuscule level. The challenges of skill development are enormous in a globalised economic environment and issues like poverty and child labour need to be addressed urgently. It is also important to comprehend the state specific socio-economic situations in order to have fuller perspective of local context for devising appropriate skill training strategies.

### **5.5 FUTURE PROSPECT OF SKILL DEVELOPMENT**

If nation is a system, education is the heart of it. Properly planned and executed knowledge and skill training can increase national gross products, cultural riches, build positive attitude towards technology, increase efficiency and effectiveness of the governance. Education opens new horizons for an individual, provides new hopes and develops new values. It strengthens competencies and develops commitment. So every government is now committed to provide the facilities that are required for educating a child right from the beginning.

India has seen a rapid growth in recent years, due to the growth in new age industries. The demand for a new level of quality of service has increased with the increase in production. However there is a large shortage of skilled manpower in the country. In the wake of changing economic environment, it is necessary to focus on the skill development of the young population of the country. India not only lags behind in imparting skill training but also carries a huge burden of child labours. However as compared to western economies where there is a burden of an ageing population, India has a unique 20-25 years window of opportunity called the 'demographic dividend' with its higher proportion of working age population to its entire population.

The rapid economic growth has increased the demand for skilled manpower that has highlighted the shortage of skilled manpower in the country. India is among the top countries in which employers are facing difficulty in filling up the jobs. The key

reasons in finding a suitable candidate for available jobs in the country are lack of available applicants, shortage of hard skills and of suitable employability including soft skills.

The current vocational education is shifting from welfare approach to a demand driven approach. The government has undertaken various efforts to strengthen its scattered VET ( Vocational Education Training) delivery system under various departments and ministries i.e. the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), the Ministry of Labour and Employment(MOLE) through its Director General of Employment and Training (DGET), the Ministry of Urban affairs and Ministry of Rural Development. Opportunities available to learners for skill development are to be facilitated by Central , State government and by private sector.

The various ministries have created infrastructure for skill development such as community polytechnics and private sector has set up schools to provide vocational education. Recently government has passed the amendment to the existing act known as ‘Apprentices (amendment) Bill,2014’ to increase the number of skilled manpower and provide industries with flexibility to hire apprentices as well as improve stipends specified to them.

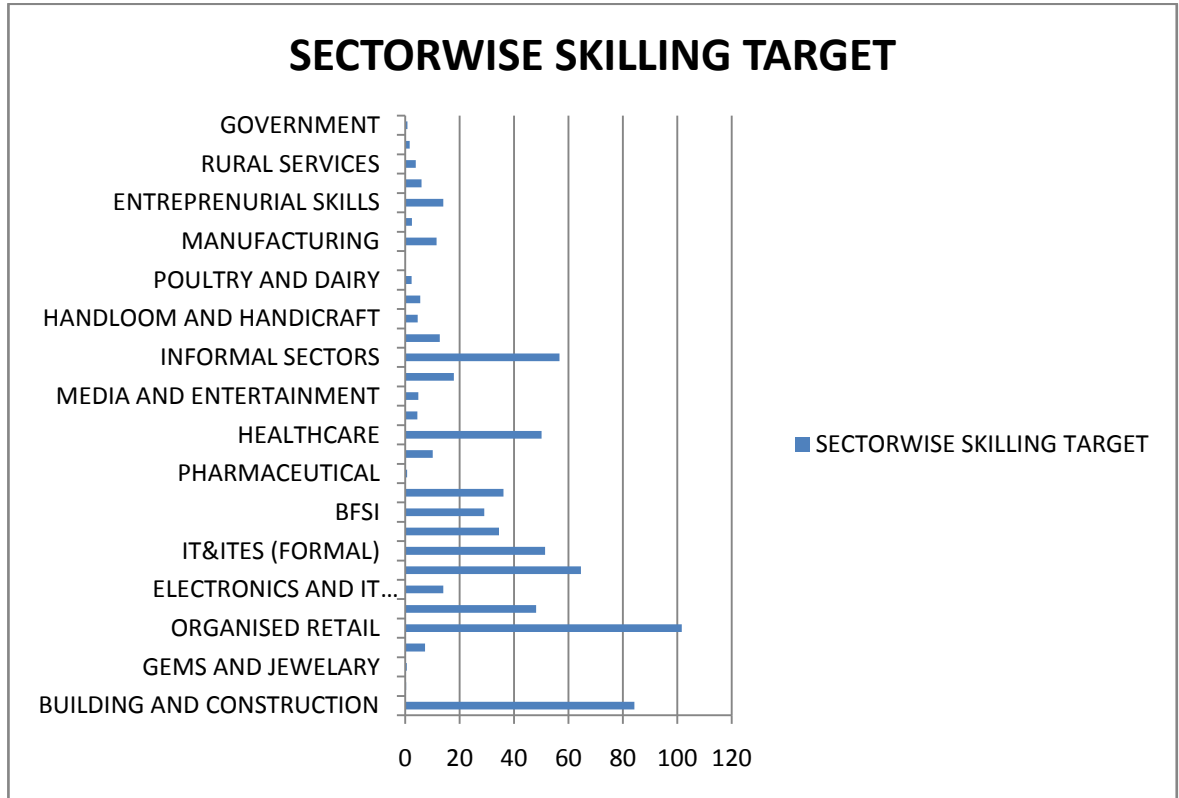
Apart from this, MHRD has also introduced vocational education from class IX onwards, provision of financial cost for engaging with industry, SSCs for assessment, certification and training. ‘Aajeevika’ is a skilling and placement initiative of Ministry of Rural Development. The aim of the scheme is to impart specific set of knowledge and skills to rural youth and make them job ready. The scheme caters to youth without formal education.

The Ministry of Rural Development has an Integrated Skill Development scheme for the textiles and apparel sector including Jute and handicraft. It is a flagship initiative that aims to fulfil the need for skilled manpower. It is targeting 15 lakh people over the span of 5 years.

The National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC) formed in 2009 under National Skill Policy which is a public private partnership body mandated to skill 150 of the 500 million people by 2022 and the National Skill Development Agency, an autonomous body formed in 2013 to coordinate the government and the private sector initiatives to achieve the skilling under twelfth five year plan and beyond has been

subsumed under the Ministry of Skill Development and entrepreneurship to give coherence to skill training efforts in the country.

**Fig 5.1 Sectorwise skilling target (in million) of NSDC**



Source NSDC 2014

Some of the key initiatives of the government are:

- Establishment of ITIs in underserved regions and the existing ITIs being upgraded to produce multi-skilled workforce of world standards.
- Setting up more polytechnics in the Public Private Partnership mode and upgrade 400 government polytechnics.
- Establishment of 600 rural development and self employment training institutes(RUDSETI).
- Expansion of vocational education from 9500 senior secondary schools to 20000 schools, intake capacity to increase from 1 million to 2.5 million.
- To set up a virtual skill development resource network linking 50,000 skill development centres (SDCs).

## **5.6 PRIVATE SECTOR'S ROLE IN CAPACITY BUILDING**

Over the years private sector has increased its presence in the field of vocational education in India. Child labour is one of the most serious development problems currently being faced by the country. The vocational and skill based education can help solve this problem. The private sector comes into play here with its ability to match the demand for the workforce in the industry with the supply of superior skilled manpower. The private sector can contribute to supplement infrastructure, facilities technology and pedagogy.

In the first role, private sector would deeply benefit by training the available manpower with appropriate skills and then employ them. As part of their corporate social responsibility, corporate houses can train learners by diverse methods and in varied fields such as research and development, academic internships, on the job training, education in line with the market demand and collaborative programs. As a consumer the private sector is educating learners with the right balance of academic skills, analytical approach, attitude and exposure. This approach ensures only industry demanded expertise being imparted to develop a suitable talent pool. Many private sector players have also entered this space as a way of giving back to the society for which they otherwise gain immensely. Private sector has the requisite funds and expertise to invest in constructing an appropriate platform for vocational education and training. In a nation such as India, there are immense opportunities and a vacant capacity by building infrastructure facilities in terms of schools, training institutes and universities to convert child labours and their families into skilled manpower.

## **5.7 CONCLUSION**

Skilling has certainly seen a growing focus from government and other stakeholders, however considering the rate at which the eligible working population of India is growing these initiatives require sustained attention by the decision makers. While structurally the government has introduced a new Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, further clarity on its operational mandate and alignment of schemes and training initiatives at multiple ministries with the new ministry to streamline government focus and ensure efficient implementation in the right areas with optimum fund utilisation targets. With a trained workforce of 500 million, the nation is looking at creating a fine balance between quality and quantity which would be

vital to create a credible and sustainable reform in alleviating povert and eradicating child labour.

To sum up, we need to recognize that the knowledge, skill and productivity of our growing and young and dynamic workforce form the backbone of our economy. To reap the benefits of such young workforce, we need to implement the reforms in the education system and also bring forth new factors of production, namely knowledge, skills and technology which have the ability to unleash the productive frontiers of the economy in the most efficient and dynamic way.

India should try to become a knowledge economy by provide vocational training and quality education in terms of infrastructure, teachers and accreditation. Affordability of education to ensure poor and deserving students are not denied education, maintain ethics in education and avoid commercialization of education system. It is time to bring in the changes that will give us the momentum to find a place in the global scenario. Government and private sector should work hand in hand for upliftment of poor and illiterates through education and skills to provide each child with an opportunity and channelize the energies to achieve the dreams of sustainable social and economic development.

## CHAPTER 6

### SKILL DEVELOPMENT MISSION IN UP

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

India by its demographic segregation in terms of age group of population may be christened as a nation of youth, which is one of the key dividends of the population matrix. India now has the highest numbers of youth-males and female in the world under employable age group, realising the potential and need of the hour, Uttar Pradesh, the largest state in India in terms of population has followed a road map for skill development and has taken initiative for capacity building in the state. Vocational Education and Training Council was formed in the state in 2009 with intent of skilling educated and uneducated youth and making them employable. UP was the first state in India to come up with a skill development policy and U.P. Skill Development Mission was established in the year 2013 to actualize the objectives.

#### 6.2 UTTAR PRADESH SKILL DEVELOPMENT MISSION

The UPSDM's mandate is to provide livelihood skills to the employable youth and thereafter ensure their remunerative placement as part of handholding support strategy in the skill specific formal sector to enable them earn their sustenance.

##### **Mission**

To integrate efforts of various departments of the State Government organizations engaged in providing skill development training and make available employment oriented and placement linked training in vocational skills, and even at a greater pace thereafter, by partnering with government and private training providers, while ensuring equitable access to the most disadvantaged, including women; and strive for placement of preferably at least 70% of the trained youth in gainful wage and self-employment to enable them to contribute to the economic development of the State.

##### **Objective**

To Train all eligible youth in 14-35 age group in the trades of their preference, provide facilities for acquisition and upgradation of skills of the unskilled and semi skilled workforce, enabling provision for the vulnerable section e.g. 30% targets are earmarked for women and 20% for minorities.

## **Vision**

To optimize employment opportunities and maximize livelihood options for the youth of the State by training them in demand driven employable skills, empowering them and enriching their lives, improvising such strategies that synergize with endeavours facilitating growth and development of sustainable job enabling structures which could transform the State into a vibrant reservoir of industrious and skilled manpower.

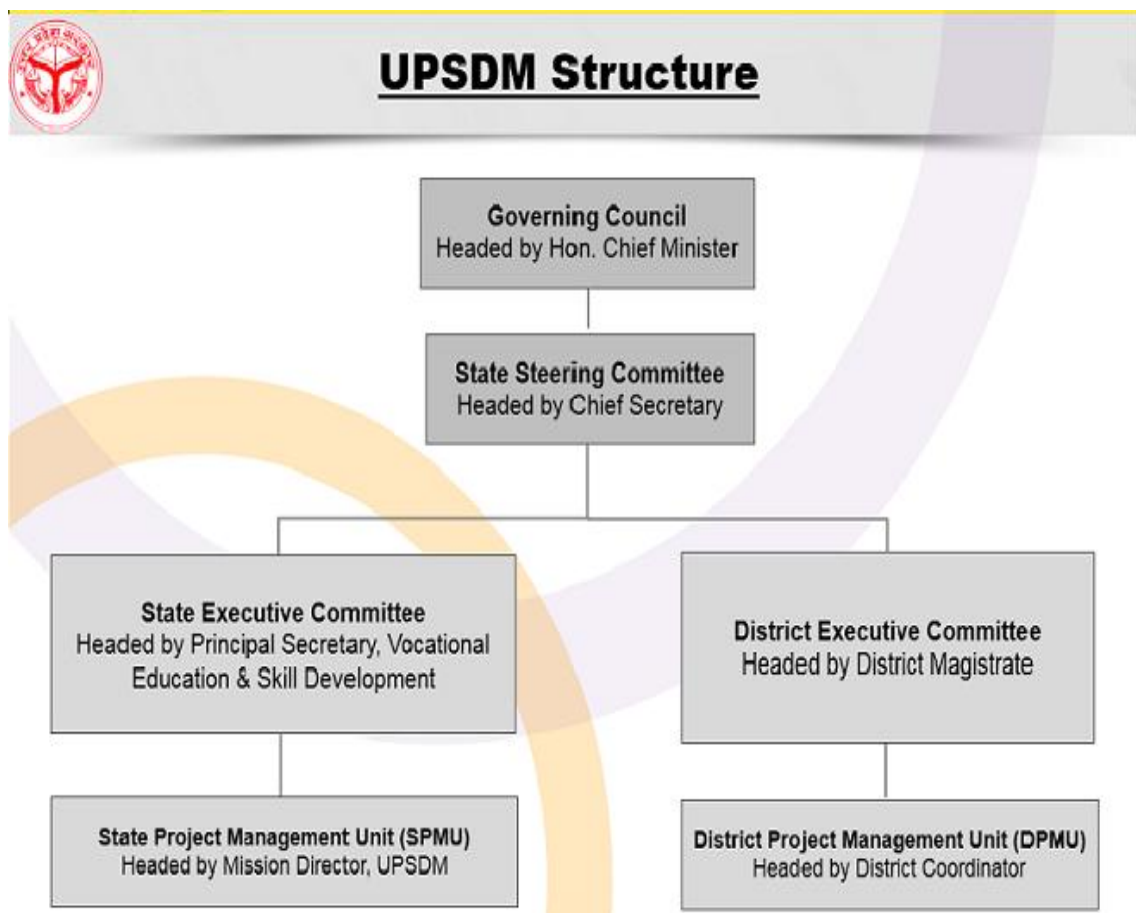
U.P. Skill Development Mission or UPSDM has seen only four springs of its birth so far. It is in fact, a child who is growing up with a vision; vision to transform state of Uttar Pradesh and India into a warehouse of skilled, trained and well groomed human resource that is not only market and industry compliant but also sufficiently attuned to counter the challenges of the competitive economy on the one hand and provide necessary resource base to start up enterprises in meeting their requirement of professionally graduated and skilled manpower on the other. No denying, the job market has its own upheavals and uncertainties, and it is more often dictated by intrinsic dynamics of replacing labour demand with knowledge, skill and extrinsic compulsions, like global recession, inflation, slumps and industrial unrest etc.

Certification by National Skill Development Council (NSDC) and National Council for Vocational Training (NCVT) authenticates the possession of requisite standard of skills by the trainees who pass out the training courses successfully. The Mission archive confirms that it has facilitated training of about 4 lakh youth in just 4 years of its existence under different trades and more than 3 lakh youth are targeted to be trained in different vocational courses in the financial year 2017-2018.

The Mission as a mark of recognition of its commendable performance received no. of awards during these years Sri. Rajiv Pratap Rudy, Hon'ble Minister of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship Government of India awarded with Best State in Skill Development Award in the year 2015-16 in a conference organized by ASSOCHAM while Europe India Foundation for Excellence, Brussels conferred upon the State "The Best State in Empowering Youth through Skill Development Award" at the UNESCO headquarter, Paris in 2016-17.

A National Skill Development Policy was launched in 2009 with the aim of skilling 500 million persons by 2022. Under the National Plan, the State of Uttar Pradesh aims

to skill over 4 million youth by the end of the 12th Five Year Plan. In order to achieve this target and provide employable skills to the youth of the State, the Uttar Pradesh Skill Development Mission (UPSDM) has been instituted. Based on the learnings and experiences of other states, the Government of Uttar Pradesh has developed a unique structure for UPSDM. UPSDM acts as an integrated mission which combines the efforts of various State Departments in achieving the skill development targets for the State. UPSDM is the implementing agency for skill development targeted at enhancing employability in Uttar Pradesh, subsuming the targets of various State Departments such as Rural Development, Urban Development, Labour, Minority Welfare, Social Welfare, etc. Established in 2013; mandated to coordinate all skill development initiatives, leveraging on State Skill Development Policy, UPSDM empanelled Private Training Partners in addition to Govt. Training Partners for conducting skill development trainings.



**Fig 6.1** Uttar Pradesh Skill Development Mission Structure

UPSDM has been established to make the youth employable by providing free vocational training. It is the first effort of its kind to run five Central Government & one state Government skill development schemes in integrated & uniformly standardized way. Privilege has been given to weaker sections of society i.e. scheduled caste, minority, women & BPL candidates etc. The candidate must be the resident of Uttar Pradesh and should have age falling in 14- 35 years age group (for BOCW scheme, upper limit is extended to 50 years).

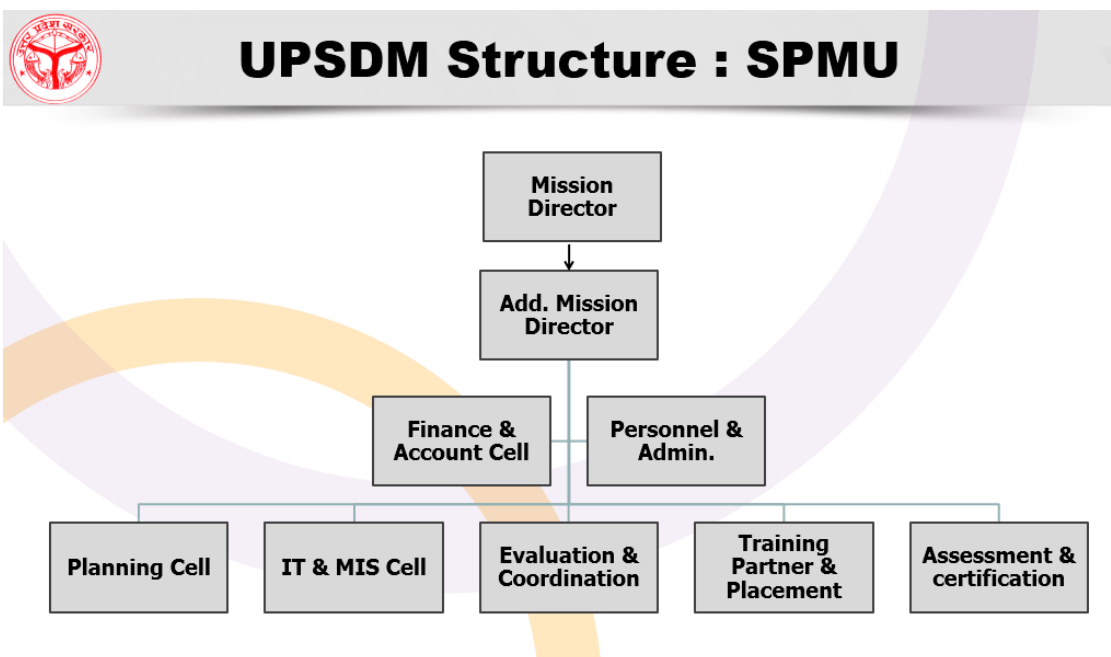
However, an overall coverage of 20% candidates from minorities and 30% women candidates is mandated, taken all the schemes together. Besides this a State skill Development Fund (a Top-up fund) is created to meet out the additional expenses needed in order to ensure integration. Following the common minimum norms adopted by mission 70% of the successfully certified candidates will be the minimum target for placement, out of which wage employment should be not less than 50% in any case.

### Convergence of 6 schemes and a State top-up fund



**Fig 6.2 Convergence of 6 schemes into 1 (UPSDM)**

On the footprints of the States Skill Development Policy notified in July, 2013, the UP Skill Development Mission is established as a Society registered under the Societies Registration act, 1860 under the aegis of the Department of Vocational Education and Skill Development Government of UP. It came into existence on 13th Sept2013.



**Fig 6.3 UPSDM Structure: State Project Management Unit**

The state of Uttar Pradesh is not merely a home of every sixth Indian, but it also displays the most kaleidoscopic and tessellated landscape of aspirations and opportunities even amidst whoops of challenges and constraints. With steadfast commitment the state of Uttar Pradesh is well along the trajectory to upscale and develop employable skills in its young population facilitating them carve a niche for themselves in the milieu of market led economy.

### **6.3 STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS AND SKILLS IN UP**

The study is based on the secondary data from the NSS 61<sup>st</sup> and 68<sup>th</sup> round survey on employment and unemployment situation in India has been used to show the variation in the status of skill development using three indicators general education, technical education and vocational training at National level and State level (Uttar Pradesh).

Overall literacy has improved perceptibly over the years both at All India level as well as in the state of Uttar Pradesh. While there has been noticeable decline in the illiterate population at All India level in 2011-12 over 2004-05, the state of UP carries a huge burden of illiterates with one of the largest populated states in the country. In spite of large number of illiterates, there has been a significant progress in the expansion of educational institutions and an increasing awareness about the value of knowledge, education and skills in bettering human lives.

Educational expansion (both general and technical) has grown at a sluggish pace in U.P. state in comparison to that of All India. Below primary stage education comprises of about 18% at both state and national level which is the major component at the lowest pyramid of education system. The percentage of educated up to primary level education is nearly 14% in both the periods at all India level while in U.P. the share is low at 12.3% in 2011-12 with slight improvement (1 percentage point) over 2004-05.

The U.P. has made good stride in making improvement in middle level, secondary level and higher secondary levels of education as compared to All India, though percentage share is still lower for all these levels of education. The percentage share of technical education ( diploma and certificate courses) is abysmally low in the U.P. and the share during 2004-05 and 2011-12 has improved marginally ( 0.23 to 0.25%) although efforts of promotion of technical education have born some fruits in other states as reflected by All India share (nearly 1%), and there is a sustained effort to improve its technical education during this period to raise the level of human capital base.

Despite the fact that India is one of the fastest growing economies in the world yet its share of technical manpower in the labour force is very low and that has been one of the major reasons for huge unemployment and low wages associated with jobs. Similarly, a large proportion of its young age population (15-29 years) having skills and trained manpower is pitifully low about 3.3% in 2011-12 at All India level in 2011-12 . An overwhelmingly large majority of population without technical education at All India level is as high as 98% and this proportion is even higher in state of Uttar Pradesh (99%). One of the profound reasons for low level of technical education comes out to be lack of quality and low valuation attached to such education that eventually carries little or no correspondence to the labour market demands.

**Table-6.1 Level of Education Attainment in 2004-05 and 2011-12 for all age group.**

General Education	2004-05				2011-12			
	U.P		India		U.P.		India	
	No of Person	Per cent	No of Person	Per cent	No of Person	Per cent	No of Person	Per cent
Not Literate	80454772	49.13	391336837	40.28	72693273	40.37	344513922	31.7
Below primary	29570055	18.06	176650700	18.18	33517818	18.61	195967573	18.03
Primary	18309077	11.18	134171873	13.81	22099646	12.27	151055294	13.9
Middle	15852877	9.68	121040189	12.46	20582111	11.43	149312937	13.74
Secondary	8114979	4.96	66028517	6.8	12677199	7.04	107040367	9.85
Higher secondary/ diploma	5965423	3.64	37590844	3.87	9335716	5.18	67438730	6.2
Certificate course	37057	0.23	8086763	0.83	4479305	0.25	9554342	0.88
Graduate	3718367	2.27	28384753	2.92	6051461	3.36	46964146.1	4.32
Postgraduate and above	1388784	0.85	8156991	0.84	2664588	1.48	15055798.1	1.39
Total	163744900	100	971447466	100	180069742	100	1086900000	100

Source: NSS Unit level data for 61<sup>st</sup> and 68<sup>th</sup> round.

Proportion of technical education that includes technical degree, diploma and certificate (below degree and degree and above) in the state is appallingly, less than 1% in 2011-12. From policy point of view, there is a need for more focused interventions to the disadvantaged social group in order to bettering their lot as maximum child labour comes from there and bringing them in to the net of inclusive growth process would not only improve the living standards by removing poverty but also lead to a higher GDP growth for the country as a whole. Formal training in the state has become the call of the hour as non-formal training remains stagnant and majority of population in the vastly populated state remains without skills that has serious ramifications to the productivity concerns and has severe socio-economic implications.

The state is facing a paradoxical situation where on the one hand young men and women entering the labour market are looking for jobs; on the other hand industries are complaining of unavailability of appropriately skilled manpower. This paradox reflects the criticality of skill development to enhance the employability of the growing young population and also to gear-up the economy to realise the target of faster and inclusive growth. However, keeping in view the heterogeneity of the labour market and also preponderance of the unorganised sector; designing a model which benefits the key players of the ecosystem: employer, training providers, trainee and the government is a challenging task.

It has been argued earlier that level of skill training is abysmally low in the country compared to other developed and industrialized countries. This has seriously hampered the realization of demographic dividend among young age population. Although, skilling effort have been continuing as part of skill mission in the union and state levels yet the pace of skill development has been sluggish. This raises issues relating to very low institutional and training capacity in relation to burgeoning new child labour entrants in the labour force.

**Table 6.2 Status of Technical Education in Uttar Pradesh and All India for all ages**

General Education	2004-05				2011-12			
	U.P		India		U.P.		India	
	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent
No technical Education	162536561	99.38	955789387	98.47	178657622	99.17	1069600000	98.3
Technical degree	130415.99	0.08	1856728	0.19	209852.62	.0.12	2993171	0.28
Diploma or certificate (below graduate level)	546045.29	0.33	8995505	0.93	696616.94	0.39	10845918.3	1
Diploma or certificate (graduate and above level)	338846.26	0.21	4001742	0.41	596453.71	0.33	4674296	0.43
Total	163551869	100	970643362	100	180160545	100	1088100000	100

Source: NSS Unit level data for 61<sup>st</sup> and 68<sup>th</sup> round.

**Table 6.3 Level of skill Training in India and Uttar Pradesh.**

General Education	2004-05				2011-12			
	U.P		India		U.P.		India	
	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent	No of Person	Percent
Formal training	647884.8	1.62	9385834	3.68	1109864	1.1	20338777	3.02
Non formal training	2665910	6.65	19755427	7.75	6848542	6.8	57934845	8.6
Did not receive any vocational training	36763821	91.73	225800077	88.57	92732898	92.1	595084010	88.38
Total	40077616	100	254941338	100	100691304	100	673357631	100

Source: NSS Unit level data for 61<sup>st</sup> and 68<sup>th</sup> round.

The above data clearly shows that despite significant improvements in literacy levels and educational achievements, skilling the youth is still a huge challenge in the state of Uttar Pradesh in particular among disadvantaged sections. The continuing lack of training opportunities for the poor is a constant refrain in the Vocational Education and Training (VET) literature and most leading experts on vocational training in developing countries are in broad agreement that limited access and unequal access among economically weaker section of society still exists.

#### **6.4 SKILL DEVELOPMENT CONSTRAINTS AND CHALLENGES IN UP**

The current skill development infrastructure and programmes are inadequate to address the challenge of skilling the youth of the state in desired numbers and of right quality (Govt. of UP 2013). Under the National Plan, the state of Uttar Pradesh aims to provide skills to over 4 million youth by the end of the 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan. The state has an estimated capacity of 3.5 to 4 lakh students per annum for providing vocational education through schools, polytechnics and ITIs, both run by government and private sector .However, nearly 20 to 30 lakh youth drop out of the formal general education streams between V<sup>th</sup> and XII<sup>th</sup>. The students drop out from school system puts huge pressure in the labour market.

The skill development programme also suffers from other constraints. First, the capacity of skill infrastructure is highly inadequate to meet the proposed target. Second, quality of existing skill programmes is not upto the mark to increase the productivity of labour force and thus reduce demand for child labour. Third, quality of graduates from ITIs is awfully low and less than 30% of these graduates are able to get gainful employment after completion of courses. Finally, existing capacity utilization of private sector schools, polytechnics and colleges has been far low in recent years. Significant achievements have been made in general education to empower youth in the state but still regional disparities continue to persist.

#### **6.5 CONCLUSION**

Many government bodies in UP are running skill development programmes but with little symbiosis. Hence, there's an extensive duplication of work. There is a mismatch of education and skills that young people acquire and what corporate actually requires them to possess. Most of our curriculum is obsolete and lacks scope. Accessibility for the disadvantaged and rural section of the society is difficult due to high costs

involved and other social impediments. There's a high drop rate at the age of 15 in many parts of UP, and few skill development companies venture into those areas.

There's a dearth of engagement platforms where government organisations and industries can collaborate to make meaningful progress to curriculum and skill development. Since most companies prefer to hire candidates who already possess the right skill sets required for particular roles, more channels to propagate in-demand skills aligned with employability helps. Experiential learning courses, i.e. a mix of classroom and practical training, can help increase retention of students. Presently, only a few institutions offer such courses in India. Skill development is not the responsibility of governments, corporate and training institutes alone, society too are equally responsible and need to recognise the changing scenario of employment. Better training and learning opportunities with the approach to holistic development can help UP become a truly skilled state that would help in eradication of poverty and child labour.

## CHAPTER 7

### MAJOR FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

#### 7.1 SUMMARY

It is almost three decades since initiatives for addressing child labour by government and non-government agencies have been going on. There are reports that the numbers of child labour are reducing as the enrolment of children in schools is going up. At same time there is greater informalisation of labour, and the entry into new and unregulated sectors. Child labour is becoming invisible with international norms insisting on standards of production, including the absence of child labour in production. Data on child labour will continue to be a challenge, unless a common definition of child labour that is adopted in law, and then used to collect the data, is arrived at. Not much seems to have changed in the society's attitude towards child labour. Charity for the poor continues to be the justification for employing children, despite enough evidence to show how child labour perpetuates the cycle of poverty and not the other way round.

How can reforms be made to happen? How can India's state and local governments be persuaded to make education compulsory, to enforce primary schooling, to educate girls and to move toward the removal of children from the labour force through the gradual expansion and enforcement of child labour laws? More broadly, how can the country as a whole be persuaded that skill development for the entire population can have far-reaching consequences for national economic growth?

India has an increasingly vigorous civil society, but as we have noted earlier few groups pay attention to the condition of children. The ministry of human resources has shown little interest in promoting mass education or reforming the inadequate primary school system. Trade unions have focused on preventing privatisation of the public sector and preventing the creation of an exit policy, not with restricting the employment of children. Employers have no interest in ending child labour since large firms subcontract to the small-scale industries to obtain goods at lower costs, and small manufacturers are looking for low-cost, pliable, and easily dismissible labour. The actors that have mattered elsewhere are not sufficiently engaged in India.

There is a need for a considerable expansion in public and official knowledge on the magnitude and consequences of child labour in India. Consider how little we know on the following questions: how many children are in the labour force? What contribution do children make to household income? In families with child workers, are adult members of the family unemployed and, in effect, therefore, displaced by their own children? How widespread is adult unemployment in areas in which children are working? How many children live in single parent families? What wages are paid to children and how do these wages compare with those paid to adults in the same industry performing similar work? At what age do children enter the labour force? What is the incidence of female child employment? How many years of schooling, if any, do children have before they enter the labour force? How many children in the labour force are homeless or live in the household of their employers rather than at home? How many children are employed in the household sector by their own parents, or do children largely work for employers outside the household? How many children are subsequently discarded from the labour force because of disabilities incurred as a result of their employment? What is the incidence of bonded labour among children? The answers to these questions could be obtained by national household studies. This kind of micro information would enable state and local governments to formulate appropriate policies, dispel a great deal of misinformation among government officials, and, as part of a public information campaign, would strengthen the capacity of organised groups to press for policy changes.

An important question, therefore, is who can persuade the employers of child labour in India that child labour in India is as detrimental to adult employment as it has proved elsewhere in the world, and that the promotion of compulsory education and the removal of children from the labour force will result in an increase in jobs for adults. Can teachers' unions in India be made aware that their status in the community will be enhanced if they play a pro-active role in promoting better quality primary school education and in ensuring that all children remain in the school system? Can foreign investors influence local Indian manufacturers to subcontract only to suppliers with acceptable labour standards? Can child welfare groups develop community-based programmes? These non- governmental networks may be the most effective means for promoting the international norms to ban child labour.

Over the years, one of the biggest gains has been increased government and civil society engagement on the child labour issue, resulting in involvement of government agencies and statutory bodies such as the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights in the movement against child labour and as advocates for change in the child labour law.

Yet the more we come together, the more we drift apart. There is duplication of efforts between all the stakeholders who have expended their energy on rescue and rehabilitation measures without addressing the situation holistically. Follow-up of rescue and restoration of children to their families has remained weak, strengthening families and linking them with poverty alleviation programmes has been poor, demand for child labour continues to be high, the network of traffickers has proved to be better at its job as trafficking of children for labour remains unaddressed. Thus children continue to fall within the cracks.

One of the biggest challenges in addressing child labour is the fact that the issue falls between several ministries and departments. Child is the mandate of the Ministry/ Departments of Women and Child Development and/or Social Welfare (in States); Labour is the mandate of Ministry/Departments of Labour. Education of children rescued from labour should ideally be the responsibility of Ministry of Human Resources/Departments of Education. But ultimately who is responsible for the individual child labourer? Even as governments struggle to bring inter-departmental synergy in their actions, the very fact that child labour elimination programmes continue to rest with the Ministry of Labour and Employment requires rethinking. The guiding question has to be whether child labour needs to be addressed as a child protection issue or a labour welfare measure.

To overcome the challenge of child labour, Skill development is considered central to improving productivity and is an important source of growth and improved living standards (ILO 2008, OECD 2013). Effective skill development system should connect education to technical training, further to labour market entry and lifelong learning to sustain productive growth and translate child labour into skilled labour with better job opportunities to alleviate poverty.

## **7.2 SAVE THE CHILDREN INITIATIVES**

### **National Policy for Children**

National policy for children as adopted on 22nd August 1974 stands as the basis of several national policies and programmes initiated in the last few decades to address the varied needs of the children. The policy laid down that state shall provide adequate services towards children both before and after birth and during the growing stages for their full physical, mental and social development, The policy emphasized the need for the measures of the balanced growth of children, protect them against neglect , cruelty and exploitation. It envisaged the legislative action plan and convergence of general development program for benefitting children wherever possible.

### **National Human Rights Commission**

The NHRC has been deeply concerned about the employment of child labour in the country as it leads to denial of the basic human rights of children guaranteed by the Constitution and the International Covenants. The Commission monitors the child labour situation in the country through its Special Reporters, visits by members, sensitization programmes and workshops, launching projects, interaction with the Industry associations and other concerned agencies, coordination with the State Governments and NGOs to ensure that adequate steps are taken to eradicate child labour. The Commission believes that unless and until the reality of free and compulsory education for all up to the completion of the age of 14 years is realized, the problem of child labour will continue.

### **National Child Labour Project**

NCLP which began with number of 12 districts only, has been progressively extended to various parts of country with the coverage of 271 districts in 21 states of the country, which is playing an important role in elimination of child labour.

### **National Commission for the Protection of Child Rights**

The NCPCR is a statutory body with a mandate to review all policies, laws and programmes related to children's rights. The State Commissions have a similar role, where ever they are set up e.g. Bihar Child Labour Commission. However, there are still some states where these bodies do not exist. In addition these bodies have been

given special mandates under different laws to act as a monitoring body for the implementation of those laws, as for example, under the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009. Challenge arises from the limited or complete lack of training of the members of these Commissions to see the linkages between the various child specific legislations they are supposed to monitor. It is expected would undertake all such programs and activities which may lead to building of an enabling environment and awareness in the society against the pernicious practice of child labour; the Commission is supposed to build a broad coalition of social stakeholders including Government departments, NGOs, child rights organisations, Panchayats, intelligentsia, civil society organisations, employers and even parents against the engagement of children into work. It is also supposed to play a significant role in holding public hearings on child labour issues, monitoring and reviewing the implementation of legislations and measures for welfare of child labour, and advise the Government on matters related to child labour.

### **Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Amendment Bill**

The Government of India has proposed the CLPRA Bill, 2012, which addresses children up to 18 years, but divides them into two categories – ‘child’ (those up to the age of 14 years) and ‘adolescents’ (those aged 14-18 years). However, this definition of the ‘child’ and the ‘adolescent’ contradicts the definition laid down in other acts such as the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act 2000, the Protection of Children under Sexual Offences Act 2012 and the new National Policy for Children 2013. The Bill prohibits employment of children up to the age of 14 years in any occupation or process, thus bringing the Act in harmony with the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009. It however allows children helping their family in the house or in fields after school hours, forest produce gathering or attending technical institutions during vacations for the purpose of learning as long as there is no subordinate relationship of labour or work which are outsourced and carried out in home. The new category of ‘adolescents’ proposed in the Bill is not permitted to be employed in specified hazardous occupations and processes, such as in mines, explosives and processes listed as hazardous under the First Schedule to the Factories Act, 1948. Many of the hazardous occupations and processes thus notified in the Schedule to the present CLPRA get left out of the purview of proposed bill. As is seen from the implementation of the current law, such relaxation of the law is one

of the biggest escape routes for employment of children. Many children today are engaged in home-based work and work under hazardous conditions affecting their health, survival, development and protection.

### **Non-governmental organisation**

NGOs like 'Save the Children', 'Bachpan Bachao Andolan' aims to make child labour not only redundant by a variety of schemes to empower children but also to make it socially and culturally unacceptable. In a fight against a hidden and pervasive form of child labour, the NGO has successfully withdrawn 50,000 child domestic workers and rescued almost 10,000 children from the clutches of child labour and have given them rehabilitation from physical and psychological trauma. At risk children, including those who are out of school, surviving on the streets and already engaged child labour are led to schools via enrolment drives. Also skill based vocational training is initiated to find them meaningful employment.

## **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION**

### **Amendment in CLPRA Bill**

To bring the child labour law in harmony with the new National Policy for Children 2013, it is a must that the provision of home based work and work after school hours in Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Amendment Bill, 2012 be removed. With more and more work coming into the unorganised, home-based sector, this provision in the law will ensure that children continue to be employed and deprived of their rights. Additionally, since the new National Policy for Children 2013 recognises all persons below the age of 18 years as children, the ban on employment of children below the age of 14 years in all occupations and processes carried out outside the home should extend to 'adolescents' too. Attention has also been drawn to the fact that there are many child domestic workers in the 14-18 year age group who continue to be exploited at the hands of traffickers as well as employers, especially girls from tribal areas. Keeping domestic work out of the list of hazardous occupations these girls are denied their basic right to freedom from exploitation.

### **Research and Documentation**

In the absence of overall data, there is a need to carry out micro-studies on Primary sector such as mining, secondary sector such as bangle industry, carpet industry, beedi

industry i.e the manufacturing sector. This would help to understand the new dimensions of the problem and the changing patterns better.

### **Elementary Education as a Right to Every Child**

Investment for Education is investment for nation as education is the most important investments that any developing country can make for its future and is the most effective tool for reducing child labour. Education needs to be seen as an essential and indispensable tool for the eradication of this problem as education is a preparation for a living and for life. It is precisely for this preparation for a dignified, equitable and just life, that children need to be taken out of work and put in classrooms. And again it must be reiterated that this must be done without distinction. The issue of girl child labour is a much serious issue and unless preventive measures are taken to ensure that girls do not fall out of the protective net and into exploitative situations, there is little that can be done to reduce their vulnerability. Girl child education is one such preventive measure.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, endeavour should not only increase the school enrolment ratio but also improve the school attendance ratio. The school management committee needs to monitor attendance very closely in vulnerable villages. The SMC register in use in UP has a provision of tracking children's attendance through listing the children who were absent for five days or more in the previous month that is shared and discussed for follow up action by the SMC members at the monthly SMC meetings. In case children are irregular to school their families should be contacted and counselled.

### **Ensuring Right to Food**

Malnutrition of children is one of the biggest public health problems facing the country. It adversely affects the growth and development of children including their learning ability, and the capacity to cope with the problem of daily living. Female children are more undernourished than male children. Malnourishment is higher in rural areas. Food is the first among the hierarchical need of human being, and a lack of it forces children to work instead of being in school. Food Security is the "access of all people including children to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life"

### **Child centric preparedness programmes**

Children groups can be formed with the disadvantaged local communities providing information and awareness regarding children's rights and the importance of education for them. Child centric preparedness programmes to find solutions to issues like child abuse, neglect, exploitation, child trafficking and child marriages.

### **Ban Heinous Act of Child Trafficking**

Specific provision regarding trafficking for child labour needs to be provided for in the child labour law to address the serious issue of trafficked children. While the proposal to make child labour a cognizable offence is a positive development and will help in increasing the rate of prosecution of offenders, non-recognition of 'trafficking' of children for labour as an offence will continue to allow the traffickers to flourish. With specialization in every field, human trafficking cases are to be dealt with by a separate unit of the police called the Anti-Human Trafficking Units (AHTUs), while the Child Labour Act largely falls within the purview of the Labour Department, who are not trained in criminal law.

### **Mobilising Community in both Source and Destination**

Prevention of child trafficking through Vigilance at the village level ensured by the Integrated Child Protection Scheme under which child protection committees are constituted and made functional in each village. The committee at the Panchayat level to maintain a record of all children and their movement e.g. In case of any child going out of the village, the purpose for such visit, details of the place of stay and local guardians, the person accompanying the child should be recorded.

### **Certification of age of children**

The child sometimes produce or been issued a certificate for class 8 as proof that he has completed 14 years of age. This practice seriously hampers the rescue of child labour. The Education Department needs to ensure that such false certificates are not issued by private institutions. without creating unnecessary red tape for genuine cases (as has been mandated in the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory education Act 2009). and black listing of institutions that are indulging in such dubious practices.

### **Educational rehabilitation**

Schooling of rescued children needs to go beyond enrolment of children. For a specified period, which should be atleast one year, a regular report on the child should be sent to the department, so that it can be ensured that the child is attending school and has not gone back to work. After their rescue, very few children were found to be attending school regularly and almost universally authorities are told that they were attending Madarsas. Only modernised Madarsas qualifying under RTE should be accepted as a school substitute.

### **Law enforcement and Justice**

The weakest area in combating child labour has been enforcement of the existing laws. Besides advocacy initiatives, organisations working against child labour need to be encouraged to monitor law enforcement and take legal action to create a deterrent effect. The lack of priority for abolition of child labour is reflected in the paltry punishment and fines, offences under the various child labour laws attract, which are treated as civil offences and not criminal offences. The CLPRA prescribes a penalty of imprisonment for three months to a year, and/or a fine not less than ten thousand rupees but not more than twenty thousand rupees, for people who employ children. The offences are non-cognizable and bailable. There is no recognition of the plight of female child labourers. Very often, girls have to carry out the tasks of cooking, cleaning, fetching fuel, working in the fields. The legal sanction of this kind of labour only serves to further compound the violations and deprivations faced by girl children. There is thus a problem of weak punishment and tardy enforcement which needs to be eliminated by substituting it with stringent laws and its strict compliance ensuring that the existing laws have a deterrent effect.

### **Economic rehabilitation**

Apart from wage employment and self employment, skill building should also be introduced as a part of the economic rehabilitation package. Follow up reports could be given to the core committee on the progress made by the family. Special efforts will also need to be made to link families with social protection schemes for which they may be eligible. An information campaign also needs to be designed to educate parents and children on the importance of education and skill training on the health, safety and future of children.

### **Creation of a fund**

Rehabilitation of Children would need to be done on a more concerted basis. While the education Department is mandated to follow up educational rehabilitation and a core committee under the chairmanship of the Chief Development officer in each district of UP mandated to ensure rehabilitation of the rescued child labour and economic rehabilitation of their families, the protocols for rescue and rehabilitation need to be strengthened by creating a dedicated fund for the same.

### **Sustainable Movement**

How does it take root and come to be owned and driven by the initiative of local stakeholders? One crucial feature is the conscious rejection of a hierarchical structure that is imposed from outside. All efforts to build consensus and overcome opposition take place at the local level and their aim is to create new societal norms about children that are universally accepted. Also it should reflect the organisation's belief in following a socially inclusive approach leading to locally embedded interactions with a wide range of stakeholders: parents, teachers, employers, government officials and above all the children themselves.

### **Creating Local Ownership**

While many agencies are effective in mounting rousing mobilisation campaigns and in uncovering the latent demand for education, few succeed in converting this advantage into a programme that is sustainable and on a scale that is significant enough to make an impact on child labour and education statistics. It would happen as a consequence of its philosophy of inclusion. It works to create a consensus on the issues of child labour and education that includes the entire village and not just the parents of working children.

Another key feature is the strategy is to involve the community in the ownership and management of the programme. The volunteers need to work on their own initiative to eradicate child labour and convince parents to send their children to school to improve the school enrolment rates by removal of children from work and bonded labour, encouraging girls to join school and stopping or postponing child marriages through innovative means. This kind of genuine and wide ownership is perhaps the best guarantee for the sustainability of any development projects.

### **Crèche or Day Care Centres for children**

There is a need for care centres for children of working women in rural and urban areas. Concerning health, nutrition, and social development, childhood is a period of care. Most working women are in low paid jobs as casual workers or self-employed. In urban areas, a large number of women are employed in low-income service sector and processing industries. Their problems have been aggravated with the aggravating trend of nuclearization of families, leaving the parents with the responsibility to take care of their children, even while they are fighting their daily battle for survival. Crèche needs to be organised with facilities under charge of trained personnel for education, supplementary nutrition etc. The Central Social Welfare Board and women and Child Development Ministry are providing assistance to Non- Government Organization to organize crèche services for children below 6 years from low income families.

### **Child Friendly Spaces during Disasters**

Creation of friendly space during calamities and disasters as children are vulnerable in such situations from the constant eye of child traffickers who seek to swoop in from refugee camps. Children need to be protected from abuse, neglect, exploitation, physical danger and violence and should be provided a safe environment.

### **Going beyond Traditional Stakeholders**

An approach that goes beyond poor parents and wins over and incorporates the key 'adversaries' i.e. the local employers of child labour, teachers, the education bureaucracy and policy-makers and makes them advocates for the rights of the child. Putting children's issue on the political agenda is likely to be crucial in ensuring the acceptance of the programme that aim at dissemination through grass root initiatives.

### **Uniting Youth against Child Labour**

Village youth are involved in politics through their membership in youth clubs, each of which is linked to a specific political party. It is also a traditionally left leaning area, the population is extremely vocal and topics such as privatisation, globalisation and WTO make up the stuff of everyday discourse of these actively involved youth. Village youth have long proved to be among the best allies in mobilising around issues such as dalit rights, land rights, bonded labour and wages and can conduct a sustained the fight against child labour. As first generation literates, they have had to

undergo a similar struggle to get educated and are therefore in the best position to reach out to the community and convince them of the dignity that formal education can give.

### **Recognition of Child Labour as a protection issue**

This requires investing in training of the functionaries involved in rescue and rehabilitation of child labour and a clear tie-up between the Labour Ministry and the Ministry of Women and Child Development to ensure that every child is protected and benefitted under the Integrated Child Protection Scheme (ICPS). The linkage between the juvenile justice system and the child labour elimination programme has to be recognized to provide the necessary mechanism and the infrastructure to deal with children in difficult circumstances.

### **Skill learning Programmes**

Working with the schools, parents and the community to define the concept of vocational education based on acquiring skills to improve human resource and show tangible results in the children and their families. There is a shift in community perceptions about what constitutes quality education. At first, it simply meant a school with regular teacher attendance; then a school that was successful in retaining children, particularly older children, and more recently, attention is shifting to whether the learning that takes place in school leads to any worthwhile employment. Not surprisingly, the push for vocational education quality is most evident in villages where the community has been mobilised. This drive for skill based education is likely to stand a better chance of success than any other top-down attempts to improve education in the government school system. What sets this experience apart is that the demand has evolved from stakeholders who come to share a common philosophical approach to child labour and education.

## **7.4 CONCLUSION**

Child labour is dangerous, pernicious and detrimental to the growth of the children concerned, and it should face total prohibition. Watered down provisions which seek to regulate instead of outlawing, and creating artificial distinctions between ‘children’ and ‘adolescents’ and ‘hazardous’ and ‘non-hazardous’ show a regressive attitude and one that actively harms the interests of children. Needless to say, this distinction between hazardous and non-hazardous work is unnecessary, arbitrary and dangerous.

For children, all work is hazardous and perilous. Agriculture work and house work, often interpreted as non-hazardous work, engage the full time and attention of the child, thus providing an impediment to the pursuit of the child's right to education, health and development. Legal sanction of child labour however, measured and regulated runs against the very philosophy of child rights. There needs to a paradigm shift in the very approach to eradication of child labour, one that moves away from a labour welfare issue to viewing it as a child protection issue.

An extensive research on household with child labour and study of specific industries that employ children would contribute both to public understanding and to public policies. Among the policy issues that need to be addressed are the establishment of compulsory education in cities and districts, the creation of programmes to eliminate the employment of children in selected local industries, the establishment of pension schemes for widows to enable their children to attend school and the creation of improved local enforcement mechanisms for child labour laws and skill education programmes. NGOs can also play a more active role within local communities in dealing with these issues, especially by helping to establish community-based parent/teachers associations to promote school attendance and to reduce the number of drop-outs. India has signed the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child which contains provisions (Articles 32 and 36) calling for the banning of child labour.

With 90 million of its children outside the educational system, India clearly has a long way to go to build a mass human resource base that can contribute to its present efforts to move from the state-led autarchic industrialisation policy to a market-oriented model in which India competes in a global economy.

Child labour is everybody's problem and getting children to school a shared responsibility. This means that the effort put in by the stakeholders needs to be multiplied manifold by the contributions of the community. Widespread acceptance of the norm that children should be in school and not at work would help the government sponsored programmes to spark off a ripple transmission effect. Delegating responsibility in villages to local groups ranging from youth groups, School Education Committees and women's groups, linking together in a movement against child labour and in favour of universal education can be quite significant. Villages that have succeeded in becoming child labour free can become an example and a source of healthy competition for other villages driven to achieve the same status. An equally

important development is the impact on the state government's policies and programmes. This is visible both at the local level, where the education bureaucracy interfaces with the working child and its family, as well as at the state-wide level, where the residential camp model can be used as a strategy for preparing drop outs, out of school children and working children for entry into the formal school system. This model has been developed by MV Foundations and adopted by the World Bank's District Poverty Initiatives Programme. This remains squarely focused on universalisation of education, vocational training and elimination of child labour.

The critical role of skills to improve productivity, income and equitable access to employment opportunities seems particularly obvious in capacity building in the development process especially in the fight against poverty and child labour. Knowledge, skills and competencies of all children have become the cornerstone of personal growth and employability for society's economic and social sustainable development.

## Annexure 1

<b>EXISTING LAWS AND LEGAL PROVISIONS RELATING TO CHILD LABOUR</b>		
	<b>AGE FOR BOYS (in years)</b>	<b>AGE FOR GIRLS (in years)</b>
The Constitution of India – Article 24	> 14	> 14
The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933	> 15	> 15
Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation ) Act,1986	> 14	> 14
The Apprentices Act, 1961	> 14 (A person is qualified to be engaged as an apprentice only if he is not less than 14 years of age, and satisfies such standards of education and physical fitness as may be prescribed).	> 14 (A person is qualified to be engaged as an apprentice only if he is not less than 14 years of age, and satisfies such standards of education and physical fitness as may be prescribed).
The Mines Act,1952	> 18	> 18
The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958	> 15	> 15
The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961	> 14	> 14
The Beedi and Cigar Workers Act, 1966	> 14	> 14
The Plantations Labour Act, 1951	> 14	> 14
The Factories Act, 1948	> 14 (A child below 14 years of age is not allowed to work in any factory. An adolescent between 15 and 18 years can be employed in a factory only if he obtains a certificate of fitness from an authorised medical doctor.	> 14 (A child below 14 years of age is not allowed to work in any factory. An adolescent between 15 and 18 years can be employed in a factory only if he obtains a certificate of fitness from an authorised medical doctor.
Juvenile Justice	< 18 (Under the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000, care and protection is ensured to all children below 18 years of age. Employment and exploitation of children for labour is recognised as a special offence.	< 18 (Under the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000, care and protection is ensured to all children below 18 years of age. Employment and exploitation of children for labour is recognised as a special offence.
<b>Source: Annual Report 2012-13</b>		

## Annexure 2

## GOVERNMENT SCHEMES

<b>To eliminating child labour Plan/ Policy</b>	<b>Goals/Commitments</b>
National Policy on Education, 1986	All students, irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex, have access to education of a comparable quality. Universal retention of children up to 14 years of age.
The National Child Labour Policy (NCLP), 1987	Focus on general development programmes to benefit children wherever possible Have project based action plans in areas of high concentration of child labour engaged in wage/quasi-wage employment.
National Plan of Action, 1992	To strengthen prevention of Child Labour, emphasis will be on compulsory education for all children and on strengthening anti-poverty and development programmes and focussing them on at risk families. National Child Labour Policy 1987 will be taken up more vigorously for implementation
National Plan of Action(NPAC), 2005	<p>To eliminate child labour from hazardous occupations by 2007, and progressively move towards complete eradication of all forms of child labour.</p> <p>To intensify and implement strategies to protect children from economic exploitation.</p> <p>Institute a rights-based uniform definition of child labour and bonded child labour in existing labour laws</p> <p>To rescue and remove children below ten years of age from the workforce by 2010.</p> <p>To expand the list of hazardous occupations to facilitate progressive elimination of all forms of child labour</p> <p>To recover and rehabilitate children from socially stigmatised occupations like manual scavenging, rag picking</p> <p>To universalise and accelerate school enrolment, attendance and retention so that children are prevented from being employed as labour.</p> <p>To take immediate and effective measures to prohibit and eliminate the worst forms of child labour and to provide for the rehabilitation and social integration of the rescued children.</p> <p>To prevent and prohibit trafficking of children for the purpose of labour including domestic service and other informal sectors.</p> <p>To create programmes and preventive interventions specially targeted towards the high supply areas, linking these with anti-poverty and developmental measures.</p> <p>Enforce laws that protect the equal rights of the girl child, like Child Marriage Restraint Act, PNDT Act, ITPA, Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Child) Act, Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act etc. by generating social support and through other necessary action.</p> <p>Link the child labour elimination efforts with education measures with an attempt to ensure that all children in the age group of 5-8 years get directly linked to school and the older children are mainstreamed to the formal education system through the rehabilitation centres by 2012.</p>

	<p>Country-wide survey to ascertain the existence, prevalence and nature of child labour below ten years of age in both the organised and un-organised sectors</p> <p>Request the Census of India 2011 to enumerate the number, gender, caste, religion, occupation and ages of children engaged in all kinds of child labour</p>
National Policy for Children, 2013 (MWCD)	<p>Ensure that every child in the age group of 6-14 years is in school and enjoys the fundamental right to education as enshrined in the Constitution</p> <p>Promote affordable and accessible quality education up to the secondary level for all children.</p> <p>Ensure that all out of school children such as child labourers, migrant children, trafficked children, children of migrant labour, street children, child victims of alcohol and substance abuse, children in areas of civil unrest, orphans, children with disability (mental and physical), children with chronic ailments, married children, children of manual scavengers, children of sex workers, children of prisoners, etc. are tracked, rescued, rehabilitated and have access to their right to education.</p> <p>To promote child friendly jurisprudence, enact progressive legislation, build a preventive and responsive child protection system, including emergency outreach services, and promote effective enforcement of punitive legislative and administrative measures against all forms of child abuse and neglect to comprehensively address issues related to child protection.</p> <p>To take special protection measures to secure the rights and entitlements of children in need of special protection, characterised by their specific social, economic situations, including their need for rehabilitation and reintegration, in particularly street children, children of sex workers, children forced into commercial sexual exploitation, abused and exploited children, children forced into begging, children in situations of labour.</p>
9th Five Year Plan	<p>To enforce the ongoing legal (The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986) and other remedial cum rehabilitative measures to eliminate Child Labour not only by strengthening various instruments that prevent / combat the problem of Child Labour but also ensuring their effective implementation</p> <p>To this effect, strong regulatory and administrative measures to prevent exploitation of child labour will also be taken up. In the areas where child labour exists on a large scale, special preventive-cum-developmental measures will be put into action with the strength and support of legal/punitive measures.</p> <p>The enforcement of the National Policy on Child Labour (1987) will be given a fresh look to make it more effective. To organize suitable functional literacy/vocational training programmes and recreational facilities after working hours for the overall development of the working children.</p> <p>Public opinion against the social evil like child labour will also be mobilised through the print and electronic media and the support of the pressure/activist groups.</p>

10th Five Year Plan	<p>To protect children from all types of exploitation through strict enforcement of the Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956; the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act, 2000; the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986; the Hindu Succession Act, 1956; Indian Penal Code, 1860 and the Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Act, 1994.</p> <p>Concentrate efforts to eliminate all forms of discrimination and violation of the rights of the Adolescent/Girl Child by undertaking strong legal measures, including punitive ones. These include strict enforcement of relevant legislations along with eradication of the harmful practices of female foeticide/female infanticide, child marriage, child abuse, child labour, child prostitution etc.</p>
11th Five year Plan, 2007-2012	<p>Start bridge schools with quality education packages for girl children and street children, child labourers, seasonal migrants and all those who are out of the formal education system.</p> <p>Necessary to take adequate measures for the protection, rehabilitation, and education of (child labourers).</p> <p>Efforts must also be made towards rehabilitation and reintegration of trafficked children.</p>
12th Five Year Plan, 2012-2017	<p>Amend the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act in line with the RTE</p> <p>Designing a strategic approach to respond holistically to the emerging needs of children of particularly vulnerable tribal groups, Minorities, other disadvantaged communities, including urban poor communities.</p> <p>With the enactment of Right to Education (RTE), introduction of the National Skills Qualification Framework (NSQF) and integration of vocational education with the secondary education, drop-out rates are likely to decrease.</p> <p>To meet the education targets of near full universalisation of secondary education (&gt;90 per cent), GER of 65 per cent in higher secondary classes and expected increase of enrollment in universities and colleges from 200.3 lakhs in 2011–12 to 300.2 lakhs by 2016–17, about 28 million will be drawn out of the labor force (15–59 age group)</p> <p>The stricter implementation of SSA and Child labour regulations to ensure that the child labour is eradicated from the country.</p> <p>To link with Ministry of Labour to address Child Labour holistically.</p> <p>Ensure that provisions of relevant legislations are implemented for women.</p> <p>Strengthen implementation of provisions for maternity protection and child care support.</p> <p>Undertake review relating to provisions for special target groups like women and children, seasonal/migrant labour to strengthen implementation of Rashtriya Swasthya Beema Yojana and also use RSBY cards as an opportunity for nutrition, education/IEC to BPL families.</p> <p>Strengthening the protective environment for all children—with a focus on prevention of vulnerability to abuse and exploitation.</p>

## Annexure 3

## SKILL DEVELOPMENT MISSION

1.	Skill Development Initiative (SDI): Scheme of Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, Government of India for skilling all.	<b>Finance:</b> Completely funded by GOI <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES only <b>Eligibility Criteria:</b> 14-35 years age group youth of all categories <b>Reservation/ Priority criteria:</b> to ensure 30% women participation <b>Placement Criteria:</b> At least 75% placement
2.	Special Central Assistance to Scheduled-Caste Sub-Plan (SCA to SCSP): Scheme of Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, GoI for skilling youth from SC/ST community.	<b>Finance:</b> Completely funded by GOI <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES & QP- NOS both <b>Eligibility Criteria:</b> 14-35 Years age group youth who belongs to scheduled caste only <b>Priority criteria:</b> 30% women participation to be ensured <b>Placement Criteria:</b> NA
3.	Multi-Sectoral Development Programme (MSDP): Scheme of Ministry of Minority Affairs, GoI for skilling Minority Youth	<b>Finance:</b> Completely funded by GOI <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES only <b>Eligibility Criteria:</b> Minority candidates (Muslims, Sikh, Jain, Parsee, Cristian & Buddhist) in the age group of 14-35 years residing in the 137 Blocks & 17 town areas of 46 selected districts of UP. <b>Reservation/ Priority criteria:</b> 33% women participation to be ensured <b>Placement Criteria:</b> At least 75% placement
4.	Border Area Development Programme (BADP): Scheme of Ministry of Home Affairs, GoI for skilling Border Area Blocks resident youths	<b>Finance:</b> Completely funded by GOI <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES & QP- NOS both <b>Eligibility Criteria:</b> Residents of 19 blocks of seven districts sharing international border with Nepal. <b>Priority criteria:</b> 50% women participation to be ensured <b>Placement Criteria:</b> NA
5.	Building & Other Construction Workers' Scheme (BOCW): Scheme under Labour Department, GoUP for skilling youth of Construction workers families through Labour Welfare Cess	<b>Finance:</b> Completely Funded by Government of Uttar Pradesh. <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES & QP- NOS both <b>Eligibility Criteria:</b> Candidate with age group of 14-50 years, registered with BOCW (Building & other construction workers) welfare board and his dependent family members including wife, dependent unmarried daughter & son below age of 21 years. <b>Priority criteria:</b> NA <b>Placement Criteria:</b> NA

6.	<p>State Skill Development Fund (SSDF):_UP State Top-up fund created to meet additional fund requirements (top-up) for different integrated schemes. Also used for training purpose under specific conditions &amp; for non-priority category of candidates.</p>	<p><b>Finance:</b> All Uttar Pradesh resident with age group of 14-35 years.  <b>Course standards offered:</b> MES &amp; QP- NOS both  <b>Reservation/ Priority criteria:</b> 20% minorities &amp; 30% women participation targeted  <b>Placement Criteria:</b> At least 60% placement</p>
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**Annexure 4 THE SCHEME OF VOCATIONALISATION OF  
SECONDARY AND HIGHER SECONDARY EDUCATION -  
JOB ROLES WITH CAREER PROGRESSION**

Sector	Job Roles					
	S.No	Classes IX - X	S.No	Classes XI - XII		
Agriculture	1	Green House Operator	55	Micro Irrigation Technician		
	2	Nursery worker	56	Floriculturist (Open)		
	3	Solanaceous crop cultivator	57	Dairy Farmer		
			58	Tuber crop Cultivator		
	4	Assistant Gardener	59	Gardener		
	5	Pack house worker	60	Supply chain field assistant		
	6	Bee keeper	61	Mushroom Grower		
			62	Medicinal plant grower		
7	Non timber forest produce collector	63	Forest nursery raiser			
8	Floriculturist (Protected)	64	Florist			
Tourism and Hospitality	9	Housekeeping Attendant - Manual Cleaning	65	Room Attendant		
	10	Meet & Greet Officer	66	Travel Consultant		
	11	Food & Beverage Service Trainee.	67	Counter Sales Executive		
Apparels	12	Hand Embroiderer - Addawala	68	Self Employed Tailor		
	13	Hand Embroiderer	69	Specialised Sewing machine Operator		
					14	Assistant Designer Home Furnishing
					15	Sewing machine Operator
Security	16	Unarmed Security Guard	70	Fireman		
Food Processing	17	Industrial production worker	71	Jam Jelly and Ketchup Processing Technician		
			72	Fruit Pulp processing technician		
	18	Packing Machine worker	73	Documentation Assistant		
	19	Consignment Tracking Executive				
	20	Consignment booking assistant				
	21	Inventory Clerk				
Logistics	22	Warehouse Dinner	74	Warehouse Claims Coordinator		
	23	Receiving Assistant				
	24	Warehouse Quality Checker				
	25	Courier Sorter	75	Shipment Query Handler		

	26	Courier Delivery Executive		
	27	Courier Pickup Executive		
Electronics & Hardware	28	Installation Technician	76	Field Technician - Computing and Peripherals
	29	Wireman Control Panel	77	Solar Panel Installation Technician
			78	LED Light Repair Technician
	30	CCTV Installation and Service Technician	79	Access Control Installation and Service Technician
Healthcare	31	Home Health Aide	80	Diet Assistant
	32	Medical Equipment Technician	81	General Duty Assistant
			82	Dental Assistant
33	Vision Technician	83	X-Ray Technician Diet Assistant Dental Assistant	
Retail	34	Store Ops Assistant	84	Sales Associate
	35	Cashier		
	36	Trainee Associate		
IT/ITes	37	Domestic Data Entry Operator	85	Junior Software Developer
	38	CRM Domestic Non-Voice	86	CRM Domestic Voice
Automotive	39	Showroom Hostess	87	Customer Relationship Executive
	40	Sales Executive Dealer		
Plumber	41	Plumber (General)	88	Plumber (General) - II
Construction	42	Assistant Manson	89	General Manson
Media & Entertainment		Color Key Artist	90	Character Designer
	43	Clean Up Artist		
	44	Modeller	91	Editor
	45	Story Board Artist	92	Roto Artist
	46	Animator		
BFSI	47	Texturing Artist		
	48	Microfinance Executive	93	Life Insurance Agent
49	Business Correspondent			
Telecom	50	Optical Fiber Splicer	94	Optical Fiber Technician
	51	Handset Repair Engineer	95	Broadband Technician
			96	Telecom Terminal Equipment
Power	52	Consumer Energy Meter Technician	97	Distribution Lineman
			98	Cable Jointer electrical power
Gems & Jewellery	53	Handsketch Designer	99	Designer CAD
Beauty & Wellness	54	Assistant Beauty Therapist	100	Beauty Therapist

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