

Dynamics of Employment of Children and Socio-Economic Reality

A Study of Children in Hazardous Occupations in East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya

Helen R. Sekar • Otojit Kshetrimayum • Deigracia Nongkynrih



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Foreword

In the context of global commitment towards achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals for the year 2030, the problem of child labour and its amelioration remain an important policy agenda of the country. In a landmark step towards making a child labour free India, the Government of India on 13th June, 2017 has ratified the two Core Conventions of International Labour Organization (ILO): Conventions 138 regarding admission of age to employment and Convention 182 regarding worst forms of Child Labour. The government had already made amendments to the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986-banning employment of child labour below 14 years of age in all occupations and processes and below 18 years in hazardous work.

It was reported that a large number of children are trafficked every year from Nepal and Bangladesh and are made to work in the coal mines of Jaintia Hills. It is also reported that around 10,000 people, mostly children, are trafficked every year into Northeast India. Some of them migrate from Southeast Asian countries also. There have been some media reports on the employment of a large number of children in the coal industry in Jaintia Hills. In this context, commissioned by the Ministry of Labour & Employment, Government of India, a survey was carried out to assess the prevalence of child labour in the coal mines in the state of Meghalaya. The faculty team comprising Dr. Helen R. Sekar and Dr. Otojit Kshetrimayum made a preliminary visit to the state of Meghalaya during the months of April-May 2012 and accessed the basic information on the prevalence of child labour in the coal mines, the nature of their work and working conditions and their socio-economic conditions and submitted a Report to the Ministry of Labour and Employment for forwarding it to the Cabinet Secretariat. Subsequently an exhaustive survey was carried out, in consultation with the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of Meghalaya, NGOs, and civil societies, local bodies and various other experts and researchers aimed at examining the prevalence of child labour in the villages of East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya where coal mining was predominant.

One hundred villages across East and West Jaintia Hills were selected for the study through this survey an accurate list of the names of children employed in different occupations were made available to the Labour Department village-wise/Block-wise and District-wise so that these children could be located for rehabilitation. Through NCLP Scheme which need to be expanded to all the districts of Meghalaya and convergence approach should be followed to enhance social protection and welfare measures for working children of Meghalaya. In order to become responsible and productive members of society children ought to be brought up in an environment, where opportunities of education and training are provided and children should be brought up in an environment which is conducive to their social, mental and physical development. If such an atmosphere is not provided it would impede social progress, economic empowerment and social stability.

I would like to congratulate Dr. Helen R. Sekar, Dr. Otojit Kshetrimayum and Dr. Deigracia Nongkynrih for bringing out the study into a book. I hope this book will be a useful reference document for all the social partners, policy makers, researchers, and social scientists who are interested in the area of child labour, particularly in the North Eastern region of India.

Dr. H. Srinivas
Director General

V.V. Giri National Labour Institute



Preface

The study on the “Dynamics of Employment of Children and Socio-Economic Reality: A Study of Children in Hazardous Occupation in West and East Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya” was entrusted by the Department of Labour and Employment, Government of Meghalaya to the V V Giri National Labour Institute (VVGNI), Noida under the auspices of the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India.

The study aimed at examining the prevalence of child labour in the villages of East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya where coal mining is predominant. One hundred villages across East and West Jaintia Hills were selected for the study. The selection of the villages for the study was based on the *Vulnerability Mapping Survey* in rural areas, conducted by the Government of Meghalaya during the year 2013. The Vulnerability Mapping Survey covered 6168 villages (39 Community and Rural Development Blocks and 579 Gram Sevak Circles) across the 11 districts in the state. The survey was an attempt to locate the number of villages where the occupations and processes prohibited for children under the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986 were prevalent.

A household survey of these selected villages was conducted during November 2013 to January 2014 with 544 field investigators. The field investigators were drawn from the government officials, teachers and members of the community from the East and West Jaintia Hills Districts. The field investigators were imparted training on the method of data collection. A total of 22,191 households were covered with a total population of 1,32,636 of which 66,931 males (50.5 per cent) and 65,680 females (49.5 per cent) were recorded. The survey coverage extended to the households, workplace, labour camps and coalmine site/depot.

Of the total sampled population of 1,32,636, the total children in the surveyed population were 66,921. The incidence of working children identified through the survey was 3041 of which 2242 i.e. 3.3 per cent were identified as full-time working children (only working children (OW)); 59 children i.e., 0.1 per cent who were attending school and were also working (ASW) and 740 children, i.e, 1.2 per cent were reported to be neither at school nor at work (NSNW).

Labour force participation across the surveyed villages was recorded at 36.79 per cent of the total population- 22.95 per cent males and 13.83 per cent females. Unemployment rate was recorded at 2.43 per cent. Further, the extent of employment is concentrated in casual labour (51.28 per cent) and self employment (21.95 per cent). Based on the survey conducted, out of 22,191 respondents, 1951 (8.8 per cent) were migrants of which 507 (2.3 per cent) were from other villages of Meghalaya (intra-state migrants), 1286 (5.8%) were from other states of India (inter-state migrants) and 149 (0.7%) from Nepal (international migrants).

This study will definitely contribute in understanding the prevalence of child labour and the dynamics of employment in the areas where coal mining is predominant, particularly in North Eastern states of India. It will also help in guiding policy makers, planners, social scientists, researchers and all those who are working in the area of child labour.



Acknowledgements

The study “Dynamics of Employment of Children and Socio-Economic Reality: A Study of Children in Hazardous Occupation in West and East Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya” was characterized by the harmonious effort of the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India, Department Labour and Employment Government of Meghalaya, District Administration of West Jaintia Hills District and East Jaintia Hills District, ICSSR- NERC and various individuals including academicians, officials, Village Headmen, Teachers, government functionaries and many others. We express our gratitude to each and every one of them.

We are grateful to the MoLE and the Government of Meghalaya, for entrusting us with the task of conducting the study. First and foremost, we would like to express our sincerest gratitude to Dr. H. Srinivas, Director General, VVG NLI, and Shri Manish Kumar Gupta, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Labour and Employment for their encouragement. We are extremely grateful to Shri. P.P. Mitra, Principal Labour and Employment Adviser, MoLE, for his continuous guidance and enormous support at the crucial stages of the project. Our thanks to Shri V.P. Yajurvedi, former Director General, for giving valuable suggestions at the conceptualization and formulation of the project proposal.

We are grateful to Shri P.B.O. Warjri, Chief Secretary, Government of Meghalaya for his guidance right from the beginning of the study. We also express our gratitude to Shri M.S. Rao, Principal Secretary, Department Labour and Employment, Government of Meghalaya, for providing effective leadership. His valuable inputs to the discussions served as guideposts for this massive survey in the difficult geographical terrain. We are also thankful to Shri Rao for providing useful comments and suggestions on the draft report. We also thank Shri B.D.R. Tiwari, Joint Secretary, Government of Meghalaya, for sharing his ideas which enlightened us during the course of the study.

Conducting this study would not have been possible without the efforts of Smt. Merlin Nampui, Labour Commissioner, Government of Meghalaya. Words are grossly inadequate to express our gratefulness to her for being a constant source of inspiration and motivation ensuring an ideal environment to carry out the study in different geographical locations. Convinced about the importance of the study, Smt. Nampui, despite the multifarious demands on her time, gave her ideas for sample designing, selection of districts, developing the survey tools, data processing and analysis, organizing orientation Training and Dissemination presentation workshops. In particular, we recognize her unstinting support and concern towards understanding the issues as they emerged. We are extremely grateful for her meticulous attention to every small detail of each of the activities relating to the study and facilitating till the end.

We are extremely grateful to Shri R.W. Wahlang, Deputy Labour Commissioner, East Khasi Hills, for enlightening us on various aspects of labour in different districts of Meghalaya. He gave us an overview of labour enforcement, the mechanisms and structures which facilitate enforcement and also the challenges in effective implementation of Child Labour Law. Discussions with him was a source of knowledge and went a long way for the success of the study. Our special words of appreciation and thanks to Mr. Stephen Lamin and Mr. T.P. Blah, Labour Inspectors, for all the support in making the field survey successful.



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We are also thankful to Dr. Deigracia Nongkynrih, Asst. Prof. North Eastern Hill University, for having consented to be the Local Coordinator of this project and also for having worked for long hours to provide her inputs in designing the Survey Format, for her help in the data analysis, report writing and presentation. The role of Dr. Joshua Thomas, Dy. Director, ICSSR - NERC and his team, in this project is gratefully acknowledged.

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**Helen R. Sekar
Otojit Kshetrimayum**



Contents

Foreword	iii
Preface	iv
Acknowledgements	v
Chapter 1 Introduction	1-12
Chapter 2 Demographic and Socio-Economic Factors	13-17
Chapter 3 Situational Analysis of Working Children	18-27
Chapter 4 Migration Trend and Demand for Child Labour	28-39
Chapter 5 Magnitude and Incidence of Employment and Unemployment	40-51
Chapter 6 Determinants of Child Labour: An Econometric Estimation	52-80
Chapter 7 Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations	81-87
References	88
Annexures:	
Annexure 1 Summary Report on Vulnerability Mapping (Rural)	89
Annexure 2 Survey Format	90-96
Annexure 3 List of Hazardous Occupations and Processes under Child and Adolescent Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986	97-101
Annexure 4 National Policy on Child Labour - 1987	102-108



Coal mine in Jaintia Hills



Collecting coal from the mine with the help of crane



Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In order to become responsible and productive members of society children ought to be brought up in an environment, where opportunities of education and training are provided and children should be brought up in an environment which is conducive to their social, mental and physical development. If such an atmosphere is not provided it would impede social progress, economic empowerment and social stability. Article 32 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child calls upon the State parties to protect children from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. Furthermore it requires State parties to take necessary action to ensure the implementation of this provision.

In India, to combat and to regulate child labour there are a number of legislation right from the Factories Act, 1881 to the latest Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986. However, economic forces circumvent laws, in particular the opportunity cost perception of the child labour families. Poverty, lack of education, inequalities, low income in an agriculture dominated economy, insurgency and migration are some of the important factors that perpetuate the continued existence of child labour in the North-Eastern Region (NER) of India. Inaccessibility of education and health services, results in a negative spiral of social and economic deprivation for the next generation. Due to the absence of alternative livelihood options, thousands of children migrate from different parts of the country throughout the year, to work in agriculture, coal mines, and road-side restaurants, as domestics and in other informal sector work. Children migrate with their parents and end up in these hazardous work sites where labour laws and child rights are grossly violated. High worker participation rates for children in Mizoram, Sikkim, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh is a reflection of this fact.

Mining is one of the most dangerous occupations for children to work. Children working in the Mines from an early age are likely to burn themselves out by the time they reach 30 or 35 years. As children are in the process of growing and developing, their working in Mining is at even greater risk of being injured or falling ill more than adult workers. Very often, these health problems may not become apparent until the child worker becomes an adult. Living close to the mining sites, children become victims of both the poor socio-economic status of their parents and their families as well as the difficult environment in which they live. The nature of their work and work environment is most perilous. Even a casual look at their physique and clothing reveals the extent of their poverty and deprivation. They are denied the right to decent living; right to education; right to protection against exploitation etc.

Meghalaya, one of the North Eastern states of India, shares its border with the State of Assam to the North and East. It also shares its border with Bangladesh to the South and West.



Sharing both national and international boundaries also leaves a vital scope for migration and cross border trafficking. The twin process of trafficking children for labour and children migrating alone for employment is a global problem affecting a large number of children. Trafficking children across the borders involves deception, coercion or force, debt bondage or fraud, for the purpose of placing persons in situations of abuse or exploitation. Children and their families are often unaware of the dangers of trafficking. The migrating poor tend to believe that they would be placed in better employment to earn their livelihood in the place of destination. The routes in which children are trafficked for labour are frequently changed according to local conditions and/or supply and demand factors. In many cases the 'direction' or 'flow' may appear illogical, hidden and hard to address.

It is reported that a large number of children are trafficked every year from Nepal and Bangladesh and are made to work in the coal mines of Jaintia Hills. It is also reported that around 10,000 people, mostly children, are trafficked every year into Northeast India. Some of them migrate from Southeast Asian countries also. There have been some media reports on the employment of a large number of children in the coal industry in Jaintia Hills.

With the understanding that the Coal mines in India are more accident prone than those with other minerals and metals, the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, (CLPR Act) is categorical in prohibiting the employment of children below fourteen years of age in Mines (underground and under water and collieries). Though Mines has been included in Part A of the Schedule of pre-amended Act in the list of 18 prohibited occupations and 65 processes which were considered dangerous to the health and lives of children, no comprehensive data is available on the magnitude, migration aspects, working and living conditions and health hazards of children engaged in work in the Coal Mines. Hence, this survey on child labour assumed significance in this context.

Coal mining has been continuously ranked as the most hazardous occupation in terms of the frequency and severity of injuries. Most of the causes of accidents in mines resulting in death or injury have been due to roof-fall, and inhalation of coal gas and dust explosions, powder explosions, and other causes such as suffocation, defective hoisting machinery and collision of coal cars¹. Coal Mine workers are thus exposed to disasters in the form of explosion, fall of roof, inundation, side fall, fire, gas, etc.

In the wake of globalization, more and more mines in India are privately owned with increasing informal sector mining activities which are more labour-intensive and less mechanized. These mines constantly try to increase production at the expense of the miners' safety and health that result in accidents. Some of the major hazards of working in mines include conditions like inadequate or poor ventilation, poor illumination, accumulation of dust and dangerous gases, use of explosives, poorly supported roofs and unsafe haulage ways. (Corn, 1983)².

India is one of the leading countries in production of coal, iron-ore, bauxite and other minerals and about one million persons are engaged in the mining industry. The output of coal has increased from 34.98 metric tons in 1951 to 558.82 in 2009. The Working Group on

¹ Hall, C. & Snelling, W. O. (1907) Coal-Mine Accidents: Their Causes and Prevention, A Preliminary Statistical Report, Department of the Interior, United States Geological Survey, Washington.

² Corn, J. K.. (1983) "Dark as a Dungeon:" Environment and Coal Miners' Health and Safety in Nineteenth Century America, Environmental Review, Autumn, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 256-268



Coal and Lignite (November 2006) has estimated the coal demand for the 12th Plan period (2016-17) at 1121 metric tonnes.

Mining contractors often preferred to higher migrant labour, as they are easier to control and less likely to organize.³ The living and working conditions of migrant coal mine workers is often deplorable. They live in make-shift houses closer to the mine sites or at the mining sites without access to health care services. Migrant coal mine workers do not possess any document of identification and therefore find it difficult to access local services. Since they do not have any formal employment contract the workers are deprived of their rights and most of the workers are unorganised. Very often their wages are paid in piece-rate. The piece-rate wage is generally calculated according to the quantity of coal that is extracted or segregated.

Concern for the safety and well-being of mine workers is reflected in various policy and legislation in India. The Constitution of India has empowered the Parliament to frame laws concerning regulation of labour and safety in mines thereby providing required safeguards for the persons working in mines. Article 24 of the Constitution states that no child below the age of fourteen years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment. Further, Article 39 requires the States to direct its policy towards ensuring that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength. The first Indian Mines Act came into force on 22nd March, 1901 which was superseded by The Mines Act 1952. Under the Mines Act, 1952, three separate codes of regulations were framed -the Coal Mines Regulations, 1957; the Metalliferous Mines Regulations, 1961; and the Oil Mines Regulations, 1984. Rules framed under the Mines Act are the Mines Rules, 1955; the Mines Vocational Training Rules, 1966; the Mines Rescue Rules, 1985; the Mines Crèche Rules, 1966; and the Coal Mines Pit Head Bath Rules, 1959.

Studies on coal mine workers in India are limited and most of them focused on the occupational health hazards. A study conducted in northern India highlighted the suffering of mine workers from silicosis. Most of them were unaware of the fact that they have been prone to such disease and many of them are unknown of such diseases.⁴ A study conducted by Centre for Environmental Studies, North-Eastern Hill University, observed that the mining operation in Meghalaya undoubtedly has brought wealth and employment opportunity in the area, but has simultaneously led to extensive environmental degradation and erosion of traditional values in the society⁵.

On the issue of children at work, it may be noted that child labour has been in existence in different parts of the world at different stages of development, including the developed countries (Abbott, 1908; Trattner, 1970). This issue has attracted the attention of researchers and policy makers alike. In development literature, the emphasis has been on altering the economic environment where children are working. Zelizer (1985) asserted that in the 19th century, child labour was often recommended as necessary for character building

³ Sudhershnan Rao Sarde, Migration in India : Trade Union Perspective in the Context of Neo-Liberal Globalization, IMF-SARO, p.2

⁴ Amita Baviskar, Contract Killings: Silicosis among Adivasi Migrant Workers, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 21 June, 2008

⁵ Sumarlin Swer and O.P. Singh, Coal mining impacting water quality and aquatic biodiversity in Jaintia hills district of Meghalaya, ENVIS Bulletin Vol. 11(2), Himalayan Ecology



and discipline when combined with schooling. This could be attributed to the prevalence of part-time work among children in the developed countries (Cunningham and Viazzo, 1996). In case of developing countries, children work to support their education, besides supplementing the family income (Cigno and Rosati, 2002). Further, the market demand of child labour is also influenced by the adult wage rate (Basu and Van, 1998).

There are adverse consequences to the existence of child labour in a country. This is because it has been attributed to affect children negatively. Not only does it affect the physical and mental health of a child, but it adversely affects the child's survival in subsequent stages of life (Boyden, 1994; Klasen, 1996). Further, children's earning capability as adults will also be affected as they join the labour force at an early age, thereby foregoing education and skill acquisition (Nielsen, 1999). Also, the nature and type of work that children perform are often low paid, hazardous and unfavourable for a child.

1.2 Background

Commissioned by the Ministry of Labour & Employment, Government of India, the survey was carried out to assess the prevalence of child labour in the coal mines in the state of Meghalaya. The faculty team comprising Dr. Helen R. Sekar, Senior Fellow, and Shri Otojit Kshetrimayum, Associate Fellow, made a preliminary visit to the state of Meghalaya during the months of April - May 2012 and accessed the basic information on the prevalence of child labour in the coal mines, the nature of their work, working conditions and their socio-economic conditions and submitted a Report to the Ministry of Labour and Employment for forwarding it to the Cabinet Secretariat. Subsequently a proposal was formulated, to carry out an exhaustive survey, in consultation with the MoLE, Government of Meghalaya, NGOs, and Civil Societies, Local Bodies and various other experts and Researchers.

1.3 Concept and Definitions

For the purpose of this survey, various concepts were drawn from the NSSO. Thus, the Head of Household for the purpose of this survey has been defined as "an individual in one family setting who provides actual support and maintenance to one or more individuals who are related to him or her through adoption, blood, or marriage; the designation head of household, also termed head of family, is applied to one whose authority to exercise family control and to support the dependent members is founded upon a moral or legal obligation or duty".

Highlighting on the concept of household, it is based on the arrangements made by persons, individually or in groups, for providing themselves with food or other essentials for living. A household may be either (a) a one-person household, that is, a person who makes provision for his or her own food or other essentials for living without combining with any other person to form part of a multi-person household, or (b) a multi-person household, that is, a group of two or more persons living together who make common provision for food or other essentials for living. The persons in the group may pool their incomes and have a common budget to a greater or lesser extent; they may be related or unrelated persons or a combination of both. Households usually occupy the whole, part of, or more than one housing unit but they may also be found living in camps, boarding houses or hotels or as administrative personnel in institutions, or they may be homeless. Households consisting of extended families that make common provision for food or of potentially separate households with a common head, resulting from polygamous unions, or households with vacation or other second homes may



occupy more than one housing unit. Homeless households are defined as those households without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters”. A household may contain more than one family.

The primitive and labour intensive agriculture required involvement of all members of the household including children who worked as a part of the family labour in their own land. It was perceived as a process through which children acquire skills and knowledge for everyday living. In the early stages of industrialization, work participation in the production process was considered as “a convenient solution to pressing labour problems.”

Definition of the term ‘child’ is based on ‘age’ which has a historical time-frame. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child defines child as “a human being below the age of 18 years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier”. The subject ‘minimum age for admission to employment’ is discussed in different ILO Conventions. In India, at present there is no standard definition of ‘child’. The upper age limit has been determined differently under various enactments. As per Article 24 of the Constitution of India, no child below the age of 14 years is to be employed in any factory, mine or any hazardous employment. In the context of free and compulsory education for children, the Constitution defines the age of a child as fourteen years. The Child and Adolescent Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 (CALPR Act) defines child as “a person who has not completed his fourteenth year of age” and prohibits employment of children below 14 years and prohibits employment of Children below 18 years in all hazardous work. Occupations and processes. The CALPR Act. lays down procedure to decide modifications to the schedule of banned occupations or processes.

Work that affects health and safety and mental, moral, and psychological development of children should be totally prohibited. Such work should be distinguished from the activities that are carried out by children which do not interfere with their schooling but provide them with socialization skills, relational skills and experience thereby contributing to their overall development and growth. Work by children taking place in the family environment i.e. family farms or family enterprises are considered as non-hazardous i.e. – child work. In India, according to Child and Adolescent Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, (CALPR Act) children who help their families or Family enterprises after school hours or during vacations in non-hazardous occupations or non-hazardous processes are exempted from the purview of the Act. In addition, children working as an artist in an audio-visual entertainment industry, including advertisement, films, television serials or any such other entertainment or sports activities except the circus, subject to such conditions and safety measures are exempted from the purview of the CALPR Act. The Act specifies that it is “help” and not employment and very specific that education of the children in the exempted categories should not be affected.

Working children are classified into different categories such as ‘children at work’ ‘children in employment’, ‘children in economic activity’ ‘child labour’ ‘children in hazardous work’ and ‘children in worst forms of child labour’.

According to the ILO, children who are economically active, including those temporarily out of work with a formal connection to a job, are considered to be ‘children in employment’. For the limited purpose of identification, ‘children in employment’ is referred to ‘children involved in economic activity’ for at least one hour in the reference week of the survey’.



Economic activity is defined as any activity that results in production of goods and services that adds value to national product. In some countries, if a child is engaged to carry out work, whether or not the child receives payment, or any other kind of reward, the child is considered to be employed.

‘Child labour’ refers to work that is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful to children; and interferes with their schooling by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school; obliging them to leave school prematurely; or requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work.

Work is hazardous when it is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children and the work that subjects the child to illness or injury from the use of dangerous tools, unsafe machinery, toxic substances (insecticides, herbicides, lead, potassium cyanide), and exposure to extreme temperatures and falling object . The hazards may be obvious and threaten immediate damage to the health of children such as heavy lifting, exposure to dust generated during various mining operations and other risks arising in construction, manufacturing and mining. Also in slaughter-houses and leather tanning industry children are exposed to chemicals, animal wastes, dirt, and stench from the decomposing and decaying carcass (Usha, 1984; Nihila, M. 2002; Sekar, 2003).

Involvement and exposure to dangerous activities such as armed conflict, drug-trafficking, sexual exploitation will have immediate and life-time damaging consequences on the children. There is an urgent need to prioritize these forms of child labour for total elimination from the face of the globe. According to ILO Convention No. 182, the worst forms of child labour (WFCL), includes (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; (d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the Health, safety or morals of children.

‘Labour Force’ is defined to include both the employed (workers) as well as the unemployed. The **labour force participation rate** (LFPR) is expressed as the proportion of the labour force to the total population. Further, the **work participation** has also been taken in order to account for the quantum of the workers (employed) excluding the unemployed in the Jaintia Hills district of Meghalaya. **Work participation rate** (WPR) is defined as the proportion of the workers (employed) to the total population.

The **unemployed** as defined by the NSSO and Census comprises of persons, who owing to a lack of work, had not worked but had either sought work or expressed their willingness or availability for work, i.e. seeking or available for work. The **unemployment rate** has been measured as a percentage of the unemployed to the total persons in the labour force.

1.4 Data Sources

The limitation of the available statistics in understanding various dimensions and issues of workers involved in coal mining in Meghalaya is widely acknowledged. For the present



study, data from both the primary and secondary sources were used. Information on labour issues related to the coal mines in Meghalaya was accessed from Government Departments, media sources and academic writings and they formed the secondary sources of data.

The primary data constituted the information gathered from field data through Survey Format and Focused Group Discussions. Information-gathering methods such as i) interviews with workers and other members of coal mine workers' households; ii) In-depth/Focused Group Discussion conducted with mine owners, mine-managers/supervisors, labour contractors and other key-informants at various places like coal mines, coal-cutting sites, markets, workers' camps etc., iii) interactions with various social partners and stakeholders such as the Officials of different Government Departments particularly of the Labour Enforcement Machinery; representatives of the Voluntary Organizations, Trade Unions, Workers' Organizations, Village elders/Headmen, Tribal Chiefs, Community Leaders, Mine-owners, Medical Practitioners; and representatives of Women's Organizations.

1.5 Methodology

The methodology of the present study involved qualitative as well as quantitative survey methods. The main objective of the study was to examine the prevalence of child labour in the villages in the East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya where coal mining is predominant. The selection of the villages for the study was based on the Vulnerability Mapping Survey in rural areas, conducted by the Government of Meghalaya during the year



Orientation Workshop for the Field Investigators by the VVGNI Faculty in Khliehriat and in Jowai in East and West Jaintia Hills District



2013 in all the villages in the State to locate the number of villages where the occupations and processes prohibited for children under the schedules Part A and Part B of the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986 were prevalent. The Vulnerability Mapping Survey covered a total number of 6168 villages in 579 Gram Sevak Circles under 39 Community Development and Rural Development (C & RD) Blocks in 11 Districts.

Table 1.1
Summary of the finding of the Vulnerability Mapping Survey

Occupations	Number of villages covered	Number of villages where the occupation is prevalent	Percentage of prevalence of the occupation out of the villages covered
Group A - Tea shop, Dhabas (road side eateries), Restaurants, Resorts, Motels, Hotels, Spas or other recreational centers	6168	1828	29.64
Group B - Transport of passengers/ goods etc, Automobile workshops/ garages, repairing maintenance	6168	1122	18.19
Group C - Factories and Industries, Manufacturing works and units, Saw mills, Timber Handling and loading, Handloom and power loom industry	6168	521	8.45
Group D - Food processing, Cashew and cashewnut descaling and processing, Agriculture process with use of heavy machines	6168	170	2.76
Group E - Mining and collieries, Lime kilns and manufacture of Lime, stone breaking and crushing, Brick kilns and roof tiles units	6168	416	6.74
Group F - Other hazardous occupations/ processes, if any	6168	692	11.22

Source: Vulnerability Mapping, 2013, Government of Meghalaya

The Vulnerability Mapping revealed that the hazardous occupations and processes namely Mining and collieries, Lime kilns and manufacture of Lime, Stone-breaking and crushing,



Brick kilns and Roof tile-making units were prevalent in 416 villages. These were classified as Group E occupation in the Vulnerability Mapping Survey conducted by Government of Meghalaya, in the year 2013.

Table 1.2
Distribution of Villages with prevalence of Group E Occupation across Districts of Meghalaya

District of Meghalaya	No. of villages
South West Garo Hills	18
South West Khasi Hills	16
West Garo Hills	101
West Khasi Hills	33
South Garo Hills	69
Ri-Bhoi	27
East Garo Hills	00
East Khasi Hills	52
North Garo Hills	00
East Jaintia Hills	56
West Jaintia Hills	44
Total	416

From the outcome of the Vulnerability Mapping, 44 villages from 3 Blocks of West Jaintia Hills; and 56 villages from 2 Blocks of East Jaintia Hills were selected as the universe for the Survey. They are listed as follows:

WEST JAINTIA HILLS:

Amlarem Block: Amsohmahaleng, Nongtalang Shnongthymmai, Mustem, Amtapoh, Dapdeng, Jarain, Shkentalang.

Thadlaskein Block: Sohmynting, Moodymmmai, Mustem-Muplang, Mustem-Pynthorlangtein, Demthring, Chyrmang Nein/Wah, Wahiajer A, Wahiajer B, Wahiajer C, Wahiajer D, Umlangshor, Shohshrieh, Ladmukhla, Umsawe, Lad Basic, MukhlaNongrim, Mookynniang, ATS KyorTyrshang, Mynkoiram, Myngor, Rtiangsanphaw, Saitsama, Nartiang A, Ummulong, Moodop.

Laskein Block: Pyntei, ShangpungMoosyiem, Khliehrangnah, Mynkrem, Khlookynring, Mynska, Khonshnong, Tum Tum, Psiar, Khadkasla, Myntangtihwieh, longkasaroo.

EAST JAINTIA HILLS:

Khliehriat Block: Khliehriat East, Dkhiah West, Ladrymbai, Byrwai, Sohkympkor, WapungShnong, WapungSkur, Pamrakmai, Pamrapaithlu, Jalyiah, Khliehmyntriang, Mookhep, Lumchyrrmit, longkaluh, Umlatdoh, Umlawang, Mulang, MusniangJonden, Musniang rim, Moolamanoh, Lad wah Wapung, Umsatai, Iapmala, Lumshken, Wahsarang, Suchen Dhana, Suchen Lumiarain, Suchen Thymme, Suchen Rim, Musiang Lamare (New), Musiang Lamare (Old), Umlong, Umrasiang, Lumshnong, Brichyrnot, Umstain, Chiehruphi, Thangskai, Wahiajer, Byndihati, Mynkre, Kairang, Lumsoskie, Umkiang, Kuliang.



Saipung Block: Tympiah Kasu, Sahkai, Kyrluh, Narwan, Myntraing, Umkyrpong, Muriap, Lakasein, Semmasi, Moolamylliang, Lamyrsiang.

Table 1.3
Place of Conducting Interviews/ Administering Data Capturing Formats

Places	Number of Respondents	Percentage to Total
Residence /House in Village	20,867	94
Labour camps	353	1.58
Coalmine Site / Coal Depot	36	0.16
Workplace	935	4.20
Total	22,191	100

The total household covered under the survey was 22,191 (20,760 according to 2011 Census) with a total population of 1,32,636 (1,27,792 according to 2011 Census). The total field investigators engaged in the survey was 511 (218 in East Jaintia Hills & 293 in West Jaintia Hills). The duration of the Survey was from 9th December, 2013 to 31st January, 2014. The survey was conducted at Residences of the respondents at villages (94 per cent), labour camps (1.6 per cent), coalmine site/coal depot (0.2) & workplace (4.2 per cent).

The Field Investigators for collecting data comprised of District-level Government Functionaries, Village Headmen, Teachers, Community Leaders, Members of Workers' Organisations etc. The field investigators were selected giving preference to those who already had previous experience of collecting field data in their respective villages; they belong to the villages but posted somewhere else or familiar with the villages. This was done particularly with a view that not much time is taken for establishing rapport. The numbers of Field Investigators were selected for each village varied depending on the number of households to be surveyed in a particular village. Thus, the number varied from a



In-depth interviews at the coal mines site



Interacting with the mine workers

minimum of 3 to a maximum of 13 per village. The main objective of the household survey was to estimate the prevalence of working children and provide a list of names of working children to the Department of Labour, Government of Meghalaya, to enable them to locate the identified children for rehabilitation.

On selection of the Field Investigators, each of them was given a copy of the Data Capturing Format that have been prepared in bi-lingual English and Pnar. They were required to read through each of the questions very carefully. Three Day Orientation was conducted in both the Districts surveyed at Jowai and Khliehriat respectively. Orienting the Field Investigators involved explaining to them the objectives of the survey, projecting the Data Capturing Format on a screen and explaining each question and encouraging the Field Investigators to seek clarifications as and when necessary. Since the Field Investigators were drawn ensuring that they know the language of the villages to be surveyed, the orientation was carried out in four different languages namely: English, Hindi, Pnar and Khasi. They were also divided into different groups for mock-filling of the Data Capturing Format. After the orientation training, different teams were sent to the villages for pilot-testing and some modifications were made, particularly replacing some of the words with the ones which the local people are familiar with.

Data collection in groups of villages was monitored by a Supervisor of field work drawn from the Labour Department, Government of Meghalaya. Check on the quality and quantity of data was carried out regularly and corrections were carried out by revisiting the villages. Back checks were also carried out over the telephone and by personal visiting in person to verify information collected in the duly filled-in Data Capturing Formats.



Two team leaders were allocated for each village and were given their responsibility for distribution of equal number of households among the Field Investigators for collecting data in the survey tools. The numbers of Field Investigators were allocated for each village depending on the size and number of households of the village. Instructions were given to Field Investigators to collect information from Key Informants and also to revisit the household if, they found the house locked or if the adult members were absent at the time of a first visit. Instructions were also given to ensure that the data collection is complete in all respect covering the details of all members of the household.

1.6 Challenges

Though most of the households were willing to co-operate, there are some households who were reluctant to share their information. Data collection was carried out during the period when the weather in Jaintia Hills was extremely cold due to peak winter. Many a times, the Field Investigators had to travel on *kutchra* roads, which are rough and with a lot of patches making access to villages difficult and time consuming. Many of them were lonely rural roads and the women Field Investigators found it difficult to commute and therefore, they had to be replaced with male Field Investigators.

The migrant households were very suspicious of the Field Investigators and the purpose of their eliciting the data. In many cases the Field Investigators were not even asked to sit. Therefore, they had to administer the Data Capturing Format standing in the cold in the outdoor space around the houses. The Field Investigators had to commute from their places of residence to the area of study in and around mining areas. These areas are marked by piling of coal/coal depot; coal being transported by *shaktiman* (brand name for the carriers) or four-wheelers to the large dumping places near highways for trade and further transportation. The entire area is highly polluted due to coal dust. There was also frequent movement of trucks and other vehicles.

The data collected represents the picture only of the areas surveyed. Therefore, this study cannot serve as a regular source of data on child workers, for the entire state of Meghalaya. Further, the data shall not be used for comparative analysis between countries or geographical regions, as they often work with dissimilar definitions and sampling procedures and show other methodological differences. As the existing studies indicate that child labour is not exclusively related to economic problems and income poverty is not necessarily the most important cause of child labour, this study makes an attempt to look into social, economic, cultural, and educational dimensions and entitlements to poverty alleviation and social security programmes. The National Child Labour Policy seeks to expedite various steps to combat and progressively eliminate child labour in India and urges us to take a holistic view. This survey in the coal mines had a holistic approach to facilitate the Government and other social partners so that the working children are identified, located, and rehabilitated, and their families are targeted for socio-economic rehabilitation.



Chapter 2

Profile of the Study Area

2.1 Introduction

Meghalaya, literally meaning ‘the abode of clouds’, became a full-fledged state of the Indian Union on 21st January 1972. Meghalaya covers an area of approximately 300 kilometer in length and about 100 kilometer in breadth. It is, bounded by Bangladesh to the south and east, and the state of Assam to the north and west. For administrative purposes the state has been divided into 11 districts, viz., East Khasi Hills, West Khasi Hills, South-West Khasi Hills, RiBhoi, East Jaintia Hills, West Jaintia Hills, East Garo Hills, West Garo Hills, South Garo Hills, South-West Garo Hills and North Garo Hills districts. The state capital is located at Shillong, East Khasi Hills district. The state of Meghalaya is well endowed with rich natural and mineral resources such as coal, limestone, fireclay and phosphorite.

MEGHALAYA



2.2 Tribes of Meghalaya:

Meghalaya is basically a tribal dominated state inhabited by the Scheduled Tribes (ST) who account for 86 per cent of the total population of the state. The state is inhabited by three major tribes comprising of the Khasi, Jaintia and Garo. The people of the Jaintia Hills are also called the ‘Pnars’, ‘Jaintias’ or ‘Syntengs’⁶. These three tribes inhabit the Khasi Hills, Jaintia Hills and Garo Hills of the state.

The uniqueness of the three tribes of the state lies in their adopting a matrilineal system, implying that descent is traced through the mother or the female ancestress. It is only one of the few states in India where such a system is prevalent. This practice has been adopted by the three tribes from time immemorial. Further, the system of inheritance is through the youngest daughter, also called the ‘*khadduh*’, or in the absence of which is through a female relation from the same family or the ‘*kpoh*’. As such the family wealth and landed property

⁶ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pnar_people



is vested with the female members of a household. It may be mentioned here that this is not to be mistaken for ownership.

2.3 Economy and Resources

The society is matrilineal and lineage is through the mother. This is however, not to say that there is no role of the father in the family - he is the head of the family and a 'kni' or maternal uncle in his sister's house. His earnings before marriage remains part of his mother's or sister's and he cannot take away to his wife's house; after marriage, his earnings become part of his wife's household. Among the *Jaintias*, the practice differs to the extent that the son continues to remain a part of his mother's or sister's family (before or after marriage) and all earnings are towards them. If a wife were to retain the property of her husband, she must vow to never remarry or the property will revert back to her husband's family.

The *Garos*, like the *Khasis* and *Jaintias*, also follow the matrilineal system. However, when it comes to marriage, proposals must always come from the woman and not the man. A man may marry as many women as he like, but usually it is limited to three; though for him to remarry, he must obtain the permission of his earlier wives. Among the *Garos*, great importance is attached to this practice and marriage within the same clan is taboo. The children belong to their mother's clan or "motherhood". The motherhood or "*machong*" was originally a family unit whose members are descended from a common mother or ancestress. Descent in motherhood must naturally be in the mother's line, and a child belongs to the mother's *machong*, and not to that of the father, whose family is barely recognized.



Coal mine site



As such, landed property and its ownership are mostly vested with the female members of the household. The pattern of land ownership among the tribes of Meghalaya is traditionally very similar. It has to be noted here that the pattern of land ownership and its management is rather a complex subject of discussion due to the interplay of various players ranging from the owners to the role of the traditional institutions.

Meghalaya has an estimated forest area of 9,506 sq. km of which less than one per cent is under the control of the State Forest Department. The rest are under the direct or indirect control of the *Khasi Hills*, *Jaintia Hills* and *Garo Hills Autonomous District Councils*'. About 88.16 per cent of the forests are under the control of the communities. Most of the forest lands are also under the direct control of private individuals. There are 24 reserve forests and 5 protected forests in the state which are controlled and managed by the government (Tiwari and Tripathi, 1996).

The economy of the Meghalaya is predominantly agriculture based. More than 80 per cent of the people depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Nair (1986) observed that land in Meghalaya is severely underutilized, with only 8.2 per cent of the land under cultivation; cultivable waste is 2.6 times the area sown. Historically, the hill tribes of this region practice two main types of cultivation - shifting or *jhum* cultivation⁷ and terrace cultivation. Of the two, shifting or *jhum* cultivation has remained the predominant method of cultivation.

2.4 Need for the Study

Jaintia Hills is bordered by Bangladesh to the south and the state of Assam to the north and the west and is situated in the eastern part of the state of Meghalaya. East Jaintia Hills and West Jaintia Hills are the districts in Meghalaya which is one of the states located in the North Eastern region of India.

On the elevation of statehood to Meghalaya, in 2012, the Government of Meghalaya bifurcated Jaintia Hills District into two districts - East and West Jaintia Hills. East Jaintia Hills covers an area of 2,115 sq. kms. with two Community and Rural Development Blocks viz., Khliehriat and Saipung. The total population of the district is 1,22,500. West Jaintia Hills covers an area of 1,639 sqkms., with one Civil Sub-Division, viz., Amlarem Civil Sub-Division and three C&RD blocks viz., Amlarem, Thadlaskein and Laskein. The total population of the district is 2,70,352.

At the outset, it may be mentioned that Jaintia Hills District of Meghalaya, is relatively a rural-based economy. Till today, a majority of the population continues to depend on agriculture as their main source of livelihood. Besides agriculture, mining and forestry also constitute an important source of employment for the people. The state being well endowed with coal and other mineral deposits; around 70 per cent of the coal mined in the state originates from the Jaintia Hills District. Coal mining, therefore, forms an alternate source of livelihood for people in these areas.

The issue of the predominance of child labour in the coal mining sites of Jaintia Hills has got the attention of policy makers and civil society at large. There have not been many studies on the labour issues relating to children at work in the coal mining sites of Meghalaya. Previous attempts were made by the Labour Department, Government of Meghalaya, to examine

⁷ Under this method, a piece of land is 'slash and burnt' and used for cultivation for one year and is then left fallow for a number of years before it is being used for cultivation again. This process of cultivating is repeated and a different piece of land is cultivated every year which is subsequently left fallow (Burmon, 1977).



Interview with coal mine workers



Interview with coal mine workers



the prevalence and extent of child labour in the coal mining sites by commissioning studies pertaining to the issue. Other similar, independent studies were also undertaken⁸. However, the studies conducted had several data and methodological inconsistencies; raising doubts on the authenticity of the findings and hence the prevalence and magnitude of child labour in the state.

It is therefore pertinent to conduct a study as an exploratory research to understand the nature, living and working conditions of the workers and also to understand the forms and prevalence of child labour in Meghalaya. The broad objective of the present survey is to identify and locate prevalence, forms and extent of child workers in East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya in India.



Restoring the steps to the Coal mine

⁸ An Exploratory Study of Children Engaged in Rat Hole Mining in the Coal Mines of Jaintia Hills District, Meghalaya. Impulse NGO Network with the Support of Aide et Action, December 2010; Investigation of Child Trafficking in the Coal Mines of Jaintia Hills District, Meghalaya, India. Impulse NGO Network with the support of Esther Benjamins Trust (EBT) Nepal, May 2010; Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Meghalaya, Fact Finding Mission of Human Rights Now to India. Human Rights Now, July 2011.



Chapter 3

Child Labour Determinants: Demographic and Socio-Economic Cultural Factors

3.1 Introduction

Socio-economic characteristics of the child Labour households need to be studied in order to have a meaningful analysis of the incidence of child labour to understand the causal factors contributing to the existence and persistence of the child labour phenomenon. The present chapter focuses on demographic and socio-economic background of the households and other factors, which are the determinants of child labour. There has been an increasing trend in the population growth in Meghalaya from 1951 onwards which is primarily due to natural growth, eradication of dreadful diseases from the region, and migration of people into the state for a variety of reasons including employment opportunities.

The population of Jaintia Hills is 392,852 which is 13.25 per cent of the total population of the state. Of this 50.19 per cent are females and 49.80 per cent are males⁹. The sex ratio in Jaintia Hills has been higher per thousand males in the years of 1901-1921. From 1931-1951 it has fallen from 986-954. It shot up in 1961 to 1015 females per 1000 males. After a steady decline from 1971-1991, it saw a rise in 2001 to 996 and has risen to 1008 females per 1000 males in 2011¹⁰.

It is the third most populous district of the state preceded by West Garo and East Khasi Hills in both 2001 and 2011¹¹. The survey covered a total of 22,191 households with the population of 1, 32, 636 comprising of 66931 males (50.5 per cent) and 65680 females (49.5 per cent). The proportion of female population is lower than that of male with a marginal difference in female and male population in the area of survey. There is a preference for girl child in the matrilineal tribal societies in Meghalaya¹². It is reported that the most desired sex composition of children is two daughters and a son. Every woman with two or more sons but without daughter wanted the next child to be a daughter. Thus, absence of daughter seems to increase the desire for additional children.

3.2 Survey findings: Demographic profile

Though there was a provision in the Data Capturing Format to record and capture person of Transgender, it was reported by the Field Investigators that 25 persons did not want to mention their Gender and they constituted a very negligible proportion.

⁹ http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/meghalaya/2.%20highlights.pdf, page 10.

¹⁰ http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/meghalaya/2.%20highlights.pdf, page 11.

¹¹ http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/meghalaya/2.%20highlights.pdf, page 15.

¹² Narzary, P. K & Sharma, S. M., Daughter Preference And Contraceptive-Use In Matrilineal Tribal Societies In Meghalaya, India, Journal of Health , Population and Nutrition, June 2013, Vol. 31, No. 2, pp278-279



Table 3.1
Distribution of Population Surveyed across Gender and Age-groups

Age Groups	Gender			Gender* Not Stated	Grand Total
	Male	Female	Total		
0-5	12142 (50.5)	11903 (49.5)	24045 (100)	2	24047
6-11	11379 (50.3)	11262 (49.7)	22641 (100)	1	22642
12-14	5432 (49.3)	5579 (50.7)	11011 (100)	0	11011
15-18	6062 (50.8)	5860 (49.2)	11922 (100)	0	11922
19-40	24021 (52)	22152 (48)	46173 (100)	4	46177
41-60	6583 (48.8)	6916 (51.2)	13499 (100)	2	13501
Above 60	1312 (39.5)	2008 (60.5)	3320 (100)	16	3336
Total	66931 (50.5)	65680 (49.5)	132611 (100)	25	1,32,636

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.

*In the Survey tool there was a provision for capturing transgender. It is assumed that it was not explicitly stated

The early morbidity in the study area is reflected by the fact that the proportion of population above 60 is phenomenally low (2.5 per cent) (Table 3.2). The population of India above 60 years of age is 8.2 per cent of the total population. While in Meghalaya it is only 4.6 per cent of the total population. As per the Census 2001, the elderly population account for 7.4 per cent of total population in 2001. For males it was marginally lower at 7.1 per cent, while for females it was 7.8 per cent. Among states the proportion vary from around 4 per cent in small states and Union Territories like Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Nagaland Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya to more than 10.5 per cent in Kerala¹³.

Though Meghalaya is known as the matrilineal society which confers more autonomy on women as compared to patrilineal societies, it was found during the survey that many of the families are headed by the males. The tendency is increasing with the increasing involvement of male in the socioeconomic activities, expansion of education, emergence of nuclear families etc. However in the family there is no discrimination among the male and female child. This is partly because of the economic independence of the females and their customary laws.

¹³ <http://www.gktoday.in/indias-elderly-population-some-fundamentals/>



Table 3.2
Distribution of Sample Population across Gender and Age-groups

Age group	Population			Gender Not Stated	Grand Total
	Male	Female	Total		
0-5	12142 (18.1)	11903 (18.1)	24045 (18.1)	2	24047 (18.1)
6-11	11379 (17)	11262 (17.1)	22641 (17.1)	1	22642 (17.1)
12-14	5432 (8.1)	5579 (8.5)	11011 (8.3)	0	11011 (8.3)
15-18	6062 (9.1)	5860 (8.9)	11922 (9)	0	11922 (9)
19-40	24021 (35.9)	22152 (33.7)	46173 (34.8)	4	46177 (34.8)
41-60	6583 (9.8)	6916 (10.5)	13499 (10.2)	2	13501 (10.2)
Above 60	1312 (2)	2008 (3.1)	3320 (2.5)	16	3336 (2.5)
Total	66931 (100)	65680 (100)	132611 (100)	25	132636 (100)

Source: Field data

Note: Figure in brackets indicates the percentage.

Table 3.2(a): Population Structure

Sl. No	Age group	Population				Percentage to Population			
		Male	Female	Sex Not Stated	Total	Male	Female	Sex Not Stated	Total
1.	0-5	12142	11903	2	24047	9.15	8.97	0.00	18.13
2.	6-11	11379	11262	1	22642	8.58	8.49	0.00	17.07
3.	12-14	5432	5579	0	11011	4.10	4.21	0.00	8.30
4.	15-18	6062	5860	0	11922	4.57	4.42	0.00	8.99
5.	19-40	24021	22152	4	46177	18.11	16.70	0.00	34.81
6.	41-60	6583	6916	2	13501	4.96	5.21	0.00	10.18
7.	Above 60	1312	2008	16	3336	0.99	1.51	0.01	2.52
8.	Total	66931	65680	25	132636	50.46	49.52	0.02	100.00

The total population above 18 years constituted 63,014 comprising 31,916 males (50.6 per cent) and 31,076 females (49.3 per cent). Among those who were above 18 years of age, 22 persons did not want to mention their gender. (*Table 3.2*). The total population above 14



years constituted 74936 comprising 37978 males (50.75 per cent) and 36936 females (49.3 per cent) (Table 3.3).

Table 3.2 (b): Gender-wise Distribution of Adult Population (Above 18 Years)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	31916	50.6
Female	31076	49.3
Not Stated	22	0.0
Total	63014	100

**Table 3.3
Gender-wise Distribution of Population above 14 Years**

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	37978	50.7
Female	36936	49.3
Not Stated	22	0
Total	74936	100

The average family size of the surveyed population is 5.9. However since the data was collected from large number of single migrant workers who are not living with their families and were in labour camps, Coalmine Sites, Coal Depot and Workplace, the household size varied from one to more than 10 (Table 3.4).

**Table 3.4
Household Size**

No. of members in the HH	Frequency	Percentage
01	706	3.18
02	1245	5.61
03	2181	9.82
04	2869	12.92
05	3363	15.15
06	3108	14.00
07	2770	12.48
08	2155	9.71
09	1432	6.45
10	1006	4.53
More than 10	1339	6.03
No Response	17	0.07
Total	22,191	100

The ILO Convention 182 (Worst Forms of Child Labour) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) defines child in the context of child labour as “Any one



below the age of 18 years”. The total population children below 18 years constituted 52.5 per cent of the total population comprising 35015 males (50.3 per cent) and 34604 females (49.7 per cent). This age group is also very important not only as productive or promising in so far as family income is concerned but also in the context of child labour. It is significant to know that the population above 18 is lesser than population below 18 indicating higher percentage of younger people meeting the demand for workforce (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5
Gender-wise Distribution of Child Population (Below 18 Years)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	35015	50.3
Female	34604	49.7
Not Stated	3	0
Total	69622	100

Source: Field data

The Constitutional guarantees are reflected in the policies, plans, laws and schemes on child labour in India. As per Article 24 of the Constitution, no child below the age of 14 years is to be employed in any factory, mine or any hazardous employment. Further, Article 39 requires the States to direct its policy towards ensuring that the tender age of children is not abused and that they are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength. Recently, with the insertion of Article 21A, the State has been entrusted with the task of providing free and compulsory education to all the children in the age group of 6-14 years. The Total Population of children below 14 years in the households covered by the survey was 57700 and they constituted 43.5 per cent of the total population comprising 28953 (50.1 per cent) males and 28744 (49.8 per cent) females. Gender of three (3) children was not reported (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6
Gender-wise Distribution of Children below 14 Years

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	28953	50.1
Female	28744	49.8
Not Stated	3	0.1
Total	57700	100

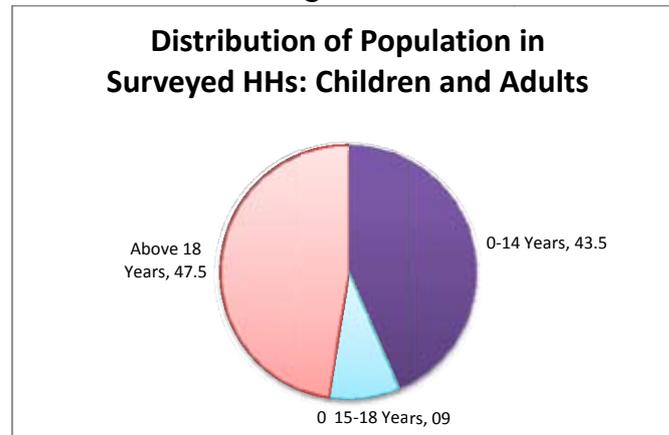
Table 3.7
Sample Population Structure

Age group	Population		
	Male	Female	Total
0-14	28953 (43.3)	28744 (43.8)	57697 (43.5)
15-18	6062 (9.1)	5860 (8.9)	11922 (9)
Above 18	31916 (47.7)	31076 (47.3)	62992 (47.5)
Total	66931(100)	65680(100)	132611(100)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.



Figure 3:1



3.3 Cultural Factors

Out of the total 22191 households surveyed, 4.2 per cent constituted Hindus and 2 per cent Muslims. Hindu households are double the proportion of Muslims in the area surveyed (Table 3.8). As per the Survey conducted, Christians constitute 64.6 per cent of the total number of the surveyed households. Religions of Meghalaya are highly influenced by the cultural background of the state. *Niamtre* is the original tribal religion of the Jaintias. The Jaintia tribals believe that their religion is God-given and comes to this world by God's decree. Many of the people in the Jaintia society started embracing Christianity during the time of British in India in the 17th Century and also with the coming of the Welsh missionaries. Apart from these religions, there are also other religious groups in the district. Some studies observed declining fertility trend by religion with rate of decline is highest for Christian, followed by Hindus and then by the Muslim¹⁴. The Pnar people follow a monotheistic religion which is greatly intertwined with their culture and tradition, permeating politics and social life of the people. They have various festivals, dances and ceremonies to commemorate harvests, express gratitude, for marriage, birth and death¹⁵.

Table 3.8
Distribution of Households by Religion

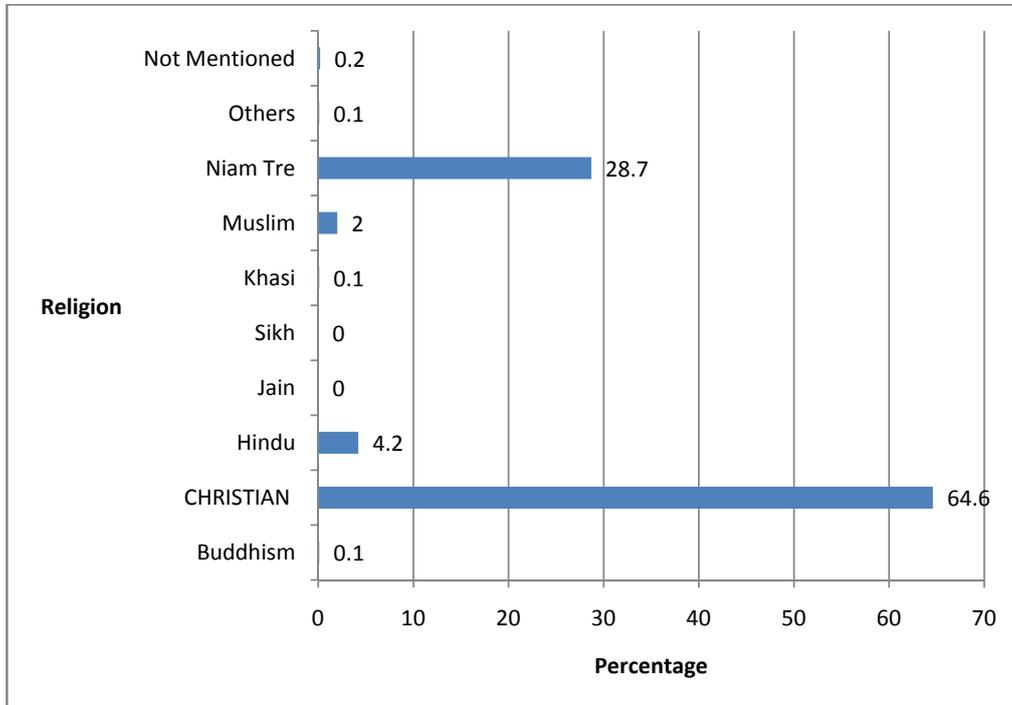
Religion	No. of Households	Percentage
Buddhism	31	0.1
Christian	14326	64.6
Hindu	924	4.2
Jain	5	0.0
Sikh	4	0.0
Khasi	25	0.1
Muslim	451	2.0
NiamTre	6366	28.7
Others	21	0.1
Not Mentioned	38	0.2
Total	22191	100

¹⁴ Khongji, P., Determinants and Trends of Ideal Family Size in a Matrilineal Set-up, The NEHU Journal, July 2013, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp 37-54

¹⁵ Lamare, S. N., (2005) The Jaintias - Studies in Society and Change, Regency Publications, New Delhi



Figure 3:2
Distribution of Households by Religion



The socio-economic parameters including place of origin, caste and religion; parental occupations influence the incidence of child labour. Of the total 22191 households 31 were not willing to share information on their caste identity.

Table 3.9
Distribution of Households by Caste

Sl. No.	Caste	No. of Households	Percentage
1	O.B.C.	244	1.1
2	SC	720	3.2
3	ST	20721	93.4
4	Muslim	19	0.1
5	Others	456	2.1
6	Not Mentioned	31	0.1
	Total	22191	100.0

The Jaintia Hills was bifurcated into East Jaintia Hills and West Jaintia Hills in the year 2013. Since the bifurcation of the district was done after the Census year 2011, all the census data that are referred in this study are of the undivided Jaintia Hills District. The districts being-migrant prone, different inhabitants reported speaking 8 different languages in the surveyed area (**Table 3.10**). An overwhelming 92 per cent of the surveyed households could speak Pnar and less than one percent reported speaking *Biata*.



Table 3.10
Details of languages spoken by the Households

Languages	English	Hindi	Khasi	Nepali	Pnar	Bangla	Biate	Assamese
No. of HHs who could Speak the Language	4050	2031	11,142	681	20,538	707	38	280
Percentage to total	18.2	9.1	50.2	3.1	92.5	3.1	0.17	1.2

3.4 Child Labour and Social Security

Child labour exists in different geographical regions in different magnitude. Illiteracy or low educational status, inadequate employment opportunities and low earnings lead many families to impoverishment and indebtedness. In times of deprivation and loss of income and other contingencies like ill-health, accident, death, and old age, when there is no fallback mechanisms for the family, children are sent to work in exploitative conditions to supplement the family income. Social Security benefits that are provided when the breadwinner is unable to work will help in ensuring that families with children have enough income to provide proper nutrition and a healthy living environment for their children. They can also be a powerful instrument to combat child labour and promote school attendance.

While 2567 households were reported to have BPL cards, and 20,081 households possessed EPIC cards, 956 households reported that they did not possess any of these cards and 12 were found to have both the BPL as well as APL cards. These were not considered.

According to the ILO Convention No.102 on Social Security, sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, disability, old age, death, the need for long-term medical care and for supporting families with children are the nine core contingencies that lead to stoppage and substantial reduction of earnings. According to article 22 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) protects the right to an adequate standard of living, to the best possible physical and mental health, and the right to education (including compulsory, free primary education for children). It guarantees rights to social security, which means a minimum standard of living.



Table 3.11
Distribution of Households across their Possessing Various Social Security Cards

Status of Card Holder	No. of HH
BPL	509
BPL, MGNREGA	27
BPL, MGNREGA, MHIS	5
BPL, MGNREGA, MHIS, AAY, EPIC	3
BPL, MGNREGA, MHIS, EPIC	486
BPL, MGNREGA, AAY, EPIC	9
BPL, MGNREGA, EPIC	391
BPL, MHIS	15
BPL, MHIS, EPIC	171
BPL, AAY	3
BPL, AAY, EPIC	5
BPL, EPIC	943
APL	126
APL, MGNREGA	14
APL, MGNREGA, MHIS	6
APL, MGNREGA, MHIS, EPIC	151
APL, MGNREGA, AAY	1
APL, MGNREGA, MHIS, AAY, EPIC	2
APL, MGNREGA, EPIC	112
APL, MHIS, EPIC	41
APL, EPIC	623
MGNREGA	212
MGNREGA, MHIS SMART CARD	38
MGNREGA, MHIS, AAY	1
MGNREGA, MHIS, AAY, EPIC	15
MGNREGA, MHIS, EPIC	2836
MGNREGA, AAY	5
MGNREGA, AAY, EPIC	61
MGNREGA, EPIC	3725
MHIS SMART CARD	121
MHIS SMART CARD, AAY, EPIC	4
MHIS SMART CARD, EPIC	1211
AAY	25
AAY, EPIC	47
EPIC	9245
EPIC, RATION CARD	3
None	956
No Response	31
Total	22,179



As a welfare state, India has taken the responsibility for developing appropriate systems for providing social protection and assistance to its citizens. The matters relating to Social Security are listed in the Directive Principles of State Policy and the subjects in the Concurrent List of the Constitution of India. The concerns of providing social security is reflected in Article 41 of the Indian Constitution wherein it states,- “the State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement, and in other cases of undeserved want” and in Article 42: Provision for just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief- “the State shall make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief. Government of India in recent years has been making various efforts to bring a large number of people under the umbrella of social security.

Among the poor, when the primary earner falls chronically ill the household economy gets shattered. There is reduction in the family income and the meager earnings get channelized for medical treatment. Inability to meet the cost of school books, uniform, fees, commuting to school, etc., children’s education becomes the casualty. Pulled out from school, the children are forced to supplement the family earnings. If the illness is long and permanent in nature the female member of the house enters into labour market and if the illness is short-lived and curable, children get pushed to work for the survival of the family (Bazen, & Claire, 2005).

A number of studies throw light on the incidence of child labour due to absence of social security in times of economic insecurity and health insecurity. The poor financial condition is one of the reasons for ill-health among the people and it pushes children into labour market where they also end up into poverty and ill-health (Osiruemu, 2007). After having lost the command of earning due to general illness, occupational diseases, HIV, accidents etc., the adult members of the family start depending on their children for earning and such situation forces children to work (Whetten, et al., 2011). Apart from ill-health, disability of parents also forces children to engage in earning from early childhood years. The adverse impact of working child is that along with losing basic education they also suffer from many work related injuries and diseases and they often become permanently disabled by the time they grow up (Purkayastha, A. & Dipankar, 1998). In case of distress migration children who are accompanied by their parents or relatives join the labour market along with their guardians. Converging different Social Security Schemes would enable child labour families to come out of extreme economic distress and grim poverty and create a condition wherein their children go to school.



Chapter 4

Situational Analysis of Working Children

The total children in the surveyed population of East Jaintia Hills District and West Jaintia Hills District were 66921. The incidence of working children was 3.3 per cent i.e. 2242 full-time working children (only working children (OW)) were identified through the survey. There were 59 children who were reported to be attending school and were also working (ASW) and they constituted (0.1 per cent) of the total children in the surveyed population. There were 740 children who were reported to be neither at school nor at work (NSNW) and they constituted 1.2 per cent of the total children in the surveyed population.

The village-level incidence and magnitude of child labour in the **Amlarem Block of the West Jaintia Hills District** is discussed in the following paragraph. Village Mustem was reported to have 60 per cent of the working children in Amlarem Block. 62 per cent of the working children in village Mustem are boys. Most of them are working as casual labour or as domestics. In village Dapdeng 2.8 per cent of the children in the village were found to be working as casual labourers. 28 per cent of child labour in Amlarem Block is from village Jarain. Out of the 21 child labour a substantial percentage (66.7 per cent) are boys. While 42 per cent of the child labourers are into casual labour - some also work as domestics, helpers in tea Shops, self-employed or are into some work which has not been specifically reported. The incidence of child labour in village Mupyut was found to be 1.4 per cent of the child labour in Amlarem Block. Children in this village are working as farmers. In village Nongtalang Amsohmahaleng the frequency of child labour was reported to be 4 per cent of the child labour in Amlarem Block. The children are working as either domestics or casual labour. In village Shkentalang the incidence of child labour was found to be 5.3 per cent of the child labour in the Block. They were found to be casual labourers involved in cattle rearing or working as domestics.

In all the villages of the Amlarem Block, boys are found to be engaged in work more than girls. This could be due to the invisibility of the work done by girl children. Often boys are sent out or are able to go out and seek work. However girls are engaged in work at home which is not visible. While only boys are noticed to be working it is important to keep in mind the invisible labour which does not contribute to data in terms of numbers but exists nevertheless. 6 per cent of the child labour are below 14 years of age. This is the tender age of the children when they require care and support. It is noticed that 54 per cent of child labour are engaged as casual labourers, 33 per cent as domestics and 9 per cent child labour are involved in either helping at tea Shops, in farming or cattle rearing or are self-employed or they are engaged in some work which has not been specifically reported. (Annexure 5)

The prevalence and degree of child labour in each village in the **Laskein Block of West Jaintia Hills District** has been discussed in the paragraph below. In village Pyntei 8.1 per cent children were reported to be working. They are working either as casual labourers or as domestics. Some of them are involved in work which has not been specifically reported. In village Raliang the incidence of child labour is 2.2 per cent and the children are working as domestics. Village Shangpung Moosyiem was found to have a frequency of 7.3 per cent of child labour from the Block. Children were reported to be working as domestics, casual



labourers or in automobile related work (working in a garage). The occurrence of child labour in village Khliehrangnah was reported to be 4.8 per cent of the child labour in the Block. Children were reported to be working as casual labourers. The incidence of child labour in village Mynkrem was reported to be 21.9 per cent of the child labour in the Block. Children are engaged in work as farmers, casual labourers, or domestics and in work which has not been specifically reported. The prevalence of child labour in the village Khlookyning was reported to be 4.8 per cent of child labour in the Block. The children were found to be working as casual labourers or as farmers. In village Mynska the incidence of child labour was reported to be 8.9 per cent of the child labour in the Block, An overwhelming percentage i.e., 90 per cent of the child labour are boys and only 10 per cent are girls. They were engaged in work as casual labourers, domestics or other work which has not been specifically reported. In village Khonshnong the occurrence of child labour was reported to be 13 per cent of the child labour in the Block. They are engaged in work either as domestics, farmers, casual labourers or in automobile related work like car cleaning, with 75 per cent of children working as domestics. In village longkasaroo the incidence of child labour was reported to be 5.7 per cent of the child labour in the Block. They are engaged in casual labour and farming. In village Laskein the occurrence of child labour was reported to be 13 per cent of the child labour in the Block, of which 75 per cent are boys and 25 per cent are girls. They are engaged in work such as farming, as domestics or as casual labourers. In village Phramer, the frequency of child labour reported was 10.5 per cent of the child labour in the Block. The children are engaged in work as domestics, helpers in hotels and tea shops, casual labourers, carpenters or automobile related work. A substantial number of children (70 per cent) are engaged in work as domestics. In village Lakadong the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 1.6 per cent of the child labour in the Block. 50 per cent of the children are engaged in work as domestics and are also attending school while 50 per cent are working as casual labourers.

In Laskein Block there are a large number of children who are working as domestics (34 per cent), casual labourers (32 per cent), or farmers (20 per cent). There are relatively fewer number of children engaged in helping at tea shops, automobile related work, carpentry or in work that has not been specifically reported. The incidence of boys as child labour is 70 per cent while 30 per cent are girls. Further, 13 per cent of the child labour are below 14 years of age. Their childhood should be protected and they need immense support and guidance in order to grow up to be fully functioning healthy adults who contribute for the development of society. (Annexure 6)

The degree and incidence of the situation of child labour in **Thadlaskein Block of West Jaintia Hills District** has been expounded on in the passage below. In village ATS Kyor Tyrkhang the incidence of child labour was reported to be 0.20 per cent of the total child labour in the Block. Children are engaged in work as casual labourers. In village Chyrmang Nein the occurrence of child labour was reported to be 1.15 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 67 per cent boys and 33 per cent girls. The children were reported to be working either as domestics or casual labourers. In village Chyrmang Wah the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 0.20 per cent of the child labour in the Block. Children are reported to be engaged in work as casual labourers. In village Demthring the incidence of child labour was found to be 4.25 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 82 per cent boys and 18 per cent girls. The children are engaged in helping at hotels and tea shops (9 per cent), as casual labourers (50 per cent), cattle rearing (9 per cent), abattoir (4 per cent), construction and stone quarries



(18 per cent), automobile related work (4 per cent) or as domestics (4 per cent). In village Lad Mukhla the incidence of child labour was found to be 0.20 per cent of the child labour in the Block. The children are reported to be working as casual labourers. In village Moodop the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 10.3 per cent of child labour in the Block with a substantial percentage of boys (75 per cent) and 25 per cent girls. A substantial number of the children are engaged in work as domestics (73 per cent). They are also working as casual labourers (25 per cent) and farming (2 per cent). In village Moodymmmai, the incidence of child labour was reported to be 4 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 58 per cent boys and 42 per cent girls. Children are engaged in work as casual labour (42 per cent), domestic workers (26 per cent), helping in tea shops (22 per cent), vendor (5 per cent) and automobile related work (5 per cent) such as driving. Of the children reported to be working, 26 per cent were reported to be attending school and working. In village Mookynniang the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 1.5 per cent of the child labour in the Block. The children are working in automobile related work like car washing (12.5 per cent), as casual labourers (25 per cent), as domestics (25 per cent) or as farmers (25 per cent) and in work that has not been specifically reported (12.5 per cent). 62.5 per cent of the child labour are boys and 37.5 per cent are girls. In village Mustem Muplang 6.3 per cent of the children were reported to be working. They are working as casual labourers (67 per cent), domestics (19 per cent) and in stone quarries (14 per cent). In village Myngor 3.7 per cent of the children were found to be working with 28.5 per cent as casual labour, 43 per cent as domestics, 14.5 per cent as farmers and 14 per cent are self-employed. In this village 71 per cent child labour are girls while 29 per cent are boys. This is a slight deviation from the typical finding of more boys than girls as child labour. In village Mynkoiram 2.1 per cent of the children were found to be child labour. They are working as farmers (67 per cent) and domestics (33 per cent). In village Nartiang the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 16 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 65 per cent boys and 35 per cent girls as child labour. They are working in stone quarries (32 per cent), as casual labourers (42 per cent), domestics (7 per cent), as farmers (9 per cent), are self-employed (9 per cent) and are into other work which has not been specified (1 per cent). In village Pynthorlangtein, 0.8 per cent of children were reported to be child labour of which children who were working as farmers (50 per cent) or as domestics (50 per cent). In village Rtiang Sangphaw the incidence of child labour was reported to be 1.1 per cent of the children in the village. The children were reported to be working as casual labourers (33 per cent) and farmers (67 per cent). In village Saitsama the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 3.4 per cent of the children in the village. They are working in agriculture as farmers (94 per cent) or as casual labourers (6 per cent). Of the child labour 70.5 per cent are boys. In village Shoshrieh, 4.7 per cent of the children were reported to be child labour, of which 90 per cent are boys and all the children are working as farmers. In village Umlangshor 3 per cent of the children were reported to be child labour.

The children are working as casual labourers (70 per cent), domestics (20 per cent), or are self-employed (10 per cent). The incidence of child labour in village Ummulong was reported to be 10.6 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 65 per cent boys and 35 per cent girls as child labour. They are working casual labourers (40 per cent), domestics (49 per cent), and self-employed work (9 per cent) and in work that has not been specifically reported (2 per cent). In village Wahiajer the incidence of child labour was reported to be 21.2 per cent of the child labour in the Block. 65 per cent of child labour in this village are boys and 35 per cent are girls. They are working as casual labour, domestic workers, Automobile related work (driving), farmers, and in work that has not been specifically reported. In village Umsawe the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 0.20 per cent of the child labour in the Block.



Children are reported to be working as carpenters. In village Sohmynting the incidence of child labour was reported to be 10.2 per cent of the child labour in the Block children with 75 per cent boys and 25 per cent girls as child labour. They work as casual labour, domestic workers and farmers. In village Mukhla Nongrim the incidence of child labour was reported to be 6.17 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 63 per cent boys and 37 per cent girls as child labour. The children are reported to be working as casual labourers, domestics, farmers, or automobile related work or construction.

In **Thadlaskein Block**, 18 per cent of the children are between 8-14 years of age. These children are at a critical stage of development and require care and emotional support. In 82 per cent of the villages surveyed boys are more visibly engaged in child labour than girls. The visibility of work may come in the way of rehabilitation as many girl child labour may not be captured in the data due to invisible work leading to the girls children being ignored in terms of rehabilitation. It is important to take note of this from the rehabilitation point of view as it is very vital for all child labour to be rehabilitated and not only the visible child labour. The children are mostly involved in casual labour, domestic work and agricultural work. Children engaged in casual labour are involved in a series of short term jobs. They are hired for specific tasks or hired by the hour as and when required by the employers. The uncertainty involved with working as casual labourers is very high. It is important to note that uncertainty means there is lot of anxiety and unhealthy competition involved in getting jobs. It promotes negative feelings in the child as they have to constantly deal with the emotional trauma of rejection along with the dangerous and unhealthy physical conditions of stay (e.g. on the pavement or the road) which may lead to juvenile delinquency. Children are also working in automobile related work, construction, stone quarries, helping in tea shops and abattoir. It is well known that the occupations listed are hazardous in nature. Automobile related work can lead to cuts and bruises that are often left unattended leading to bacterial infections and skin disorders. Children working in Hotels and Tea Shops are constantly exposed to ill treatment. They are abused by their employers verbally and are often at their mercy. They are also exposed to working in hot and stuffy environment and can suffer burns or cuts and bruises owing to the nature of their work.



Digging of Coal Mine



The prevalence of child labour in the villages of **Khliehriat Block in East Jaintia Hills District** has been deliberated in the paragraph below. In village Pamrakmai 4.4 per cent of children were reported to be child labour with substantial percentage of boys (68 per cent) than girls (32 per cent). A total of 2.5 per cent of the children are working as domestics. In the case of 97.5 per cent of the child labour the work that they engage in has not been specifically reported. In village Pamrapaithlu 4 per cent of children were reported to be working of which none of the children's work has been specifically reported. In village Wapung Skur, 1.7 per cent of the children were reported to be working and their work has not been specifically reported. In village Sohkympor the incidence of child labour was reported to be 3.69 per cent of the child labour in the Block. 86 per cent of the child labourers are boys and 14 per cent are girls. 5 per cent children are working as domestics. The incidence of children engaged in work that has not been specifically reported is 95 per cent.

In village WapungShnong 3.2 per cent children were reported to be child labour with majority (59 per cent) boys and 41 per cent girls. The nature of work that the children are involved in has not been specifically reported. In village Byrwai, 4.6 per cent children were reported to be working. The children are working as casual labourers, domestics, in cattle rearing, or as farmers or are into work that has not been specifically reported. In village lapmala, 6.8 per cent of the children were found to be working. 2 per cent of children are domestics and the nature of work for 98 per cent of the child labour has not been specifically reported. In village Byndihati the incidence of child labour was reported to be 4.4 per cent of the child labour in the Block with 54 per cent boys and 46 per cent girls as child labour. The work done by the children has not been specifically reported. In village Dienchynrum, 1.6 per cent of the children were reported to be working with 71 per cent as domestics, 14.5 per cent as casual labourers and 14.5 per cent as vendors. In village Dkhiah East 4.3 per cent children were found to be working. The work done has not been specifically reported in case of 9 per cent of the children. 77 per cent of the child labourers are boys and 23 per cent are girls. The children are working as domestics (50 per cent), casual labourers (45.5 per cent) and in cattle rearing (4.5 per cent). In village Dkhiah West the incidence of child labour was reported to be 1.9 per cent. The children were working as domestic helper and casual labourer.

In village Jaliyah the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 4.4 per cent with 57 per cent boys and 43 per cent girls. The children are working as domestics, casual labourers, in cattle rearing, or farmers or are self-employed. In village Lad Rymbai the prevalence of child labour reported was 5.3 per cent with 67 per cent boys and 33 per cent girls. The children are working as casual labourers, domestics, vendors, automobile related work, coal mining (8 per cent), watchman, and self-employed work. In village Mookhep the incidence of child labour was reported to be 0.9 per cent of which 67 per cent are working as domestics and 33 per cent are working in automobile related work. In village Khliehriat East the incidence of child labour was reported to be 1.6 per cent with 70 per cent boys and 30 per cent girls. The work engaged in by the children has not been specifically reported. In village Khliehriat West the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 4.04 per cent with 57 per cent boys and 43 per cent girls. The children are working either as casual labourers or domestics. In village Chiehruphi the incidence of child labour was reported to be 1.5 per cent with all the children working as domestics. It is important to note here that as domestics children are made to work long hours with low or no wages. They are treated as second class citizens and often face physical, verbal, emotional and sexual abuse. They can fall prey to exhaustion and



fatigue, psychological impairment and malnutrition. In village Lumshnong the incidence of child labour was reported to be 2.5 per cent with 78 per cent boys and 22 per cent girls. The children were found to be working as casual labourers, domestics, farmers or vendors. The prevalence of child labour reported in village Thangskaiwas 5.9 per cent. The children were reported to be working as casual labourers or domestics. In village Wahiajer the occurrence of child labour was reported to be 3.1 per cent with 90 per cent boys and 10 per cent girls. The children were reported to be working as casual labourers or domestics.

In village Cham Cham the incidence of child labour was reported to be 2.46 per cent of the child labour in the Block. The children are working as domestics, casual labourers, farmers and in cattle rearing. For some children the work engaged in had not been specifically reported. In village longkaluh the occurrence of child labour was reported to be 5.1 per cent with 57 per cent boys and 43 per cent girls as child labour. 1.5 per cent of the children are working as domestics while for 98.5 per cent the work has not been specifically reported. In village Mukhaialong the incidence of child labour was reported to be 5.3 per cent with 61 per cent boys and 39 per cent girls reported as working. The nature of their work has not been specifically reported. The prevalence of child labour in village Tuber Kmaishnong was reported to be 4.6 per cent with 60 per cent boys and 40 per cent girls reported to be working. The children are working as casual labourers, domestics, farmers, automobile related work, in cattle rearing and self-employment. In village Tuber Shohshrieh the incidence for child labour has been reported to be 5.8 per cent. The nature of their work includes casual labour, working as domestics, or in automobile related work or self-employment. For some children the nature of their work has not been specifically reported.

In village Moolamanoh the incidence of child labour was reported to be 11.2 per cent with 69 per cent boys and 31 per cent girls as child labour. The children are working domestics or casual labour. In village Musniang Jonden the incidence of child labour was reported to be 9.9 per cent with 67 per cent boys and 33 per cent girls reported to be working. The children are working as casual labourers (28 per cent), as domestics (50 per cent), stone quarries, farming and coal mining (2 per cent). In village Moolang the prevalence of child labour reported was 1.8 per cent. The nature of their work includes domestic work, casual labour, cattle rearing and work that has not been specifically stated. In village Lad Wah Wapung the incidence of child labour was reported to be 3.9 per cent. All the child labour are boys and the nature of their work has not been specifically reported. In village Wahsarang the incidence of child labour reported was 8.9 per cent with 64 per cent boys and 36 per cent girls reported as working and their nature of work has not been specifically reported. In village Rymbai the incidence of child labour was reported to be 4.48 per cent of the child labour in the Block. However the nature of their work has not been specifically stated. In Khliehriat there is a common trend in the data wherein the nature of work of the children if often not specifically stated. The children involved in work in this block could be involved in hazardous work which will compromise their mental, physical and emotional health. In village Sookilo the incidence of child labour reported was 4.4 per cent and their nature of work has not been specifically reported. In village Sutnga the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 3.69 per cent of the child labour in the Block. The nature of their work includes casual labour, domestic work, automobile related work, or self-employment. In village Moopala the incidence of child labour was reported to be 2 per cent and the nature of their work has not been specifically reported. In village Mookympad the prevalence of child labour was reported to be 2.7 per cent. The children are working as casual labourers or domestics. (Annexure 8)



Disbanded coal mine



Labour Camps



In the **Khliehriat Block** of East Jaintia Hills District about 46 per cent of the villages have reported an overwhelming number of children whose work has not been specifically reported. These boys and girls could be involved in any work that is hazardous and dangerous. They could be engaged as casual labourers, as domestics, involved in coal mining or other worst forms of child labour. It is important to know the nature of work that the child is involved in as this gives us a background in terms of the appropriate rehabilitation that is to be provided. Coal mining is another hazardous work that is engaged in by children in this block. It involves long hours of work in cramped or unhygienic conditions.

The incidence and magnitude of child labour in **Saipung Block in East Jaintia Hills District** has been discussed in the paragraph below. The incidence of child labour in village Jalaphet Bri Sumer was reported to be 12.08 per cent of the working children in the Block, of which 66 per cent are boys and 33 per cent are girls. 88 per cent of the children are working as domestics and the remaining children are engaged in farming, casual labour or in work that has not been specifically reported. In village Jalaphet Bri Sutnga 31 numbers of child labour were found which constitute 6.93 per cent of the working children in the Block. 80 per cent of the working children are boys and 20 per cent are girls. 6.4 per cent child labour in this village is involved in coal mining. Village Muliat Bri Sutnga was reported to have 1.11 per cent of child labour in the block. The children are involved in work as domestics or as casual labourers. The incidence of child labour in village Muliat Bri Sumer was reported to be 6.5 per cent of the working children in the Block. Among the child labour 73 per cent are boys while 27 per cent are girls. Of the total working children, 55 per cent of the children are working as domestics. Children are also involved in work as casual labourers, in automobile related work, animal husbandry or are into self-employment.

In village Tluh, the incidence of working children is 0.67 per cent of the working children in the Block, who are working as domestics. The magnitude of working children in village Sakhain Moolinen is 9 and the incidence is 2.01 per cent. Children are working as domestics or as casual labourers. In village Lammyrsiang the incidence of child labour is 0.89 per cent. They are involved in work as domestics or farmers and for some children the work engaged in has not been specifically reported. In village Moolamyliang the incidence of child labour is 1.11 per cent of the child labour in Saipung Block. The children are working as domestics (80 per cent) or as farmers (20 per cent). In village Kremmyrsiang the incidence of child labour is 5.8 per cent of the total children in the village. The children are working as domestics or as casual labourers. In village Mookhain the prevalence of child labour is 5.2 per cent of the total children in the village. The nature of work involved in is casual labour. In village Mynthlu the magnitude of child labour is 44 and the frequency is 11.4 per cent of the total children in the village. The children are working either as casual labourers or into automobile related work or are self-employed. In village Myntriang the degree of working children is 34 and the prevalence is 15.2 per cent of the total children in the village. The children are working as casual labourers or are self-employed. For some children the work engaged in has not been specifically stated. Majority of the child labour is between 4-14 years of age.

In village Kyrluh the incidence of child labour is 7.4 per cent of the total children in the village. Their nature of work involves vending or some work which has not been specifically reported. In village Narwan the magnitude of child labour is 127 and the frequency is 28.4 per cent of the total child labour in the Block. 49 per cent of the child labour are between 4-14 years of age. The children are working as casual labourers, are self-employed or are into some work which has not been specifically reported. While 49 per cent of child labour



are boys a majority of child labour (51 per cent) are girls. This could be due to girls being engaged in visible work thus resulting in appropriate reporting of girl child labour. It is noticed here that 49 per cent of the child labour in between 4-14 years of age. In village Pala 7 per cent of the children in the village are child labour and are working as farmers. In village Kahnar 2.5 per cent of the children are child labour who are working as casual labourers, domestics or as farmers. In village Samasi the frequency of child labour is 2 per cent of the children in the village who are working as domestics or as casual labourers. In village Myhthning 12.8 per cent of the children are child labour. All the children are working as domestics (100 per cent) - an overwhelming amount. In village Lakasein 5.6 per cent of the children are child labour and are working as casual labourers. In village Umkyrpong 5.3 per cent of the children are child labour and are working as casual labourers, domestics or are self-employed. 71 per cent of the child labour are boys.

In **Saipung Block** 29 per cent of the child labour are working as domestics. In 64 per cent of the villages there are more boys engaged as child labour than girls. It is important to note the possibility of girl child labour being sidelined for the purpose of rehabilitation due to the invisibility of their work. They are engaged in multiple works in the household such as cooking, cleaning, sibling care etc. This kind of work is not readily visible and is usually not considered to be work per se. (Annexure 9)

Villages namely Mupyut and Shkentalang of Amlarem Block; villages ATS KyorTyrkhang, ChyrmangWah, Ladmukhla, Pynthorlangtein and Umsawe of Thadlaskein Block; Khaiehrangnah and Mynska of Laskein in West Jaintia Hills District; and Mookhep of Khliehriat Block; and Tluh, Lamyrsiang and Pala of Saipung Block in East Jaintia Hills District reported the least incidence of working children (less than 1 per cent). It is also important to underline the fact that incidence of child labour is the highest in the village Myntriang (15.2 per cent) of Saipung Block in the East Jaintia Hills District. On the whole, there are 6 villages in the East Jaintia Hills District where the incidence of child labour is over 9 per cent, 3 villages in Khliehriat Block namely: MusniangJonden (9.9 per cent), Wahsarang (8.9 per cent) and 3 villages in Saipung Block: Mynthlu (11.4 per cent), Mynthning (12.8) and Myntriang (15.2 per cent). While 3 villages West Jaintia Hills District has the incidence of child labour above 6 per cent; Pyntei (8.1 per cent) in Laskein Block; Mustem Muplang (6.3 per cent), and Nartiang (6.6 per cent) in Thadlaskein Block; there are 5 villages lapmala (6.8 per cent), and Tuber Shohshrieh (6.6 per cent) in Khliehriat Block and Mulait Bri Sutnga (2.4 per cent), Kyr Luh (7.4 per cent), and Narwan in Saipung Block (8.7 per cent) spread over 2 blocks of East Jaintia Hills District which have the incidence of child labour above 6 per cent. In West Jaintia Hills District, 2.7 per cent constituted working children who were reported to be carrying out a range of work which were broadly categorized as Helper, Broomstick Labour, Helper in Tea Stall, Handyman, Vendor, Working in Agriculture, etc. Children were also reported to have been involved in Cattle Rearing.

The incidence of working children is lesser (2.7 per cent) in West Jaintia Hills District as compared to East Jaintia Hills District where the incidence of working children is 3.7 per cent. While the proportion of children in West Jaintia Hills District who were attending school and working is 0.05 per cent the percentage of children who were attending school and working in East Jaintia Hills District 0.1 per cent. This is obvious from the fact that the employment opportunities are higher in East Jaintia Hills District because of the



concentration of coal mines. The incidence of children who were neither at school nor at work (NSNW) is lesser in West Jaintia Hills District (0.2 per cent) as compared to East Jaintia Hills District (1.7 per cent). This demands more efforts to withdraw children from work for rehabilitation and enroll children of the school going age in school in both the districts with specific attention to the East Jaintia Hills District.

In the villages of both East Jaintia Hills District and West Jaintia Hills District, frequent occupational shift was observed among the working children combining household work and wage work. It was reported that children carry out similar types of work both in their own houses and as wage-work. These works include mopping, walking long distance for buying different things, washing clothes, cooking, serving foods, washing dishes, fetching water, fetching fire-hood, caring of children, caring of sick, caring of old age persons, working as helpers in a variety of repair works, preparing fodder and feeding cattle, herding cattle, carrying food for people working in agriculture, watering the fields, weeding of different crops in agriculture, harvesting, work relating to food processing, loading and un-loading agriculture produce, working as helpers in places where agricultural products are sold, etc. Children also found in work relating to coal mines on the same day when they carried out work relating to agriculture during another part of the day. It was found that most of the children came under the category of Casual labour as most of their work/employment consists of a series of short-term jobs. They were usually found hired by the hour or day or for the performance of specific tasks, be it coal-related work or other types of work hazardous and/or non-hazardous.

In both the districts - East Jaintia Hills District and West Jaintia Hills District majority of child labour are working as domestics (31.51 per cent), casual labourers (27.42 per cent), engaged in multiple work (25.95 per cent) or are self-employed (5.08 per cent). Child labour are also involved in agriculture (4.56 per cent), construction (1.48 per cent), automobile related work (1.43 per cent), work in the coal mines (0.35 per cent), Hotels and Tea Shops (*Dhabas*) (0.52 per cent), carpentry (0.09 per cent), abattoir (0.04 per cent), or as a watchman (0.04 per cent). There are various physical and mental health hazards associated with the occupations listed above. In coal mines the children have to sit in cramped odd positions for long hours leading to back problems or joint aches. Children can develop skin diseases, chronic cough or tuberculosis due to lack of proper food or nutrition, unhygienic working conditions or due to cuts from the rocks and absence of portable water or lack of proper sanitation facilities in and around the mining area. In the construction industry there is high exposure to dust, varied temperatures and sharp objects which causes physical harm to the children. In construction sites accidents can occur and children can develop respiratory disorders, undergo constant fatigue and dehydration or infections and water borne diseases. Children working in Abattoirs have to undergo the trauma of watching animals being slaughtered which can numb their emotional state. They are exposed to sharp working tools, communicable diseases and extremely unhygienic working conditions. They can develop asthma, bronchitis, sleep apnea and are prone to communicable diseases like bird flu or swine flu. In agricultural work children are exposed to pesticides and sharp tools used to work in the fields like sickles. They are prone to insect bites, respiratory problems and abuse by employers.



Table 4.1
Distribution of working children (below 18 years) across Occupations and Processes

Sl. No	Occupations / Processes	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
1	Domestic Work	402 (27.20)	323 (39.25)	725 (31.51)
2	Casual Labour	450 (30.45)	181 (21.99)	631 (27.42)
3	Watchman	1 (0.7)	0	1 (0.04)
4	Agriculture	78 (5.28)	27 (3.28)	105 (4.56)
5	Animal Husbandry	34 (2.30)	1 (0.12)	35 (1.52)
6	Automobile related work	30 (2.03)	3 (0.36)	33 (1.43)
7	Construction	22 (1.49)	12 (1.46)	34 (1.48)
8	Carpentry	2 (0.14)	0	2 (0.09)
9	Coal Mines	7 (0.47)	1 (0.12)	8 (0.35)
10	Hotels and Tea Shops (Dhabas)	6 (0.41)	6 (0.73)	12 (0.52)
11	Abattoir	1 (0.07)	0	1 (0.04)
12	Multiple Work *	374 (25.30)	223 (27.10)	597 (25.95)
13	Self-Employed	71 (4.80)	46 (5.59)	117 (5.08)
	Total	1478 (100)	823 (100)	2301 (100)

Note: * Multiple work involves Domestic work, Construction, Agriculture, Stone quarries, etc.

Child domestic workers are often exposed severe abuse, malnutrition, fatigue and exhaustion. They are not treated as human beings and work long hours. The children involved in casual labour tend to work odd jobs as an when it is available. There is lot of uncertainty related to the work and they have to sleep on pavements or roads as they search for jobs. In all the jobs mentioned there is lot of mental stress or pressure on the child. Children as young as 4 years old are found to be working in these hazardous occupations. Childhood is a stage of development wherein children should be protected from harm and taught skills in order to contribute to society as adults. Being involved in hazardous work harms the child and hampers his/her development.



Table 4.2
Distribution of Working Children (below 18 years of age) across Migrant Status

District	Block	Native	Inter-State Migrants	Total
West Jaintia Hills	Amlarem	74	1	75
	Laskein	120	3	123
	Thadlaskein	518	-	518
East Jaintia Hills	Khliehriat	1100	32	1138
	Saipung	435	11	447
Total		2247	47	2301

Out of the total 2301 working children, 54 of them were migrants. 97.65 per cent of the total working children were natives while 2.05 per cent and 0.3 per cent were migrants from other states and foreign country respectively. This shows that there is high prevalence of child labour among the native children. Among the blocks, Khliehriat (1138) has the highest number of working children followed by Thadlaskein (518), Saipung (447), Laskein (123) and Amlarem (75).



Chapter 5

Migration Trend on the Demand for Child Labour

5.1 Introduction

Extraction of minerals like coal and limestone from the earth's crust is one of the most important activities in Jaintia Hills. Mining operations are politically sensitive because of which it was difficult to collect information related to children in the coal-mining areas. Fearing negative consequences, the informants and respondents were very hesitant to talk. Getting direct access to children had been a challenging task and those involved in this study had to be cautious in their approach to children at mine sites, in case of repercussions for these children. When communities were interviewed in their villages, it tended to be the elders who were most vocal in answering questions. This chapter discusses the existence and demand for working children in the area surveyed.

Coal mining in particular has been a growing industry since the Supreme Court's ban on the sale of timber for commercial purposes in 1981, which had been an important source of income for many farmers. According to the Directorate of Mineral Resources Meghalaya, the state is rich in tertiary coal deposits with an estimated 640 million tons in reserves. Over 40 million tones are reported to be found in Jaintia Hills, partially bordering Bangladesh.

The number of mines in the district is uncertain due to un-enforced government registration. More than 70 per cent of its land is used in mining activities and large scale extraction is carried out in the absence of government regulation. The law in Meghalaya does not prohibit unscientific mining, but rather considers it the right of the property holder to employ the land for whatever purpose is desired. Coal is generally extracted and supplied in raw form to markets in Bangladesh and different States of India. There has been little industrial growth related to coal mining since the coal processing industries are largely underdeveloped. Nonetheless, the coal mining industry boosts the local economy through increase employment and income for the local population.

The mining activities in Jaintia hills district are carried out in private land owned by individuals. Coal is extracted by surface mining method commonly known as 'rat-hole'. Pits are dug into the ground to reach the coal seam. Thereafter, tunnels are made into the seam sideways to extract coal. They are then brought into the pit by using a wheel barrow and then taken out and dumped on nearby un-mined area. The extracted coal is carried by trucks to the larger dumping places near highways for its trade and transportation. Entire road sides in and around mining areas are used for piling of coal which is a major source of air, water and soil pollution. Off road movement of trucks and other vehicles in the area causes further damage to the ecology of the area. Hence, a large area of the land is spoiled and denuded of vegetal cover not only by mining but also by dumping and storage of coal and associated. Children living and working in this area are the worst affected.

The coal mines are mostly privately owned; small in size and highly dispersed. The mining is carried out under customary rights and are not covered by the Mines Act or Rules because of the complex land holding system and exclusive rights of the land owners on land resources as guaranteed under 6th Schedule of the Constitution of India. As a result, in Jaintia Hills,



coal and limestone are being mined indiscriminately in unscientific manner and according to the convenience of the land owner.

Coal mining in Jaintia Hills is carried out through two different processes i) Excavation of Vertical Shaft; and ii) Horizontal Excavation/Rat-hole Mining. The work involved in the process of Excavation of Vertical Shaft include: clearing the land by cutting and removing the ground vegetation; digging the shaft; excavating into the ground till the coal strata are found; making tunnels into the strata side ways to extract coal; bringing the extracted coal into the pitch by using conical baskets or a wheel barrow; taking the coal out to the surface; dumping coal in the un-mined area and so on. The work relating to this type of coal mining is carried out physically with the help of digging tools.

The work involved in the process of Horizontal Excavation/Rat-hole Mining include: Digging Hole horizontally with a diameter of 1 feet to 4 feet; loading the coal in a small trolley; carrying the coal to the vertical shaft bottom; dumping coal on un-mined area. In this process, the labourer has to bend his body and the work needs constant movement of the body. Since the diameter of the hole to be dug in this process of coal mining is very small, it is not possible to carry out this task in the posture of sitting or standing.

Demand for labour combined with the employment opportunities has attracted people from within and outside the country and migration was reported during the survey. The term migrant labour itself expresses two things. Firstly, migrant refers to a person who moves from one place to another that is basically from the place of origin to the place of destination. Their movement from one place to another may be due to economic, social or political reasons. Secondly, labour implies a social class comprising those who do manual labour or work for wages. Labour can be classified into three major categories, they are skilled labourer, semi-skilled labourer and unskilled labourer. Therefore, migrant labour in general would comprise people who have migrated from their place of origin to a new place basically for economic factors. They earn their livelihood by employing their physical labour and are paid in wages. This kind of migrants is very much vulnerable to exploitation because they are unskilled, less educated, and contractual, have less or no job security and have to work in a new place which is not the place of their origin. The following tables highlight the profile of the migrant respondents related to the study.

Studies of migration in developing countries have confirmed that the decision of rural people to move to cities is predominantly influenced by economic factors. In fact a strong relationship exists between economic conditions in urban and rural areas that influence rural migrants' decision (Rondinelli, 1986: 681). It is found that economic, social and psychological factors influencing people's expectations of finding better opportunities in cities are perceived differently by various social and age groups in rural areas. For educated people migration is mainly motivated by the 'pull' of the opportunities in cities. Less educated, less mobile and married migrants tend to move because of the 'push' factors of rural poverty and unemployment. Todaro's study has shown that much of the migration from the rural areas is the result of perceived or expected, rather than actual, employment opportunities. Migrants compare the possibilities of obtaining jobs or higher wages in cities with the advantages of remaining in rural areas (Todaro, 1969: 142). There are three main theoretical approaches to the study of human migration: (i) Pull-push theory, which considers the interaction of factors that attract migrants to their destination with factors that repel them from their origin; (ii) the human capital approach interprets migration as an investment. Potential migrants are assumed to evaluate costs and streams of benefits associated with migrating to alternative destinations to decide whether to migrate or not and to select a destination;



(iii) the selectivity approach proposes that migrants are the most enterprising members of a community who respond to labour market disequilibria by migrating. These three theoretical approaches to migration overlap to a significant extent (Falaris, 1979: 335).

5.2 Migration in North East India

The causes of migration in India vary due to the diversity in the nature of migration. Migration is influenced both by the social structure (Mosse et al, 2002) and as well as by the pattern of development. It was concluded by the National Commission on Rural Labour that uneven development was the main cause of seasonal migration. Apart from this regional disparity, inequality between different socio-economic classes and the lop-sided development policy adopted since independence has increased the process of seasonal migration. In tribal areas other factors like deforestation, displacement, the pattern of settlement and intrusion of outsiders, also have played a prominent role.

Mobility occurs when workers in source areas lack suitable options for livelihood, and there are some expectations of improvement in circumstances through migration. The landless poor, who mostly belong to lower caste and indigenous communities from economically backward regions, migrate for survival and constitute a significant proportion of the seasonal labour flow. Factors such as age, education level, wealth, land owned, productivity and job opportunities influence the participation of individuals and households in migration, but so do social attitudes and supporting social networks (Haberfeld et al, 1999: 480; Rogaly et al, 2001: 4550; Mosse et al, 2002: 73; Harriss-White, 2004: 58).

5.3 Migration Pattern in Meghalaya

In 2001, total population of Meghalaya was 2,318,822 in which males were 1,176,087 while females were 1,142,735. Migrants constitute 16.4 per cent of the total population of Meghalaya in 2001. While migrants within the state were 75.5 per cent of the total migrant population, migrants from other states and other countries accounted for 22 per cent and 2.5 per cent of the total migrant population respectively in 2001. The relative importance of female migration to the state can be judged from the fact that women migrants constitute 15.3 per cent of the total women population while male migrants are 17.4 per cent of the total male population.

Table 5.1
Migrants by latest place of Residence¹⁶

Migrants	Persons	Males	Females
Intra-district migrants	2,44,916 (64.)	1,30,163(63.6)	1,14,753(65.8)
Inter-district migrants	41,572(11)	22,641 (11.1)	18,931(10.8)
Inter-state migrants	83,082(22)	45,980(22.4)	37,102(21.2)
International migrants	9,622 (2.5)	5,868(2.9)	3,754(2.2)
Unclassifiable	00	00	00
Total migrants	3,79,192	2,04,652	1,74,540

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.

¹⁶ A person is considered as migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census is other than his place of immediate last residence. By capturing the latest of the migrations in cases where persons have migrated more than once, this concept would give a better picture of current migration scenario.

http://www.censusindia.gov.in/Census_Data_2001/Census_Data_Online/Online_Migration/By_Place_of_Last_Residence.aspx



Out of the total international migrants, 21.4 per cent migrated as they moved with household followed by 15.2 per cent for work or employment and 10.3 per cent on account of marriage. For the inter-state migrants, 22.3 per cent migrated for work or employment, while 19.6 per cent moved with household and 19.3 per cent through marriage.

Table 5.2
Reasons for Migration

Duration of residence	Place of last residence	Total migrants	Work employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after birth	Moved with household	Others
All duration	International migrants	9,622	1,470 (15.2)	236 (2.5)	170 (1.8)	998 (10.3)	91 (1)	2,066 (21.4)	4,591 (47.8)
All duration	Inter-state migrants	83,082	18,527 (22.3)	4,539 (5.5)	3,957 (4.8)	16,083 (19.3)	1,245 (1.5)	16,284 (19.6)	22,447 (27)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.

Among the migrants from different states of India to Meghalaya, 52 per cent were from Assam followed by Bihar (13.5 per cent) and West Bengal (6.4 per cent). Majority of the migrants are engaged in mining and business activities in the state.

Table 5.3
Inter-state Migration (Top three countries)

Migrants from	Persons	Males	Females
Assam	43,185(52)	22,175	21,010
Bihar	11,244(13.5)	7,489	3,755
West Bengal	5,357(6.4)	2,852	2,505

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.

Out of the total international migrants, 48 per cent were from Nepal followed by Bangladesh (47.6 per cent) and China (1.5 per cent). There is high number of migrants from Nepal in Meghalaya as most of them are working as miners in various parts of the state where mining predominantly takes place. Since Meghalaya shares borders with Bangladesh, there are also high Bangladeshi migrants working in various activities including mining and business.

Table 5.4
International In-Migrants by last residence (Top three countries)

Migrants from	Persons	Males	Females
Nepal	4,624(48)	3,219	1,405
Bangladesh	4,586(47.6)	2,401	2,185
China	145(1.5)	92	53

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the percentage.

Most of the coal mining sites are now situated in the East Jaintia Hills district. The limestone and coal mining in this region has been a pull factor for employment for people from within and outside the country. The contribution of Jaintia hills in the overall production of limestone and coal in the state can be ascertained from the two tables below.¹⁷

¹⁷ http://megdm.gov.in/mineral_production.html



Table 5.5
Dispatch of Limestone from Meghalaya

YEAR	JAINTIA HILLS (Metric tonnes)	GARO HILLS (Metric tonnes)	KHASI HILLS (Metric tonnes)	TOTAL (Metric tonnes) Column 2+3+4
1	2	3	4	5
2003-2004	1,90,718	34,768	4,96,264	7,21,750
2004-2005	1,83,091	55,197	4,16,685	6,54,973
2005-2006	5,80,901	51,452	4,11,812	10,44,165
2006-2007	8,88,264	42,383	12,02,080	21,32,727
2007-2008	12,53,947	68,913	7,99,203	21,22,063
2008-2009	14,85,909	69,672	23,20,328	38,75,909
2009-2010	14,97,360	41,687	23,43,106	38,82,153

Source: http://megdmg.gov.in/mineral_production.html

Table 5.6
Dispatch of Coal from Meghalaya

YEAR	JAINTIA HILLS (Metric tonnes)	GARO HILLS (Metric tonnes)	KHASI HILLS (Metric tonnes)	TOTAL (Metric tonnes) (Col.2+3+4)
1	2	3	4	5
2003-2004	39,18,037	10,58,440	4,62,791	54,39,268
2004-2005	36,10,603	11,01,088	6,33,499	53,45,190
2005-2006	38,79,738	11,20,525	5,65,451	55,65,714
2006-2007	40,45,710	11,74,635	5,66,307	57,86,652
2007-2008	43,59,878	13,70,263	8,11,004	65,41,145
2008-2009	28,90,865	15,94,170	10,03,613	54,88,648
2009-2010	37,22,211	15,62,008	4,82,798	57,67,017

Source: http://megdmg.gov.in/mineral_production.html

Acting on the orders of the National Green Tribunal (NGT), the Meghalaya government suspended rat-hole mining and transportation of coal in the entire state from 17th April, 2014 which has affected not only the mining community but also the miners who are predominantly migrants.¹⁸

5.4 Survey findings:

Residential status of the respondents based on the survey conducted

In this analysis, we are considering those respondents as migrants whose place of birth was different from the village where they were interviewed. It is observed that nearly 91 per cent of the total respondents belonged to the village where the interview was conducted. The table shows that out of 22,191 total respondents, 1951 (8.8 per cent) were migrants of which 507 (2.3 per cent) were from other village of Meghalaya (intra-state migrants), 1286 (5.8 per cent) were from other states of India (inter-state migrants) and 149 (0.7 per cent)

¹⁸ <http://www.downtoearth.org.in/content/meghalaya-suspends-rat-hole-coal-mining>



from Nepal (immigrants). No migrants from Bangladesh and China were reported in the survey as was recorded in the census 2001 of Meghalaya.

Table 5.7
Residential Status of the Respondents

Residential status	Number of Respondents	Percentage to total
From the village where the interview was conducted	20,240	91.2
From other village of Meghalaya	507	2.3
From other states of India	1285	5.8
From other country (Nepal)	149	0.7
Not Mentioned	10	0.04
Total	22,191	100

Out of the 1951 total migrant respondents, about 85 per cent of them were concentrated in the East Jaintia Hills district. Khliehriat block in the East Jaintia Hills district has the highest concentration with 82 per cent of the total migrant respondents indicating the possible prevalence of various employment opportunities related to high concentration of coal mining activities in the block.

Table 5.8
Distribution of Migrants across their Residence in CD Blocks

Community Development Block	No. of Respondents	Per cent
East Jaintia Hills	1653	84.73
Khliehriat	1591	81.55
Saipung	62	3.18
West Jaintia Hills	298	15.27
Amlarem	68	3.49
Thadlaskein	113	5.79
Laskein	117	6.00
Total	1951	100.00

Table 5.9
Gender-wise Distribution of Migrant Respondents

Gender	Migrants	Percentage to Total
Men	1773	90.88
Women	178	9.12
Total	1951	100.00

Nearly 80 per cent of the total migrant respondents were between the 19-45 age group with 26-35 age group as the highest proportion with about 37 per cent. there were 10 respondents who were between the 15-18 age group.



Table 5.10
Distribution of Migrants in Age Groups

Age Groups	No. of Respondents	Percentage to the Total
15-18	10	0.51
19-25	293	15.02
26-35	727	37.26
36-45	549	28.14
46-55	262	13.43
56-65	83	4.25
More than 65	27	1.38
Total	1951	100.00

Table 5.11
Migrant respondents by marital status

Marital status	Number of respondents	Percentage to total
Unmarried	302	15.48
Married	1577	80.83
Widowed	32	1.64
Divorced or separated	39	2.00
No Response	1	0.05
Total	1951	100.00

It is interesting to note that nearly 50 per cent of the total respondents were having either primary, middle or secondary level of education, while about 20 per cent were illiterate.

Table 5.12
Migrant respondents by educational status

Educational status	Number of respondents	Percentage to total
Illiterate	395	20.25
Literate without formal schooling	145	7.43
Below primary	140	7.18
Primary (upto class V)	230	11.79
Middle (upto class VIII)	346	17.73
Matric/High school/Secondary (upto class X)	434	22.25
Higher secondary/ Intermediate (class XII)	152	7.79
Diploma/certificate course	3	0.15
Graduate	81	4.15
Post Graduate & above	25	1.28
Total	1951	100.00

Nearly 45 per cent of the total respondents were following Hinduism followed by Christianity (26 per cent) and Islam (23 per cent).



Table 5.13
Migrant respondents by religion

Religion	Number of respondents	Percentage to total
Christianity	509	26.09
Niam Tre	80	4.10
Hinduism	871	44.64
Islam	443	22.71
Budhism	31	1.59
Khasi	2	0.10
Jainism	2	0.10
Sikhism	1	0.05
Others	10	0.51
No Response	2	0.10
Total	1951	100.00

There were 1285 respondents from 17 states of India. It comprises about 66 per cent of the total migrants. Nearly 7.6 per cent of the migrants are international migrants exclusively from Nepal. Out of these total inter-state migrants, 64.8 per cent were from Assam, followed by Bihar (15.2 per cent), Tripura (5.3 per cent), West Bengal (4.3 per cent), Rajasthan (3.7 per cent), and Uttar Pradesh (3.6 per cent). The migrants from Assam, Tripura and West Bengal were mostly engaged in coal mining related activities, while those from Bihar, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh were into business.

Table 5.14
Inter-State migrant respondents

Sl. No.	Place of origin	Number of respondents	Percentage to Total
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1	0.07
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	2	0.15
3.	Assam	833	64.8
4.	Bihar	195	15.2
5.	Haryana	3	0.2
6.	Jharkhand	4	0.3
7.	Karnataka	1	0.07
8.	Manipur	9	0.7
9.	Mizoram	8	0.6
10.	Nagaland	4	0.3
11.	Odisha	2	0.15
12.	Punjab	2	0.15
13.	Rajasthan	48	3.7
14.	Sikkim	1	0.07
15.	Tripura	69	5.3
16.	Uttar Pradesh	47	3.6
17.	West Bengal	56	4.3
	Total	1285	100



About 57 per cent of the total migrant respondents had migrated during the last one to 12 years, followed by 22 per cent between 13 to 21 years and about 7 per cent were staying for more than 30 years. Nearly 10 per cent of them had been staying for less than one year. This implies that nearly 86 per cent of the migrants had migrated at least one year back.

Table 5.15
Period of stay of the migrant respondents in the present village

Sl. No.	Period of stay	Number of respondents	Percentage to Total
1.	Less than 6 months	71	3.6
2.	6-12 months	120	6.2
3.	1-3 years	354	18.2
4.	4-6 years	330	17
5.	7-9 years	213	11
6.	10-12 years	210	10.7
7.	13-15 years	163	8.4
8.	16-18 years	87	4.4
9.	19-21 years	179	9.1
10.	Above 30 years	145	7.4
11.	No response	79	4
	Total	1951	100

Source: Field data

Work/employment (61 per cent) was cited as the pre-dominant reason for migration. The other reasons were business (21 per cent), marriage (8 per cent), moved with household (2 per cent) and education (1 per cent). This shows that the region provides employment and business avenues to the migrants.

Table 5.16
Reasons for migration of the respondents

Sl. No.	Reasons for migration	Number of respondents	Percentage to Total
1.	Work/employment	1199	61.4
2.	Business	417	21.4
3.	Marriage	155	7.9
4.	Moved with household	47	2.4
5.	Education	18	0.9
6.	Others	12	0.6
7.	No response	103	5.2
	Total	1951	100

A substantial number of 1254 (65per cent) out of the total migrants of 1951 had migrated with family members, relatives, friends or villagers. While nearly 29per cent had migrated alone, only about 2per cent had migrated through middleman/contractor/employer's agent. This shows that the nature of migration observed here is through social networks.



Table 5.17
Pattern of migration of the respondents

Sl. No.	Pattern of migration	Number of respondents	Percentage to Total
1	With Family members	695	35.6
2	With Relatives	259	13.2
3	With Friends	239	12.2
4	With Villagers	61	3.1
5	Through Middleman/Contractor/ Employer's Agent	31	1.6
6	Alone	560	28.7
7	Not Mentioned	106	5.4
	Total	1951	100

It was noted that there is increasing migration trend mainly beginning from 1981-90, 1991-2000 and 2001-2010 with 7 per cent, 18 per cent and 45 per cent of the migrants migrating during these decades respectively. Nearly 24 per cent had migrated after the year 2010. The number of in-migrants has been increasing starting from the 1980's reflecting the relationship between the expansion of coal mining in the district and the demand for workers.

Table 5.18
Migration trend

Sl. No.	Year of migration	No. of Respondents	Percentage to Total
1.	Prior to 1950	3	0.2
2.	1951 - 1960	3	0.2
3.	1961 - 1970	6	0.3
4.	1971 - 1980	41	2.1
5.	1981 - 1990	135	6.9
6.	1991 - 2000	346	17.7
7.	2001-2010	874	44.8
8.	After 2010	464	23.8
9.	No Response	79	4.0
	TOTAL	1951	100

5.5 Excerpts from interaction with migrant coal mine workers at Jaintia Hills (May, 2012)

Coal Mine workers from Nepal

The process of coal mining starts with excavation of the land. This digging part is generally done by the Bengali people. After that, they went down and made tunnel to withdraw coal from the ground. In the past one week they have made 3000 feet tunnel. The collected coal is brought up with



the help of a mechanized pulley, which is operated by a trained person. Their families also live with them in the labour camps.

Their work starts from early morning at around 6am. They told that to fill one box of coal in a day it needs two persons. Experienced workers can fill up the box in less time. If they find good quality coal they can fill up the box quickly. It was told that to find good quality coal they have to go inside about 200-300 feet to 1500 feet. Most of the respondents are working for the last 7-8 years.

They have come here in September and will stay till May and go back home after May for agricultural work and to meet their families. A worker from his place told him about this mining work and earning from this work, and he agreed and came with him. He said that he is satisfied with this work as he can save money.

They get payment per week. Wage rate differs from owner to owner. While someone pays Rs. 1000 per box, another one is paying Rs. 2000 per box. They are free to move to any mine that is paying more. They get Rs. 8000-9000 to 11,000 per week and some people get Rs. 6000-7000 depending on experience. 7-8 years before, they used to get Rs. 250-300 per box.

Food and shelter facility are not provided by the owner. If owner provides this he deducts money for this. If a worker dies during work, owner does not provide any facility to their families.

Coal Mine workers from Assam

They have come with the worker who used to work earlier here. They get their wages per week and per box. For the last 3 years, they have been working in the same coal mine. Initially, they used to get Rs. 1200 per box, but now they get Rs. 2000 per box. On an average they can earn Rs. 10,000-12,000 per week.

In a week 5-6 coal boxes can be drawn from the mine with the help of two persons. They keep their money in their bank account. They reported that electricity is available at their labour camps but drinking water is not available. They, therefore, get drinking water from other place. Most of them work for the whole year and send home money regularly.

Geographical mobility entails economic as well as social cost for workers. As migrants they miss the social and family support. If they have institutional support at home, they will miss that too. Thus the constraint on mobility is reinforced by the loss of community and family support system that a migrant has to bear (Shreshtha, 1990) by submitting to the circumstances and make the best of the bad bargain or to stay back and fight to change the facts of life to their benefit or to migrate to different economic environment. They can meekly continue to suffer and somehow survive. Lastly they can migrate to escape their plight at home and search for a better living. Migratory choice may take the forms of either seasonal, periodic, long term circulation or permanent migration. Migration is thus indicative of lack of class-consciousness among the migrating populace. It is flight from the harsh realities in the native village. If one looks at the source of migrants in Jaintia



Hills, one finds that by and large they hail from the districts which are impoverished for eg. districts in the slopes of Himalayas.

The social divisions such as caste, religion, sex etc., also divide the working class. The contradiction between migrant labour and native workers may also contribute to social unrest. Thus, migration serves the coal-mines by providing cheap labour and it increases competition among workers putting downward pressure on wage level of indigenous workers. Circulatory migration that is dominant in the migration of coal mine workers provides for cheap labour. Employers try to use migrant demands for job and wages to weaken the bargaining power of local workers. The two fraction of the same class are thus pitted against each other.



Chapter 6

Determinants of Child Labour: An Econometric Estimation

6.1. Introduction

As can be seen from the previous chapters, there is an existence of child labour in various forms. Some of them identified as (i) full time working children or only working children, (ii) children who were attending school and working as well as (iii) children who were neither at school nor at work. Given the magnitude of working children in the area under study, it becomes imperative to examine the main factors responsible for the existence of this phenomenon.

Researchers have pointed to diverse factors - both push and pull factors - that has contributed to the existence of child labour world-wide. Poverty and illiteracy have been identified to be some of the main causal factors that make parents to send their children to work. On the other hand, demand factors such as the existence of a vibrant informal sector are also identified as the chief factor perpetuating this problem. In order to identify the primary factors responsible for the incidence of child labour, an econometric estimation using the Probit model is used. On the basis of some of the findings of the survey¹⁹ a few household and individual factors have been selected to test the likelihood of their impact on the problem.

In order to assess the employment and unemployment pattern in Jaintia Hills, a disaggregation of the population by gender, age and type of occupation has been carried out. The employment pattern and the nature of employment and work, has been discussed using the population data (132636 - total population as per the survey). On the other hand, the magnitude of work participation has been captured according to the educational attainment, age group, marital status as well as the social and religious status, using household level data (22191 total households as per the survey). This is mainly to enable the capturing the labour force by the place of origin of the respondent from each of the household. Though all the members in a particular household do not belong to the family of the household surveyed the place of origin of each individual member of the household could not be recorded during the course of the survey.

6.2. Employment Pattern

In order to ascertain the employment levels across the two districts, the labour force and work participation of men and women has been taken into account. 'Labour Force' as defined, includes both the employed (workers) as well as the unemployed. Consequently the 'Labour Force Participation Rate' (LFPR) is expressed as the proportion of the labour force to the total population. Further, the 'Work Participation' has also been taken in order to account for the number of workers (employed) excluding the unemployed in the Jaintia Hills district of Meghalaya. 'Work Participation Rate' (WPR) is defined as the proportion of the workers (employed) to the total population.

¹⁹Some of the factors has been highlighted in the preceding chapters.



The reference age group in defining the labour force is generally taken for ages 15 to 59 years. However, in this study, children in the age group 5 to 15 years and individuals in the age group 60 years and above has also been considered to ascertain their labour force status. The total population as recorded in the survey is 132636; of which males are 66931 and 65680 are females and 25 for whom their sex/gender has not been stated.

It may be mentioned here, that, in the calculation of the workers or employed; only those recorded as currently employed in some occupation or the other has been taken into consideration. Housewives, those attending school or those not attending school and not working, children who are listed as below schooling age or too young or those individuals listed as too old, pensioners or retirees, disabled persons not engaged in any form of employment and the unemployed has not been taken into account. For the calculation of the labour force, both the employed and the unemployed has been taken into consideration.

Gender disparity in the LFPR is evident from the magnitude and proportion of the labour force by gender, across East Jaintia Hills district and West Jaintia Hills district (Table 6.1.) Female LFPR stands at around 14 per cent compared to around 23 per cent of male LFPR - a difference of almost nine (9) per cent. Across districts, LFPR is relatively higher in East Jaintia Hills district at 21.93 per cent, compared to 14.86 per cent in West Jaintia Hills district. Further, a disaggregation by gender also reveals the difference in the LFPR for both males and females, which is observed to be higher in East Jaintia Hills compared to West Jaintia Hills.

Table 6.1
Labour Force Participation by Gender

Districts	Total Labour Force				LFPR (per cent)			
	Male	Fe- male	Sex Not Stated	Total	Male	Fe- male	Sex Not Stated	Total
East Jaintia Hills	18712	10372	6	29090	14.11	7.82	0.00	21.93
West Jaintia Hills	11733	7974	2	19709	8.85	6.01	0.00	14.86
Total	30445	18346	8	48799	22.95	13.83	0.01	36.79

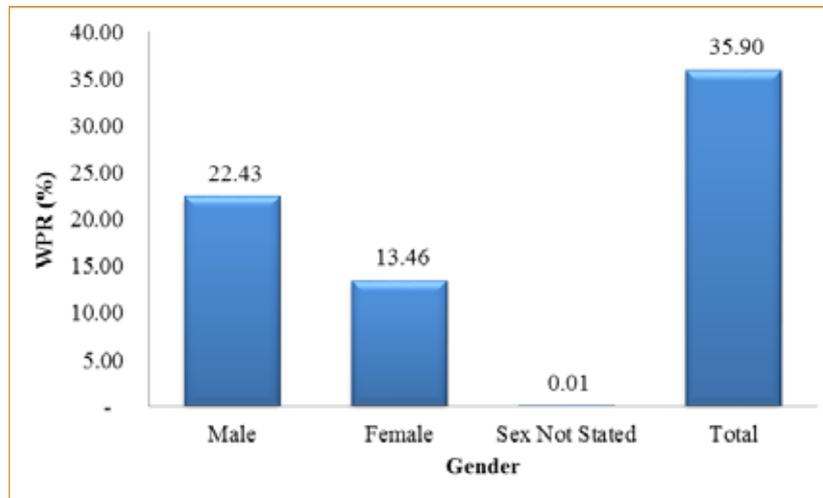
A break up of the total labour force with respect to the migrants vis-a-vis the local residents of the area has been gauged from the household sample. It reveals the following:

- (i) Natives constitute a relatively higher proportion of the workers as opposed to the migrants - both for male and female.
- (ii) In all the case of LFPR by different characteristics, natives constitute a higher proportion of the total workers. The different characteristics include: education, social, religious and marital statuses. This has also been discussed in section 4.4.

To further clarify on the issue of labour participation, the work participation rate (WPR) or in other words, only the proportion of persons employed is shown in figure 6.1.



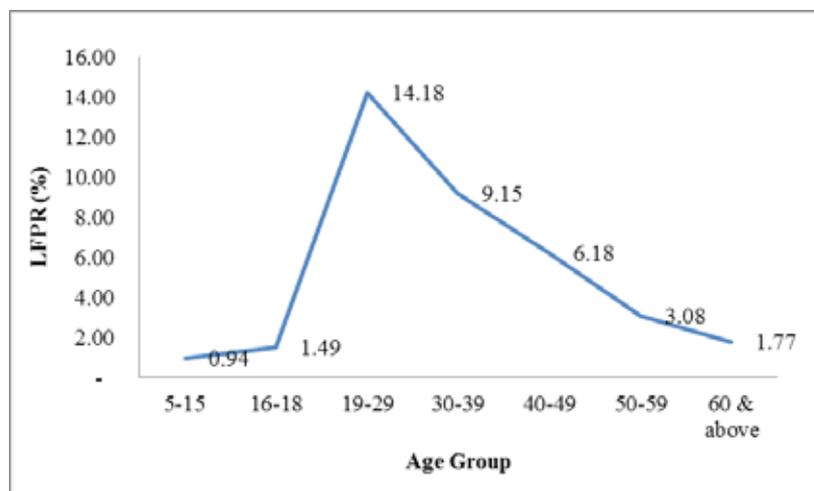
Figure 6.1
Work Participation Rate by Gender



As can be ascertained from figure 6.1, the WPR reveals the total proportion of employed in the entire district to be 35.90 per cent - 47613 total number of persons employed - of which 22.43 per cent represents male WPR (29753 total male workers) and 13.46 female WPR (17852 total female workers). Evidently, gender disparity is also evident from the figure 4.1. This is despite the fact that Meghalaya is the only state in the entire country that follows a social system that is matrilineal (lineage is taken from the female line) and women are accorded a special status in society. Clearly, there is much that needs to be done to improve gender differences in LFPR, which is the same for the country as a whole.

Additionally, to assess the magnitude of employment by individuals of different ages, the total labour force has been divided into the following age groups: 5 to 15 years, 16 to 18 years, 19 to 29 years, 30 to 39 years, 40 to 49 years, 50 to 59 years and 60 years and above. Figure 5.2 shows the labour force participation by different age group.

Figure 6.2
Labour Force Participation by Age Group



Source: Field Data



From figure 6.2, it is observed that the participation rate is the lowest for the age groups from 5 to 15 years of age, which is less than 1 per cent. LFPR starts to increase from age group 16-18 years of age. The total LFPR for ages 16-59 years stands at 34.1 per cent of which 21.4 per cent is the male LFPR and 13.6 per cent is the female LFPR. LFPR is the highest for the age group 19-29 years of age at almost 14.2 per cent. From then on, LFPR starts to decline as we progress to higher age groups, from 30 years of age, registering a low of 1.77 per cent for age groups 60 years and above.

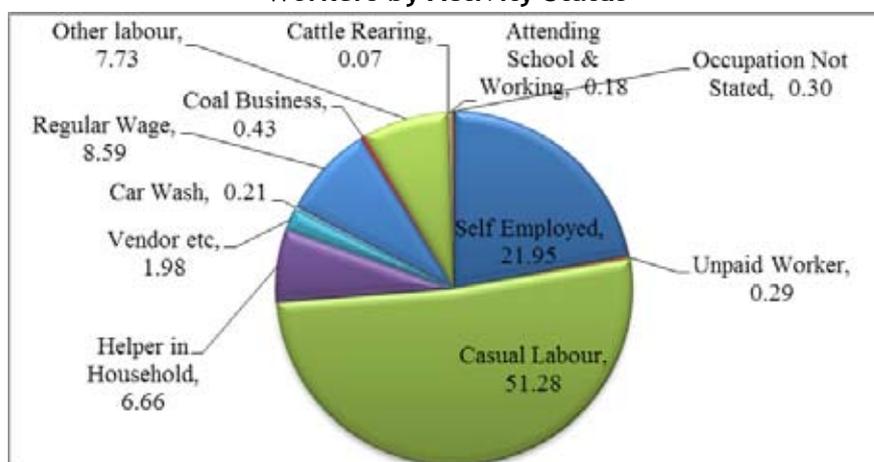
The diagrammatic representation in figure 6.2 shows the nature of LFPR for the different age groups. It can be observed that the nature of the relationship between LFPR and age group exhibits an inverted U-shaped curve. The participation rate first starts at very low levels for the lower age groups but then increase for the prime age group, i.e. labour force, and then eventually wanes for higher age groups. It is interesting to note, that LFPR for persons aged 60 years and above is relatively higher as compared to the LFPR of persons in the age group 16 to 18 years (1.49 per cent).

6.3. Nature of Work and Activity Status

As seen from the above discussion, gender differentiation in terms of LFPR is clearly evident. Further, LFPR has also been observed for children below the age of 18 years. Workers covered in this survey are engaged in different types and forms of work which is discussed in this section with substantiation from the secondary data. Figure 6.3 presents the proportion of total workers by different activity status and Table 6.2 shows the number of male and female workers by their present work status, respectively.

In order to examine the work performance of the workers we divide them into the following groups which includes those who are: (i) self-employed which comprise of farmers, agricultural workers, cultivators and those individuals who are self-employed in such activities in their own land, others' land or are own account workers (ii) unpaid workers (iii) casual labour (iv) helper in households (v) vendor, hawkers and shop keepers or those helping in such (vi) regular wage earners and salaried (vii) coal business including coal miners, suppliers, and *Sordars*²⁰ (viii) other labour including handymen, drivers, carpenter, plumber (ix) cattle rearing (x) attending school and working and (xi) those individuals who have not stated their occupation but recorded as workers.

Figure 6.3
Workers by Activity Status



²⁰ It is a local terminology, generally used for Managers of Coal mines.



From the figure, it can be ascertained that the predominant occupation in the surveyed villages include casual labour and self-employment. The proportion of people engaged as casual labourers constitute almost half of the total workers at 51.28 per cent. Those who had reported to have been carrying out a series of short-term jobs and were reported to have been hired by the hour or day or for the performance of the specific task, be it work relating to coal-mining and allied work or other types of work which are hazardous and / or non-hazardous in nature were broadly categorized under the category of casual labour. This is closely followed by the self-employed at 21.95 per cent.

The distribution of workers by gender, in various activity statuses is also presented in table 6.2.

Table 6.2.
Male and Female Workers by Activity Status

Occupation	Male		Female		Total	
	Total	Percentage of Workers*	Total	Percentage of Workers*	Total	Percentage of Workers
Self- Employed	6628	22.28	3820	21.40	10448	21.95
Unpaid Worker	96	0.32	44	0.25	140	0.29
Casual Labour	15660	52.63	8753	49.03	24413	51.28
Helper in Household	1624	5.46	1547	8.67	3171	6.66
Vendor etc.	402	1.35	541	3.03	943	1.98
Car Wash	51	0.17	48	0.27	99	0.21
Regular Wage	2047	6.88	2042	11.44	4089	8.59
Coal Business	174	0.58	29	0.16	203	0.43
Other labour	2940	9.88	741	4.15	3681	7.73
Cattle Rearing	30	0.10	2	0.01	32	0.07
Attending School & Working	45	0.15	39	0.22	84	0.18
Occupation Not Stated	56	0.19	89	0.50	145	0.30
TOTAL	29753	100.00	17852	100.00	47605	100.00

Note: * Per cent of workers has been calculated as the percentage of workers to the total workers in different activity status

As can be gauged from table 6.2, a relatively higher proportion of both male and female workers have been recorded as Casual Labourers. Their participation rate is at 56.63 per cent and 49.03 per cent respectively-the highest from among all activity statuses. The lowest and almost negligible participation rate for both male workers has been recorded for those

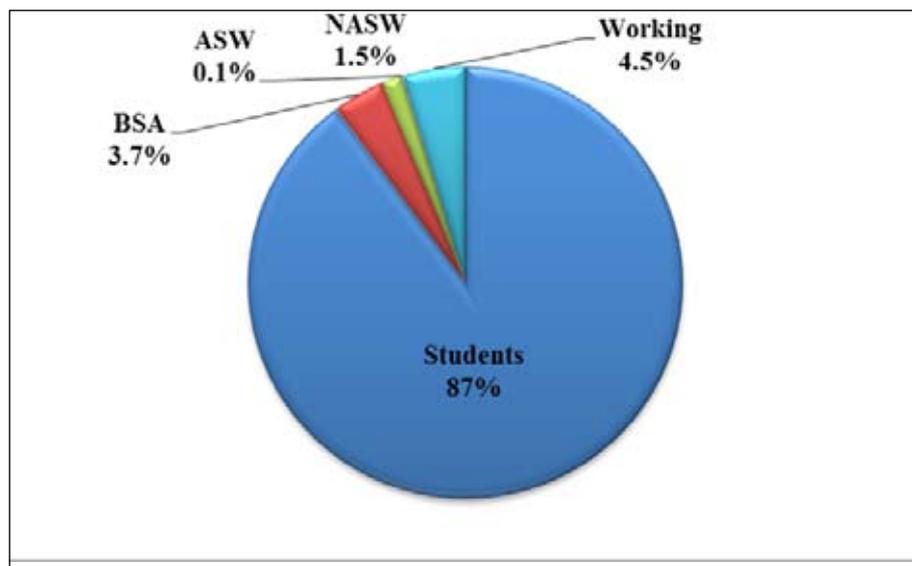


involved in cattle rearing. Self-employed individuals also constitute a sizeable proportion of the working population, next only to casual labour - 21.40 per cent. The main reason for such an observation being that Jaintia Hills is predominantly a rural based economy, there is a large dependence on agriculture and allied activities - which are generally carried out on a large scale by the people of the district. During the course of the field survey, it was evident that a majority of the population was heavily dependent on land as their main source of income.

The case of the unpaid worker warrants a further investigation - even though they constitute an almost negligible proportion of the sampled population. Initial field assessment and discussion with the people, has revealed that most of the unpaid workers are the relatives of the employers and are paid in kind, in the form of cattle or free food and lodging in exchange for their work.

As discussed, children below the age of 18 years, though a relatively smaller proportion, have also been recorded to be in the labour force. This, therefore, warrants a glance into the activity status of children, which is presented in Figure 6.3.1.

Figure 6.3.1
Distribution of Children by Activity Status (5 to 18 years)



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of children out of the total child population for different activity statuses

Majority of the children - 87 per cent - in the age group 5 to 18 years are attending school while only 1.5 per cent have been found to be neither attending school nor registered as workers. The second prevalent activity of children, about 4.5 per cent are registered as workers while a negligible proportion (0.1 per cent) were recorded as attending school as well as engaged in work.

A disaggregation by gender shows that out of a total of 24912 male children, around 85 per cent of them have been recorded as attending school or students (21377). This is followed by 7 per cent of male children being in the work force. The second position occupied by male working children, out of the total male population, irrespective of the percentage figure is evident of the existence of child workers in the district. Combining the male children who



are attending school and working the percentage figure works out at around 8 per cent. Male children who are neither attending school nor working comprise about 2 per cent of the total male population in the specified age group.

With respect to female children, the picture is almost the same. Of a total of 24912 female children in the mentioned age group, while 88 per cent has been listed as attending school (21814), almost 4 per cent female children are working. The total female children, who are attending school and working, constitute about 5 per cent of the total female child population in the afore mentioned age group. Those who are neither attending school nor working comprise about 3 per cent - which is by one percentage different to that of male children. This could also be one of the reasons that permeate gender differences in the labour force as one's age progresses.

6.4. Characteristics of Employment

In this section, an examination of the characteristics of LFPR in relation to a group of selected variables has been undertaken. The magnitude of LFPR is captured according to the educational attainment, marital status as well as their social and religious statuses. As has been stated earlier, in the introduction, in this section, the proportion of LFPR has been taken in relation to the household level data. A total number of 22191 households have been recorded as per the survey. Further, due to the non-response of the respondents with regard to the gender, place of origin or their household characteristics, a variation of about 1 to 2 per cent of the total households have also been recorded. Towards this end, the LFPR has been taken only in relation to the total number of households where all the requisite characteristics have been established during the course of the survey.

Labour Force Participation by Education Level

Participation in the labour force by different educational levels, namely, below schooling age, illiterates, literate without formal schooling i.e., individuals who can read and write without formal schooling, literate below Primary, literate up to Primary level, i.e., up to class 5, literate up to Middle level, i.e., up to class 8, literate up to Secondary level, i.e., up to class 10, literate up to Higher Secondary level, i.e., up to class 12, Diploma or Certificate course, Graduates and Post Graduates and above has been reported in table 6.3. LFPR by different educational levels has been taken as a proportion of the surveyed households 21888, with a total of 303 missing values (1.38 per cent).

Out of a total of 19520 households recorded as being in the labour force, it is evident that the LFPR of illiterate is observed to be the highest. Their LFPR stood at around 45.80 per cent during the period under survey. Here it may be mentioned that LFPR remained relatively higher for lower educational levels and then declines as the levels of education starts increasing (above primary level). From the primary level onwards the decline continues further to stand at less than 2 per cent for graduates and 0.37 per cent for post graduates. Further, the LFPR of males is observed to be relatively higher at 60.88 per cent compared to female LFPR at 28.30 per cent, respectively.



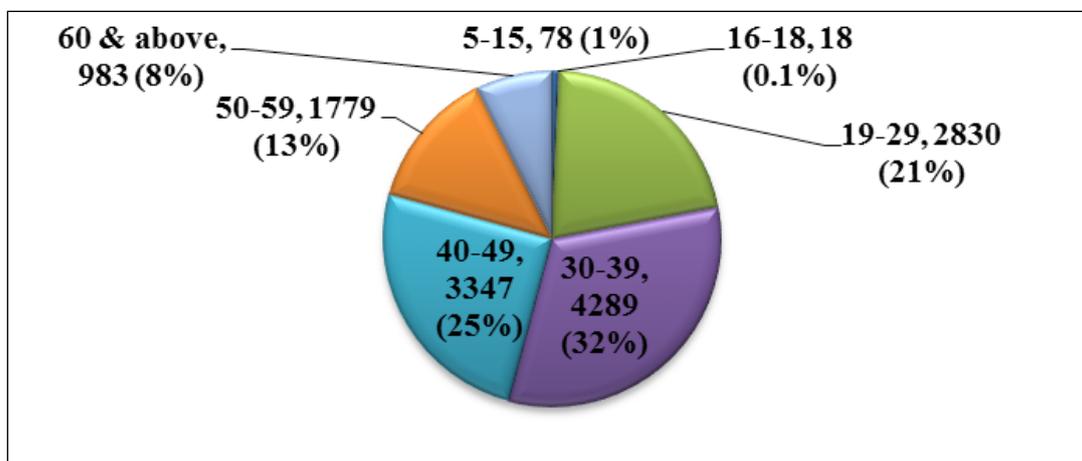
Table 6.3
LFPR by Gender & Education Level

Education Level	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Illiterate	6524	3501	10025	29.81	16.00	45.80
Literate without formal schooling	1092	453	1545	4.99	2.07	7.06
Below Primary	1235	655	1890	5.64	2.99	8.63
Primary	1294	539	1833	5.91	2.46	8.37
Middle	1032	406	1438	4.71	1.85	6.57
Secondary	1146	340	1486	5.24	1.55	6.79
Higher Secondary	585	195	780	2.67	0.89	3.56
Diploma or Certificate Course	22	5	27	0.10	0.02	0.12
Graduates	326	90	416	1.49	0.41	1.90
Post Graduates	70	10	80	0.32	0.05	0.37
Total	13326	6194	19520	60.88	28.30	89.18

From the table 6.4, it is evident that there is a very low level of educational attainment of the labour force in the district. Graduates and above comprises only 2.5 per cent of the total labour force. On the other hand, those who have attained up to middle level (class 8) schooling comprise around 86 per cent of the total labour force. Workers having secondary and higher secondary level of education constitute about 11 per cent of the total labour force at the household level.

Gender and age wise distribution of the labour force by different education levels is given in figures 6.4.1.A and 6.4.1.B, respectively, for males and females.

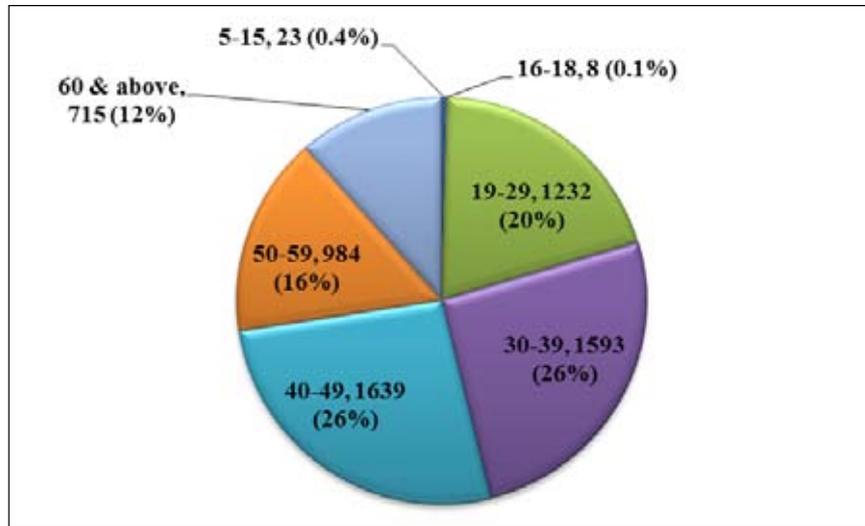
Figure 6.4.1.A
Male Labour Force by Education Level & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups



Figure 6.4.1.B
Female Labour Force by Education Level & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups.

The figures 6.4.1.A and 6.4.1.B exhibit an almost similar pattern, with minor variations in the observation for different age groups and for both male and female. In both cases, it can be observed that LFPR by different education levels is the highest for households in the age group 30-39 years - 32 per cent for males and 26 per cent for females, respectively. This is followed by those in the age group 19-29 years. This is consistent with the observation made in section 6.2 on the LFPR by age group. LFPR by education levels is observed to be the lowest for households in the age group 5-15 years at almost a negligible level of less than one per cent. Again, for the age group 60 years and above, LFPR has been recorded at 8 per cent for males and 12 per cent for females, respectively.

In order to ascertain the proportion of LFPR by education level and place of origin, LFPR has been taken as a proportion of the total labour force (19520). This has been shown in table 6.4.

Table 6.4
LFPR by Education Level & Place of Origin

Education Level	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Natives	Migrants	Total	Natives	Migrants	Total
Illiterate	9650	375	10025	49.44	1.92	51.36
Literate without formal schooling	1404	141	1545	7.19	0.72	7.91
Below Primary	1761	129	1890	9.02	0.66	9.68
Primary	1603	230	1833	8.21	1.18	9.39
Middle	1101	337	1438	5.64	1.73	7.37
Secondary	1063	423	1486	5.45	2.17	7.61



Education Level	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Natives	Migrants	Total	Natives	Migrants	Total
Higher Secondary	631	149	780	3.23	0.76	4.00
Diploma or Certificate Course	25	2	27	0.13	0.01	0.14
Graduates	337	79	416	1.73	0.40	2.13
Post Graduates	55	25	80	0.28	0.13	0.41
Total	17630	1890	19520	90.32	9.68	100

From the table 6.5 it can be ascertained that the total labour force comprise mostly of the natives (households who are originally from the district). The natives constitute around 90 per cent of the LFPR compared to less than 10 per cent for the migrant households. However, half of the total LFPR is made up of illiterates - irrespective of the place of origin. An interesting observation, reveals that the migrant households recorded the highest LFPR for those with a secondary level education, which is not so for the natives with the highest LFPR for illiterates. This observation could also be due to the wide variation in the total households for natives (17630 households) and migrants (1890 households).

Gender distribution of the labour force by education level, age group and place of origin is presented in figures 6.5.1.A and 6.5.1.B for male headed and female headed households, respectively.

Figure 6.5.1.A
Male Labour Force by Education Level, Age Group & Place of Origin

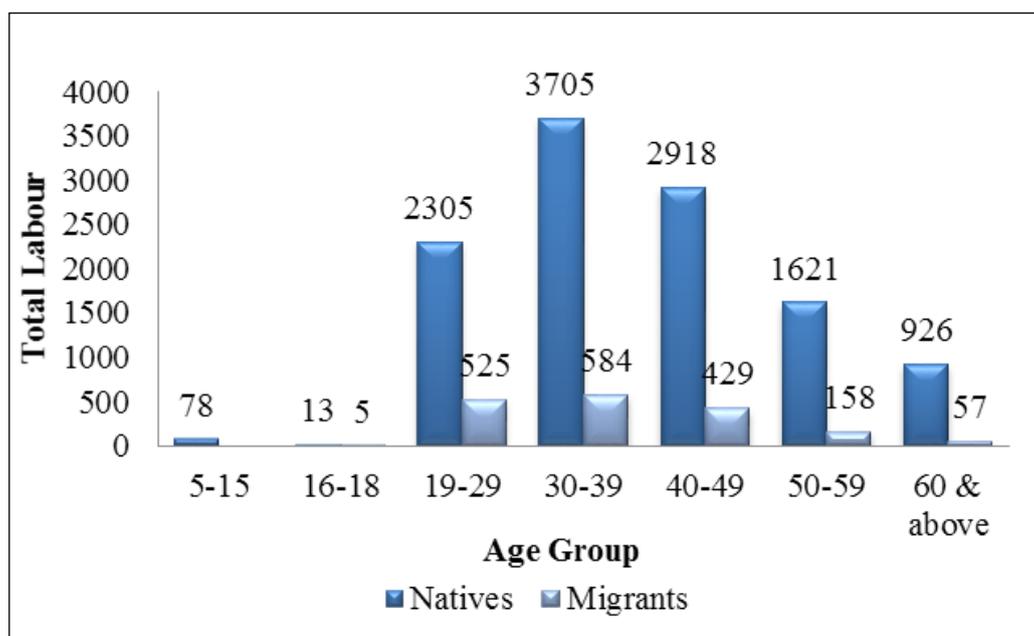
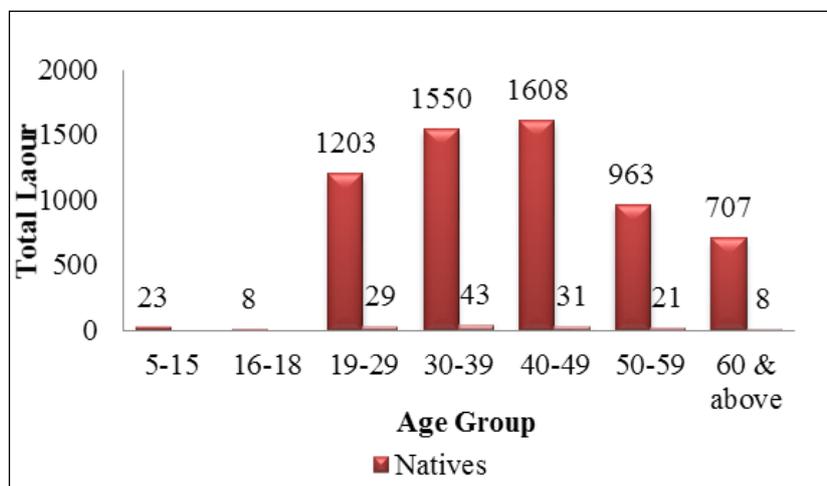




Figure 6.5.1.B: Female Labour Force by Education Level, Age Group & Place of Origin



The figures 6.5.1.A and 6.5.1.B suggest that for both male-headed and female-headed households, the native households far outweigh the migrant households in terms of the magnitude of the labour force and by different education level and age group. Once more, the largest number of households in the labour force comprises those in the age group 19 to 49 years. For male headed households, age group 30-39 years appears to make up the largest number of labour force at 3705 for natives and 584 for migrants, respectively. However, male migrants recorded the second highest total in the age group 19-29 years at 525 households in the labour force as opposed to the natives who recorded the second highest total in the age group 40-49 years at 2918 households in the labour force. For female migrants the highest total has been recorded at 43 households in the age group 30-39 years with the second being at 31 households in the age group 40-49 years. Correspondingly, the natives recorded the highest total in the age group 40-49 years at 1608 households followed by 1550 households for age group 30-39 years, in the labour force.

Labour force by Marital Status

The labour force participation by marital status is given in table 6.5. The total households have been divided into four distinct categories, namely, unmarried, currently married, widowed and a fourth category comprising of individuals who are divorced or separated from their spouses. LFPR by different categories of marital status has been taken as a proportion of 21895 observed households, with a total of 209 missing values (1.33 per cent).

Table 6.5
LFPR by Gender & Marital Status

Marital Status	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Unmarried	445	105	550	2.03	0.48	2.51
Married	12629	3572	16201	57.68	16.31	73.99
Widowed	145	1386	1531	0.66	6.33	6.99
Divorced	99	1175	1274	0.45	5.37	5.82
Total	13318	6238	19556	60.83	28.49	89.32

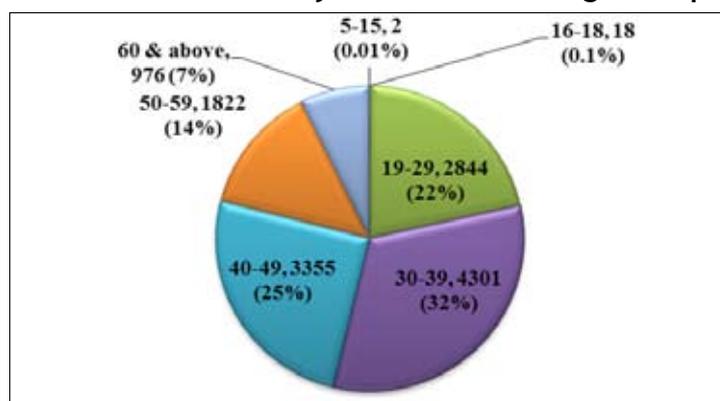


Out of a total of 21895 households recorded as being in the labour force, 89.32 per cent or 19556 total households are in the labour force of all the categories recorded in the marital status. It is evident that the LFPR of households comprising of married individuals is the highest at 73.99 per cent. The lowest LFPR has been observed for the unmarried category at 2.51 per cent or 550 households. Males record an LFPR of 60.83 per cent, while females are at 28.49 per cent. Here it may be mentioned that widowed women record the next highest LFPR at 6.33 per cent compared to 0.66 per cent for males.

From the table 6.6, it is evident that there is a wide variation in the labour force by different marital categories. Of a total of 19556 households, 16201 households are recorded as married labour force - the largest in the group. Over all, male headed households outnumber female headed households, except for the category of widowed and divorced households - where female headed households outnumber male headed households.

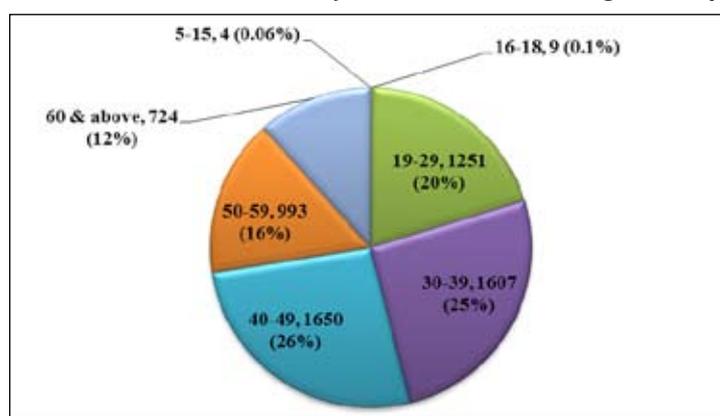
Gender and age wise distribution of the labour force by different marital categories is given in figures 6.6.1.A and 6.6.1.B, respectively, for males and females.

Figure 6.6.1.A
Male Labour Force by Marital Status & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups

Figure 6.6.1.B
Female Labour Force by Marital Status & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups



The figures 6.7.1.A and 6.7.1.B, exhibit an almost similar pattern, with minor variations in the observation for different age groups and for both male and female. In both cases, it can be observed that LFPR by different marital status is the highest for male headed households in the age group 30-39 years - 32 per cent for males (4301 households) followed by 25 per cent for the age group 40-49 years, respectively. For female headed households the highest labour force has been observed at 26 per cent (1607 households) for the age group 40-49 years followed by 25 per cent for the age group 30-39 years. This is consistent with the observation made in section 4.2 on the LFPR by age group as well as LFPR by education. LFPR is observed to be the lowest for households in the age group 5-15 years at almost a negligible level of less than half a percentage point. Further, for the age group 60 years and above, LFPR has been recorded at 7 per cent for males (976 households) and 12 per cent for females (724 households), respectively.

In order to ascertain the proportion of LFPR by marital status and place of origin, LFPR has been taken as a proportion of the total labour force (19556). This has been shown in table 6.6.

Table 6.6
LFPR by Marital Status & Place of Origin

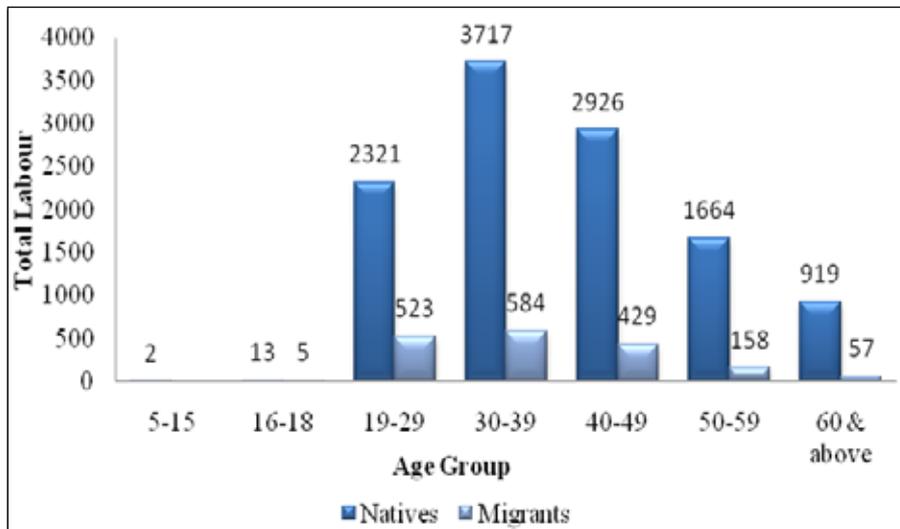
Marital Status	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Natives	Migrants	Total	Natives	Migrants	Total
Unmarried	260	290	550	1.33	1.48	2.81
Married	14634	1567	16201	74.83	8.01	82.84
Widowed	1499	32	1531	7.67	0.16	7.83
Divorced	1236	38	1274	6.32	0.19	6.51
Total	17629	1927	19556	90.15	9.85	100

As in the earlier discussion on LFPR by education, from the Table 6.6 it can be ascertained that the total labour force comprise mostly of the natives. The natives constitute around 90 per cent of the LFPR compared to less than 10 per cent for the migrant households. Of the total married households in the labour force - 82.84 per cent - 74.83 per cent comprise of the natives with about 14634 households. The rest of the households are relatively smaller in number as per the different marital status. Again, a distinct observation is the wide variation in the total households for natives (17629 households) and migrants (1927 households).

Gender distribution of the labour force by marital status, age group and place of origin is presented in figures 6.7.1.A and 6.7.1.B for male and female households, respectively.

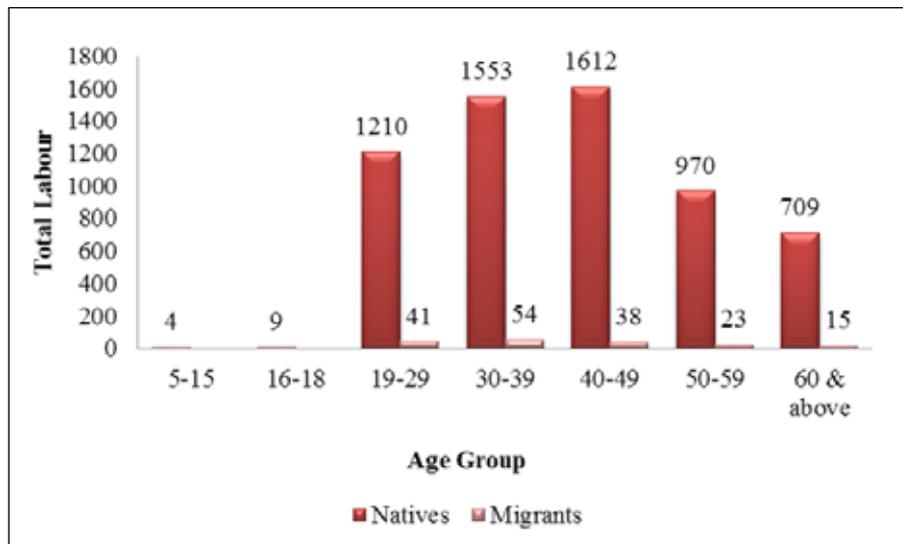


Figure 6.7.1.A
Male Labour Force by Marital Status, Age Group & Place of Origin



Source: Field Data

Figure 6.7.1.B
Female Labour Force by Marital Status, Age Group & Place of Origin



The figures 6.7.1.A and 6.7.1.B suggest that for both male and female headed households, natives' households far outweigh migrant's households in terms of the magnitude of the labour force and by different marital statuses and age group. The largest number of households in the labour force comprises those in the age group 19 to 49 years. For male headed households, age group 30-39 years appears to make up the largest number of labour force at 3717 for natives and 584 for migrants, respectively. However, male migrants record the second highest total in the age group 19-29 years at 523 households in the labour force as opposed to the natives who recorded the second highest total in the age group 40-49 years at 2926 households in the labour force. For female migrants the highest total has been recorded at 54 households in the age group 30-39 years with the second being at 41 households in the age group 19-29 years. Correspondingly, the natives recorded the highest



total in the age group 40-49 years at 1612 households followed by 1553 households for age group 30-39 years, in the labour force. Lowest number of labour force is for the age group 5-18 years with almost a negligible number of households out of the total labour force recorded.

Labour Force by Religious Groups

LFPR by gender and different religious groups is given in table 6.7. These include Hindus, Muslims, Christians, Indigenous religion - Niam Tre and Khasi - and Other religions - Sikh, Buddhist, Jains, and in the category 'others' (not belonging to the aforementioned religious groups). LFPR by different religious groups has been taken as a proportion of the observed 21906 households, with a total of 285 missing values (1.28 per cent).

Table 6.7
LFPR by Gender & Religious Groups

Religious Group	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Hindu	854	54	908	3.90	0.25	4.14
Muslim	443	4	447	2.02	0.02	2.04
Christian	9225	3307	12532	42.11	15.10	57.21
Indigenous	2755	2861	5616	12.58	13.06	25.64
Others	50	13	63	0.23	0.06	0.29
Total	13327	6239	19566	60.84	28.48	89.32

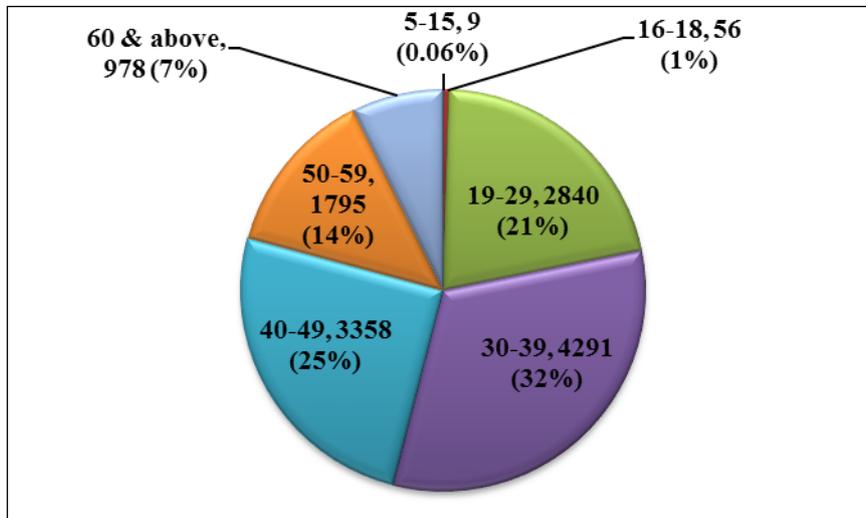
Out of a total of 21906 households recorded as being in the labour force, LFPR of Christians is observed to be the highest. Their LFPR is at 57.21 per cent during the period under survey. This is followed by the households categorized under the indigenous religion at 25.64 per cent (5616 households). LFPR is comparatively lower for the other groups at 4.14 per cent for Hindus and 2 per cent for Muslims, respectively.

Further, the LFPR of males is observed to be relatively higher at 60.84 per cent compared to female LFPR at 28.48 per cent, respectively. From the table 6.7, it is evident that there is a very low level of Muslim women in the labour force at just 4 compared to the Muslim males at 443 households. This distinction is also observed for Hindus and Christians, though varying in terms of the magnitude. On the other hand, gender parity is observed for the indigenous religion with females outweighing males by almost half a percentage point. Of the indigenous religion, out of the total labour force at the household level females account for 13.06 per cent (2861 households) and males account for 12.58 per cent (2755 households).

Gender and age wise distribution of the labour force by different religious groups is given in figures 6.8.1.A and 6.8.1.B, respectively, for males and females.

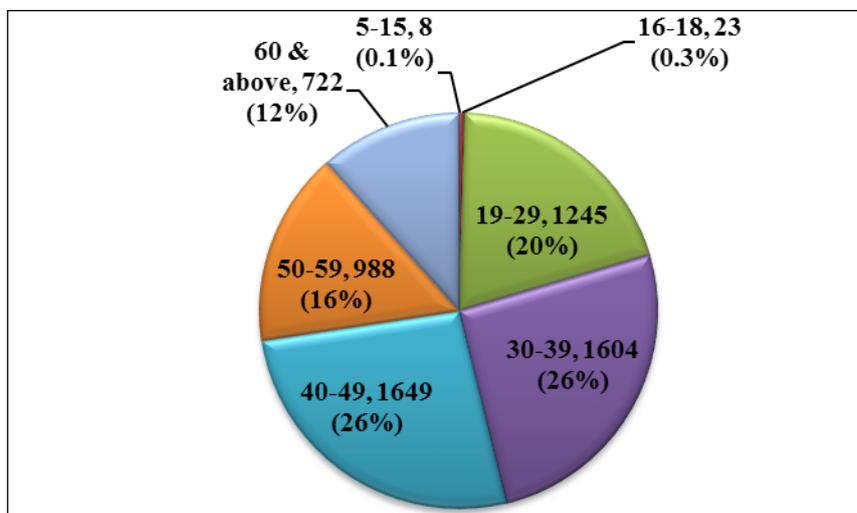


Figure 6.8.1.A
Male Labour Force by Religious & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups

Figure 6.8.1.B
Female Labour Force by Religious & Age Group



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups

As in the previous deliberations, in both cases, it can be observed that LFPR by different religious and age groups is the highest for households in the age group 30-39 years - 32 per cent for males and 26 per cent for females, respectively. This is followed by those in the age group 40-49 years at almost 26 per cent. LFPR is observed to be the lowest for households in the age group 5-15 years at almost a negligible level - one per cent and less. Again, for the age group 60 years and above, LFPR has been recorded at 7 per cent for males and 12 per cent for females, respectively. Labour force participation for age group 50-59 years has been recorded at 14 per cent (1795 households) for males and 16 per cent for females (988 households), respectively.



To ascertain the proportion of LFPR by religious groups and place of origin, LFPR has been taken as a proportion of the total labour force (table 6.8).

Table 6.8
LFPR by Religious Groups & Place of Origin

Religious Group	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Natives	Migrants	Total	Natives	Migrants	Total
Hindu	41	867	908	0.21	4.43	4.64
Muslim	7	440	447	0.04	2.25	2.28
Christian	12034	498	12532	61.50	2.55	64.05
Indigenous	5535	81	5616	28.29	0.41	28.70
Others	17	46	63	0.09	0.24	0.32
Total	17634	1932	19566	90.13	9.87	100

From the table 6.9, it can be seen that natives comprise a large proportion of the total labour force at around 90 per cent (17634) households to less than 10 per cent of migrants (1932 households). Of the natives, Christians comprise the highest proportion at 61.50 per cent of the total LFPR, while Hindus comprise the largest from among the migrants at 4.43 per cent. Followers of the indigenous religion comprise the second largest at 28.29 per cent from among the natives and Christians at 2.55 per cent from among the migrant households. As with the previous observations, it may be noted that there is a large variation in the total households for natives (17634 households) and migrants (1932 households).

Gender distribution of the labour force by religions, age group and place of origin is presented in figures 6.9.1.A and 6.9.1.B for male and female households, respectively.

Figure 6.9.1.A
Male Labour Force by Religions, Age Group & Place of Origin

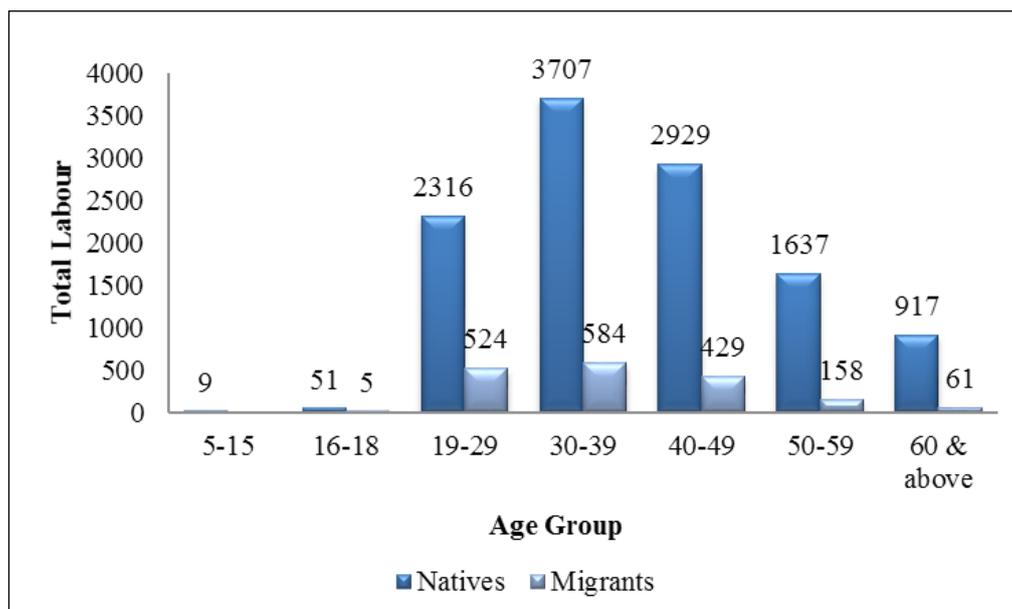
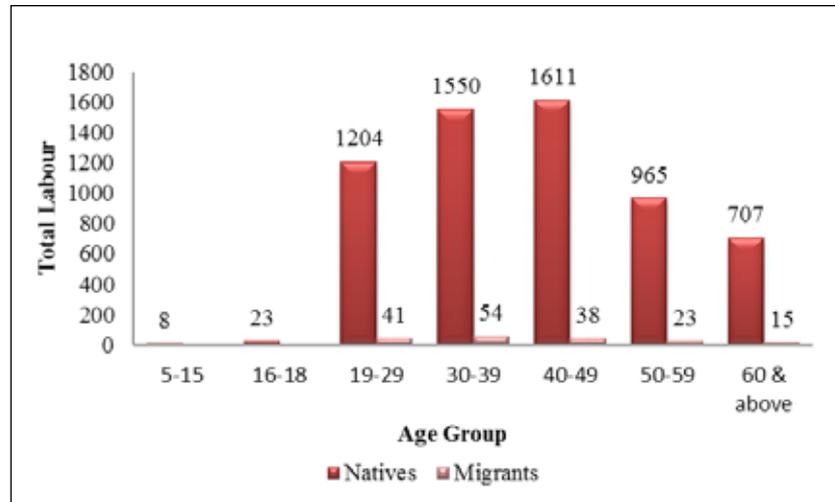




Figure 6.9.1.B
Female Labour Force by Religions, Age Group & Place of Origin



Comparing both male and female households, the figures 6.9.1.A and 6.9.1.B do suggest that the magnitude of the labour force is largely constituted by the natives' household vis-a-vis migrant's household by different religious and age groups. Here too, the largest number of households in the labour force comprises those in the age group 19 to 49 years. For male households, age group 30-39 years appears to make up the largest number of labour force at 3707 for natives and 584 for migrants, respectively. In the age group 19-29 years, male migrants record the second highest total at 524 households in the labour force compared to the natives who recorded the same in the age group 40-49 years at 2929 households. For female migrants the same is observed at 54 households in the age group 30-39 years followed at 41 households in the age group 19-29 years. Correspondingly, for the natives it is in the age group 40-49 years at 1611 households followed by 1550 households for age group 30-39 years, in the labour force.

Labour force by Social Groups

An examination of the employment by different social groups clearly shows the diversity of the population and the differences therein. The households have been divided into the Scheduled Tribe (ST), Scheduled Caste (SC) and Other Backward Class (OBC) and others for those not listed in the groups mentioned above. Labour force participation by gender and different social groups is given in table 6.9. LFPR by different religious groups has been taken as a proportion of the observed 21906 households, with a total of 285 missing values (1.28 per cent).

Table 6.9
LFPR by Social Groups

Social Group	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
SC	661	38	699	3.02	0.17	3.19
ST	11976	6141	18117	54.67	28.03	82.70
OBC	227	10	237	1.04	0.05	1.08
Others	458	11	469	2.09	0.05	2.14
Total	13322	6200	19522	60.81	28.30	89.12

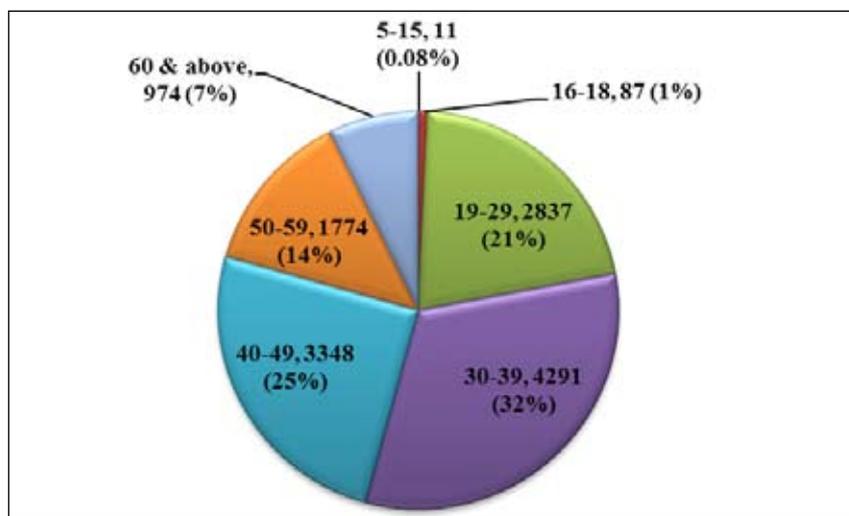
A total of 19522 households have been recorded as being in the labour force of which ST comprise the largest at 18117 households, that is, 92 per cent. This is largely expected as



the district is comprised mainly of the ST population. Their LFPR is at 82.70 per cent - 54.67 for males and 28.03 for females, respectively. SC constitute the next largest household group in the labour force at 3.19 per cent - 3.02 per cent males, 0.17 per cent females. The other social groups are comparatively lesser in percentage at less than 2 per cent. The evidence of gender difference is quite obvious with females at less than half of males out of the total labour for all social groups. The total households engaged in the labour force from various social groups is at 13322 for males (60.81 per cent) and 6200 for females (28.30 per cent), respectively.

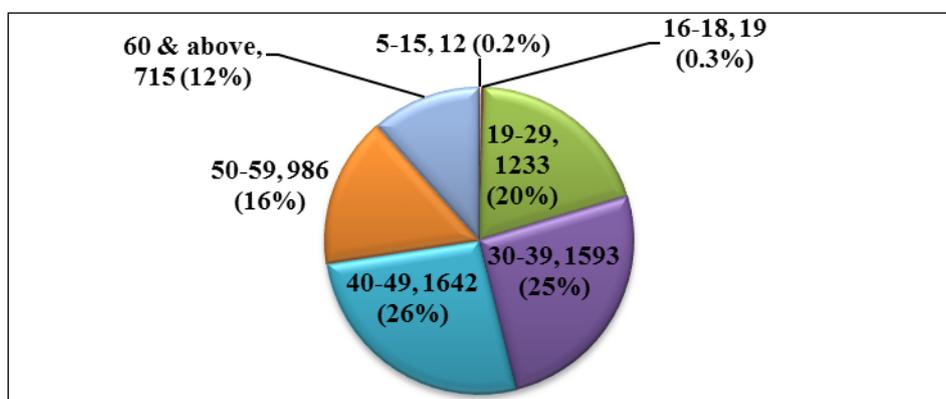
Gender wise distribution of the labour force by different social and age groups is given in figures 6.10.1.A and 6.10.1.B, respectively, for males and females.

Figure 6.10.1.A
Male Labour Force by Social & Age Groups



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups

Figure 6.10.1.B
Female Labour Force by Social & Age Groups



Note: Figure in brackets show the per cent of workers out of the total household reported to be in the labour force for different age groups



The figures show the labour force participation for male headed households (4291) in the age group of 30-39 years (32 per cent) to be of the highest and it is 26 per cent for female headed households (1642). It is in the age group 40-49 years (26 per cent), respectively. This is followed by those in the age group 30-39 years for the former and 40-49 years for the latter. Similarly, labour force participation is observed to be the lowest for households in the age group 5-15 years at almost a negligible level of less than one per cent. For the age group 60 years and above, labour force participation has been recorded at 7 per cent for males (974 households) and 12 per cent for females (715 households), respectively. Labour force participation in the age group 50-59 years for male headed households (1774) is 14 per cent and for female headed households (986) it is 16 per cent, respectively.

For computing the LFPR by social groups and place of origin, LFPR has been taken as a proportion of the total labour force (table 6.10).

Table 6.10
LFPR by Social Groups & Place of Origin

Social Group	Total Labour			LFPR (per cent)		
	Native	Migrant	Total	Native	Migrant	Total
SC	36	663	699	0.18	3.40	3.58
ST	17562	555	18117	89.96	2.84	92.80
OBC	30	207	237	0.15	1.06	1.21
Others	6	463	469	0.03	2.37	2.40
Total	17634	1888	19522	90.33	9.67	100.00

Differences in the LFPR for different social groups is in favour of the natives households at around 90 per cent compared to less than 10 per cent for the migrant households. However, more than half of the total LFPR is of the Schedule Tribe population - irrespective of the place of origin - at almost 93 per cent. This shows that a majority of the population belong to ST households. The migrant SC households recorded the highest LFPR at 663 (3.40 per cent), while among natives it is so, for the ST households it is at 17562 (89.96 per cent). This variation in the total households is also evident at 17634 households for natives and migrants at only 1888 households, respectively.

Gender distribution of the labour force by social groups, age groups and place of origin is presented in figures 6.11.1.A and 6.11.1.B for male and female headed households, respectively.



Figure 6.11.1.A
Male Labour Force by Social Groups, Age Groups & Place of Origin

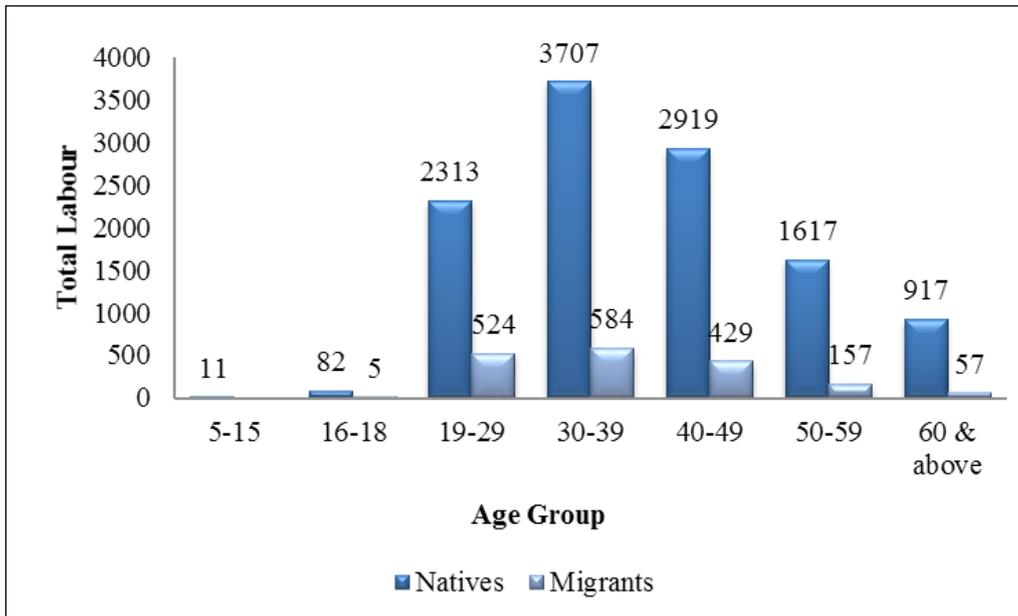
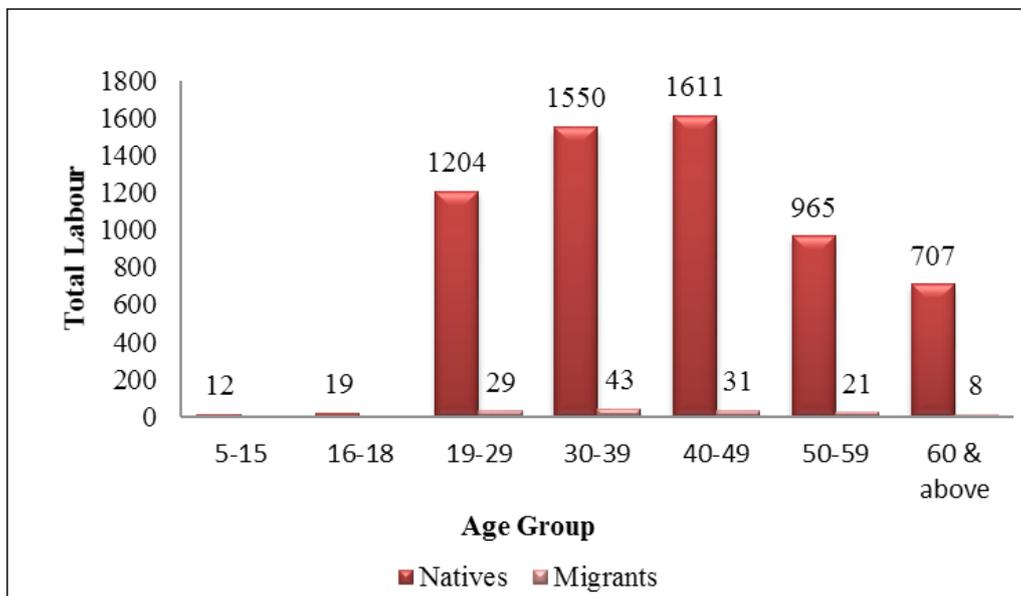


Figure 6.11.1.B
Female Labour Force by Social Groups, Age Groups & Place of Origin



For both male and female headed households, natives' households far outweigh migrant's households in terms of the magnitude of the labour force and by different social and age groups with the largest number of households in the labour force comprising those in the age group 19 to 49 years. For male headed households, age group 30-39 years makes up the largest number of labour force at 3707 for natives and 584 for migrants, respectively. However, male migrants record the next highest total in the labour force under the age group 19-29 years at 524 households compared to the natives in the age group 40-49 years at 2919 households for the same. For female migrants the largest labour force participation



has been recorded at 43 households in the age group 30-39 years followed by 31 households in the age group 40-49 years. Correspondingly, the female natives recorded the largest labour force participation in the age group 40-49 years at 1611 households followed by 1550 households for age group 30-39 years. These figures are almost similar with the labour force participation observed by educational levels, as discussed earlier.

6.5. Unemployment Pattern

The 'Unemployed' as defined by the NSSO and Census comprises of persons, who owing to a lack of work, had not worked but had either sought work or expressed their willingness or availability for work, i.e. seeking or available for work. The 'Unemployment Rate' has been measured as a percentage of the unemployed to the total persons in the labour force.

In this section both the population and household data has been utilized. For ascertaining the unemployment rate by gender and age group, the population (132636) data has been used. On the other hand, for unemployment by gender and place of origin, household level (22191) data has been applied.

Table 6.11 presents the level of unemployment by gender across the two districts of Jaintia Hills. The total observed unemployment rate for the age group 5 to 60 years and above has been taken as a proportion of the total labour force which is 48799.

Table 6.11
Unemployment by Gender

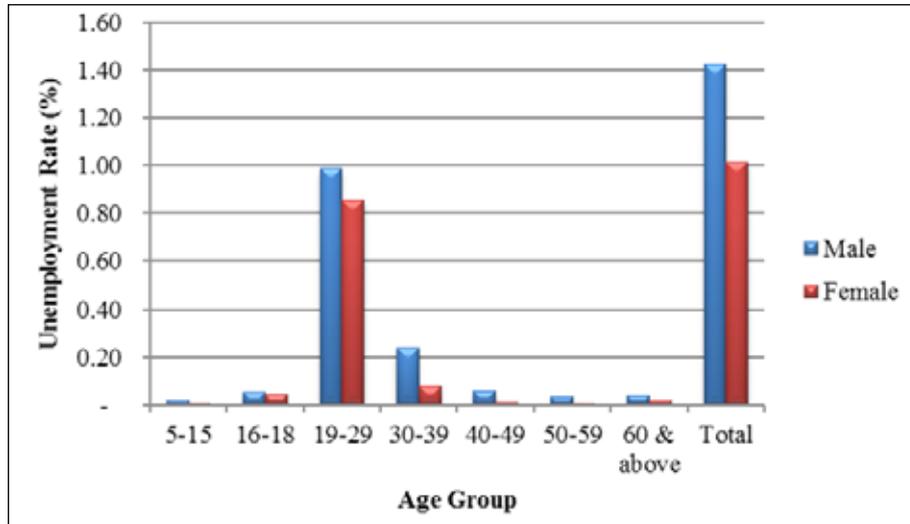
Districts	Total Unemployed			Per cent of Unemployed to Total Labour Force		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
East Jaintia Hills	417	254	671	0.85	0.52	1.38
West Jaintia Hills	275	240	515	0.56	0.49	1.06
Total	694	494	1186	1.42	1.01	2.43

It can be gauged that there is relatively low levels of unemployment in the entire district at 2.43 per cent making it a total of 1186 unemployed individuals. However, male unemployment is observed to be relatively higher than female unemployment at 1.42 and 1.01 per cent, respectively. Across districts, East Jaintia Hills recorded a higher unemployment rate at 1.38 per cent over West Jaintia Hills at 1.06 per cent. Overall, unemployment appears to be the highest for males in East Jaintia Hills (almost 1 per cent) compared to the sampled population wide total.

Unemployment across different age groups by gender has been shown in figure 6.12.



Figure 6.12
Unemployment by Gender and Age Group



As can be seen from figure 6.12, the lowest unemployment rate has been observed for those in the age group 5-15 years at 0.02 per cent. It may be noted here that unemployment rate has not been reflected for females in the age group 50-59 years due to a negligible number of reported unemployed. A relatively higher unemployment rate can be seen for those in the age group 19-29 years at around 1.85 per cent. This is also seen for those in the age group 30-39 years. A total of 2.16 per cent of the youth in the age group 19-39 years has been reported as unemployed. This further highlights the problem of youth unemployment as observed across the entire country and Jaintia Hills being no exception to it.

On the question of youth unemployment, table 6.12 shows the pattern of unemployment at different education levels by gender.

Table 6.12
Unemployment by Gender & Education levels

Education Levels	Total Unemployed			Per cent of Unemployed to Total Labour Force		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Illiterate	146	46	192	0.30	0.09	0.39
Literate without formal schooling	27	5	32	0.06	0.01	0.07
Below Primary	39	18	57	0.08	0.04	0.12
Primary	48	22	70	0.10	0.05	0.14
Middle	47	44	91	0.10	0.09	0.19
Secondary	89	64	153	0.18	0.13	0.31
Higher Secondary	110	87	197	0.23	0.18	0.40
Diploma or Certificate Course	21	22	43	0.04	0.05	0.09
Graduates	138	152	290	0.28	0.31	0.59
Post Graduates	27	34	61	0.06	0.07	0.13
Total	692	494	1186	1.42	1.01	2.43



It can be observed that unemployment is relatively higher for those individuals listed as graduates. For education levels of graduate and above, the unemployment rate is at a combined level of 0.72 per cent. For those with schooling below middle level, their unemployment rate is 0.91 per cent. The pattern of unemployment that emerges clearly reflects the case of educated unemployed in the district.

Tables 6.12.A and 6.12.B reflect the pattern of unemployment at different education levels for males and females, respectively.

Table 6.12.A
Male Unemployment by Education levels & Age Group

Education levels	Age group							Total
	5-15	16-18	19-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 & above	
Illiterate	3	9	60	38	15	9	12	146
Literate without formal schooling	2	3	15	2	3	1	1	27
Below Primary	1	5	26	4	3	0	0	39
Primary	2	3	29	6	0	5	3	48
Middle	0	3	34	6	2	1	1	47
Secondary	0	2	76	10	1	0	0	89
Higher Secondary	0	0	90	20	0	0	0	110
Diploma or Certificate Course	0	0	19	2	0	0	0	21
Graduates	0	0	111	23	4	0	0	138
Post Graduates	0	0	21	5	0	0	1	27
Total	8	25	481	116	28	16	18	692

Source: Field Data

Table 6.12.B
Female Unemployment by Education levels & Age Group

Education levels	Age group							Total
	5-15	16-18	19-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 & above	
Illiterate	1	3	29	6	1	2	4	46
Literate without formal schooling	0	0	3	0	1	0	1	5
Below Primary	0	2	14	1	0	0	1	18
Primary	0	2	17	1	1	0	1	22
Middle	2	9	32	1	0	0	0	44
Secondary	0	2	58	4	0	0	0	64
Higher Secondary	0	3	77	6	1	0	0	87
Diploma or Certificate Course	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	22
Graduates	0	0	137	15	0	0	0	152
Post Graduates	0	0	28	5	1	0	0	34
Total	3	21	417	39	5	2	7	494



From the tables it can be observed that males have higher number of unemployed as compared to females across all education levels. The highest number of males unemployed is registered for those who are Graduates followed by those who are illiterates. On the other hand, for females, Graduates constitute the largest number of unemployed followed by those with a Higher Secondary education. This picture does reveal one important result that male unemployed illiterates are more in terms of magnitude than female unemployed illiterates. It is a case worth noting, as one of the main forms of employment in the district has been listed as Casual Labour.

The rate of unemployment by gender and education levels is presented in Table 6.13. The main objective of having this is to highlight the magnitude of unemployment for natives and migrants. For this, household level data has been employed. The total number of households reported as unemployed is 30, of which 29 households are natives and only 1 household was recorded as migrant.

Table 6.13
Unemployment by Gender, Education levels

Education levels	Age group					Total
	19-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 & above	
Males						
Illiterate	1	1	0	3	5	10
Literate without Formal Schooling	0	0	1	1	0	2
Below Primary	0	0	1	0	0	1
Primary	0	0	0	1	2	2
Middle	0	0	2	1	0	3
Higher Secondary	1	0	0	0	0	1
Diploma/Certificate	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total	3	1	4	6	7	20
Females						
Illiterate	0	2	0	1	3	6
Literate without Formal Schooling	0	0	0	0	1	1
Below Primary	0	0	0	0	1	1
Primary	1	0	0	0	0	1
Higher Secondary	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total	2	2	0	1	5	10

Of the total absolute numbers observed for sampled households, only a total of 30 households have been observed to be unemployed at different educational levels. A relatively larger number of illiterate households appear to be unemployed. By place of origin, of the total 30 households, only 1 male migrant household was reported to be unemployed for middle level education. Females are comparatively less unemployed by almost half compared to male headed households. While the magnitude of the observation may not be large, it is worth reporting as the number of native households' unemployed at different educational levels is 29 households of the total 30 households. No female migrant was reported to be unemployed.



6.6. Econometric Estimates

As can be seen from the above discussion, there exist wide disparities in the LFPR across the Jaintia Hills District of Meghalaya. Gender difference in LFPR is relatively prominent across the East and West Jaintia Hills districts. Further, the variation in LFPR by different individual and household characteristics has also been witnessed. The case of the existence of children recorded as workers, irrespective of the magnitude (4 per cent for female and 7 per cent for male children, respectively) is a cause that warrants further investigation.

It is with this objective, that an econometric estimate has been undertaken in this section, to examine the likelihood of children being ‘out of school’ or alternatively, ‘children at work’.

Nongkynrih and Chakrabarty (2014) in their paper on female child labour in India found that the main determinants of girls being out of school or in the labour force is largely conditioned on household characteristics. Using 2004-05, NSSO unit level data, the findings reveal that one of the main determinants that act as a deterrent to children being sent to school include, lower educational attainment of parents and larger family size (higher number of children). These factors have been seen to increase the likelihood of children being sent to work.

Employing a similar methodology, i.e., maximum likelihood estimation techniques, the econometric estimates has been undertaken using 68th NSSO unit level data, 2011-12 to explore whether there is any correlation between the all-India phenomena with that of the state of Meghalaya. Household level data collected during the survey has also been employed to help shed light on the situation in the Jaintia Hills District.

For the calculation of the contribution of different factors to the participation of children in the labour force, it is assumed that work participation is a phenomenon that is affected by a set of factors that could explain the outcome. Based on these considerations a binary variable y is defined that takes values

$y=1$ if the child is working
 $y=0$ otherwise.

This binary variable is then regressed on a set of explanatory variables that includes various individual and household characteristics. Such a specification of an econometric model has been extensively used in the literature²¹. It is to be noted, that since the dependent variable is binary, least squares method to estimate the coefficients cannot be employed. Instead, maximum likelihood estimation technique has been used to calculate the coefficients.

In this study the probit model²² is used in order to calculate the marginal contributions of different characteristics/factors on children’s labour participation.

A probit model is defined as

$$\text{Prob}(y_i = 1) = \Phi(X_i, \beta_i) \quad (1)$$

where Φ is the cumulative density in a standard normal distribution function

X_i are the characteristics

β_i are the coefficients associated with the characteristics, respectively.

²¹ The issues involved in the specification and estimation of these models are discussed at length in Johnston (1984), Amemia (1985), Kmenta (1985), Johnston and DiNardo (1997) and Greene (1997).

²² The probit model is one of the statistical models used for discrete or binary models.



From the NSS employment and unemployment data set, we have derived the following dependent and independent variables.

A child not attending school is used as a dependent variable. It is a binary variable. It takes value 1 if a child in the household is not sent to school and 0 if the child is sent to school. This variable is used to regress upon the following independent variables:

Working Mother	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> if the mother in the household is working, this binary variable takes value 1, zero otherwise.
ST	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> this is binary variable. If household belongs to ST, it is 1. Zero otherwise.
SC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> this is binary variable. If household belongs to SC, it is 1. Zero otherwise.
OBC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> this is binary variable. If household belongs to OBC, it is 1. Zero otherwise.
Educated Mother	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> this variable is binary, 1 if the mother is educated. Zero otherwise.

The reference groups in the econometric estimation are uneducated mother, mother not in the work force, and other social groups for social groups. The monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE) has been used as a continuous variable and a proxy for income to ascertain the impact of the level of living on the likelihood of a child being at work.

The result of the estimates for the state of Meghalaya has been presented in table 6.14. It may be noted that the total observation has been drawn from only about 7000 sampled households.

Table 6.14
Result of Maximum Likelihood Probit Model²³
Dependent Variable: Child Out of School

Independent Variables	dy/dx	x
Mother's education	-0.18551	0.01651
MPCE	-0.00016	1542.22
Working Mother	-0.07151	0.341932
Scheduled Tribe	0.016146	0.911389
Scheduled Caste	-0.07386	0.00503
Other Backward Class	-0.07003	0.011221

Source: Computed from NSSO unit level data, 2011-12

Notes: dy/dx are marginal effects, i.e., the change in probability of children working with a one-unit change in the right side variable; x is the test of the underlying coefficient being 0.

²³ The calculation of the results of the probit model has been computed along with Dr.M.Chakrabarty.



The results of the probit analysis show that of the independent variables considered, mother's education is the most significant. The probability of a child working is largely dependent on the education of a mother. As indicated by the results of the analysis, if the mother is educated then the likelihood of a child entering the work force is negative. On the other hand, the likelihood of a child being at work is relatively more if the mother is uneducated or having low levels of education. Children with uneducated mothers have 18 per cent higher probability of entering the labour market or the work force, as per the analysis.

The other significant variable is the MPCE - a proxy for income. It may be mentioned here that the MPCE has been taken as a continuous and not as a binary variable. From the results it is evident that income is a strong determinant as to whether a child enters the labour market or not. A child belonging to a low income group is more likely to enter the labour market. The same, however, does not appear to be so for a child belonging to a higher income group.

The working status of a mother, controlling for a non-working mother shows a meagre of significance. As indicated by the results of the analysis, a child has 7 per cent less probability of entering the labour market if the mother is working. On the other hand, the probability of entering the labour market is lower for a child with a non-working mother.

The caste status of a child has also been considered in relation to a child belonging to other social groups. This does not emerge as a very significant variable. However, the results show a negative relationship for a child belonging to the SC or OBC community as compared to a positive result for a child belonging to an ST background. The results indicate that an ST child has a higher probability of entering the labour market compared to a child from other social statuses - SC, OBC and Others. On the other hand a child from other social statuses - SC, OBC - has a lower probability of entering the labour market compared to a child belonging to the social group categorized under 'Others'.

From the results, it appears that a child entering the labour market is determined by a wide range of factors. Significant among them is income and the level of education of a mother, among other factors considered.

The results of the survey appear to corroborate these findings. For instance, of the total households (22191), about 43 per cent of the respondent has a monthly income of up to Rs.3000 per month. Also, nearly 28 per cent of the households reported a monthly income ranging between Rs.3001 up to Rs.6000 per month.

Examining in terms of the annual income of households, the results of the survey shows that the maximum number of households (6181) - which is about 28 per cent - is in the category of annual income in the range of Rs.25001 to Rs.50000 per year. For annual income less than Rs.50000 the proportion of households is 31.53 per cent. Further, about 23 per cent of households are in the category of annual income ranging between Rs.50001 up to Rs.75000 per year. This makes a total of about 12063 households with an annual income less than Rs.75000 per year which is almost half of the entire households (54.36 per cent) with this income level per year. Significantly, 2567 respondents (11.6 per cent) are BPL card holders.

Of the total households, nearly 51 per cent of the respondents were reported to be illiterate. About 85 per cent of them have an education level up to middle level or class 8. The



proportion of households with a graduate degree and above is only 2.42 per cent (537 households).

From among the social categories of the respondents, 20721 (93.4 per cent) belong to the ST category followed by SC at 3.2 per cent, others at 2.2 per cent and the lowest number comprise of OBC households at 1.1 per cent.

The observations made at the household level do strengthen the results of the analysis. From the results of the survey; it becomes evident that education and income levels in the villages under survey leaves much to be desired for. In such a situation, the likelihood of a child being at work will be further reinforced if steps are not taken to improve the education and income levels of the households.

From a total 22,191 sampled household comprising 1,32,636 total population, gender disparity in the labour market participation is evident with male labour force participation outweighing female labour force participation. Further the extent of employment is concentrated in relation to casual labour and self-employment. There is also evidence of the existence of working children in the age group 5 to 18 years - though a relatively smaller magnitude. By place of origin, native work force outnumber migrant work force by all household characteristics, namely, education, marital status as well by social and religious groupings. ST's and Christians appear to be having the highest proportion of labour force participation. The case of the educated unemployed in the district is also clearly exhibited from the results of the survey. The results of the econometric estimates appear to corroborate the findings in the survey on the likelihood of a child being at work and not in school. Education and income emerge as strong determinants towards this end.

Here it may also be noted that the study being only a sample study of the villages in the Jaintia Hills, the same may not be said for the other non-sampled villages. This is because the socio-cultural system prevalent differs widely across localities, villages and among districts. Nonetheless, it presents us with strong evidences on the pattern of employment and unemployment in the area. Towards this end, the Government initiatives and policies may be aimed at improving the education level of the population and create employment opportunities. This would alleviate the current economic situation of households and improve their levels of living. Another important point to be noted is the case of the educated unemployed, which is found to be alarming among the Graduates. Skill development may have some effect in reducing this problem to a certain extent.



Chapter 7

Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

The socio-economic empowerment, progress and stability of any society by and large depends on the investment made in the human capital development. Developing human capital of a country requires creating opportunities of education for every child and cultivating environment for learning and applying new ideas. Environment which is conducive to social, mental and physical development would make children to become responsible and productive members of the society.

The International organisations, Governments of various countries, NGO's, Academicians and Thinkers are collectively committed to work for child labour issues. In India, since the time of Independence various constitutional provisions, Government schemes and policies were made against child labour problem which are pro-actively working till now. Article-21A, and 24 in the Constitution of India, reflects such concerns whereas The Government of India ratified six ILO conventions to eliminate child labour. Still after long decades of effort the child labour in India occurs in a large extent, this indicates that sustained efforts are required for over a long period of time to eradicate this problem.

Article 32 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child calls upon the State parties to protect children from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. Furthermore it requires State parties to take necessary action to ensure the implementation of this provision.

The present study made an attempt to identify the extent and to locate prevalence of different forms of child workers in 100 villages of East and West Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya. The villages were selected through the process of vulnerability mapping that was carried out in 6168 villages spread across 11 districts of the State. The survey covered a total of 22,191 households with the population of 1, 32, 636 comprising 66931 male (50.5%) and 65680 female (49.5 %). The proportion of female population is lower than that of male with a marginal difference in female and male population in the area of survey. The study covered almost all the households in both the East Jaintia Hills District and West Jaintia Hills District. Primary data collection was carried out through the survey tool from the residence, workplace, labour camps and coalmine sites and coal depots and other places where it was conducive for the respondents.

From the visits undertaken to the coalmine sites, it was found that the different processes involved in coal mining in the study area were mostly carried out by those who owned the land and these land owners possessed the absolute right over all minerals in their land at the ground/surface level and/or below. Some of these land owners contracted out their land for mining. It was also found that various activities involved in mining of coal were carried out by the migrant workers. These mines visited as a part of this study were scattered found located in very difficult terrain of the hill having a very limited number of population.



Though Meghalaya is known as the matrilineal society which confers more autonomy on women as compared to patrilineal societies, it was found during the survey that many of the families are headed by male which reflects the influx of migrants and their making their districts as their habitation.

The average family size of the surveyed population is 5.9. The population below 18 years constituted 52.5 % out of total population, comprising 35,015 males (50.3%) and 34,604 females (49.7 %). This age group is also very important in the context of child labour. It is significant to know that the population above 18 is lesser than population below 18 indicating higher percentage of younger people meeting the demand for workforce. The Total Population of children below 14 years in the households covered by the survey was 57,700 and they constituted 43.5 % of the total population comprising 28,953 (50.1%) male and 28744 (49.8%) female.

The total population above 14 years constituted 74936 comprising 37978 male (50.75%) and 36936 female (49.3 %) and the total population above 18 years constituted 63,014 comprising 31,916 male (50.6%) and 31,076 female (49.3 %). The early morbidity in the study area is reflected by the fact that the proportion of population above 60 is phenomenally low (2.5%). This substantiates the fact that migration from poor communities leave behind disproportionate numbers of the old, and migration changes the age profile.

Of the total sampled population of 1,32,636, the total children in the surveyed population were 66,921. The incidence of working children identified through the survey was 3041 of which 2242 i.e. 3.3% were identified as full-time working children (only working children (OW)); 59 children i.e., 0.1% who were attending school and were also working (ASW) and 740 children, i.e., 1.2% were reported to be neither at school nor at work (NSNW). There is also evidence of the existence of working children in the age group 5 to 18 years - though a relatively smaller magnitude. The results of the econometric estimates appear to corroborate the findings in the survey on the likelihood of a child being at work and not in school. Education and income emerge as strong determinants towards this end.

Christians constitute 64.6 per cent of the total number of the surveyed households, followed by *Niamtre* with 29%, 4.2 per cent constituted Hindus and 2 per cent Muslims. Nearly 93% were Scheduled Tribes, followed by Scheduled Castes (3.3%), others (2.1%) and Other Backward Classes (1.1%).

In order to ascertain the coverage of social security benefits to the respondents, information related to the holding of various social security cards like Below Poverty Line (BPL), Above Poverty Line (APL), Electors Photo Identity Card (EPIC), Meghalaya Health Insurance Scheme (MHIS), Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY), and Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA). Significantly, 2567 respondents were having BPL cards; 20,081 with EPIC; 8100 with MGNREGA; 4874 with MHIS; 1076 with APL; 181 with AAY while 956 were not having any of the cards. It implies that nearly 80-95% of the respondents were not having any social security coverage.

The mainstay of the Jaintia Hills district is agriculture. However, due to the abundance of limestone, cement factories have been set up in the district. Coal mining (also called as rat-hole mining) in this district is one of the major activities. The dispatch of coal from Meghalaya is highest from the Jaintia Hills. Coal mined here is mostly exported to Bangladesh and Assam. Most of the coal mining sites are now situated in the East Jaintia Hills district. The limestone



and coal mining in this region has been a pull factor for employment for people from within and outside the country.

Based on the survey conducted, out of 22,191 total respondents, 1951 (8.8%) were migrants of which 507 (2.3%) were from other village of Meghalaya (intra-state migrants), 1286 (5.8%) were from other states of India (inter-state migrants) and 149 (0.7%) from Nepal (international migrants). There were 1285 respondents from 17 states of India. It comprises about 66% of the total migrants. Nearly 7.6% of the migrants are international migrants exclusively from Nepal. Out of these total inter-state migrants, 64.8% were from Assam, followed by Bihar (15.2%), Tripura (5.3%), West Bengal (4.3%), Rajasthan (3.7%), and Uttar Pradesh (3.6%). The migrants from Assam, Tripura and West Bengal were mostly engaged in coal mining related activities, while those from Bihar, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh were into business. Nearly 86% of the migrants had migrated at least one year to more than 30 years back. 61% of the migrants cited work/employment as the pre-dominant reason for migration followed by 21% in business and 8% in marriage. The nature of migration observed here is through social networks as a substantial number of 1254 (65%) out of the total migrants of 1951 had migrated with family members, relatives, friends or villagers. While nearly 29% had migrated alone, only about 2% had migrated through middleman/contractor/employer's agent.

Increasing trend in migration is noted over the past three decades since the 80s. While 7% have reported to have migrated during 1981-90, it was 18% during 1991-2000, 45% during 2001-2010, nearly 24% have migrated between 2010 and 2015. Increasing in-migration since the year 1980 reflect the fact that there has been continuous demand for workers with the expansion of coal mining in the districts.

Nearly 34% of the respondents were engaged in self-employment and about 48% were into casual labour. This shows that the respondents were into main occupations that are highly unorganized without job security and less remunerative. From a total 22,191 sampled household comprising 1,32,636 total population, gender disparity in the labour market participation is evident with male labour force participation outweighing female labour force participation. Further the extent of employment is concentrated in relation to casual labour and self-employment. The representation of STs and Christians appear to be having the highest proportion in the labour force participation. The literacy level of the native work force is higher as compared to the migrant work force. The case of educated unemployment in the district is also clearly exhibited from the results of the survey.

Recommendations

The working children who have been identified through this survey and other children who might have joined during the post-survey should be withdrawn from labour force and should be enrolled in the schools/Special Training Centres/vocational training centres respectively depending on their age. Inter-and intra-departmental coordination is essential for the economic rehabilitation of child labour families and educational rehabilitation of children withdrawn from work. Educational infrastructure development needs to be given priority with residential schools to address the problems of working children of the migratory families in both the districts surveyed. Special Training Centres (STC) should be started under the SSA programme or by the NCLP Scheme so that children could be trained for enrolment in age-appropriate classes. Transportation facility should be arranged in case the schools are



located far away from their residence and residential schools should be established for the migrant children.

Through this survey an accurate list of the names of children employed in different occupations are made available to the Labour Department village-wise/Block-wise and District-wise so that these children could be located for rehabilitation. NCLP Scheme should expand to include all the districts of Meghalaya and convergence approach should be followed to enhance social protection and welfare measures for working children of Meghalaya.

District-level Core Committees constituted for total elimination of child labour in different districts of Meghalaya should undertake necessary steps for prevention of child labour. Identification of child labour through physical verification of locations and places of employment should be carried out regularly to ascertain the presence of child labour. In order to have credible information on the status of working children identified, a web based Child Labour Tracking and Monitoring System is suggested. Such a system helps recording the progress right from the time of his/her identification as child labour to his/her enrolment in the special Training Centre/school/Vocational training, through his/her education/rehabilitation and the progress thereof. Tribal councils should be involved in monitoring and tracking of child labour in the districts. Education Department should ensure mapping of the schools and survey of the out of school children periodically. All children in the age group of 3-6 year identified through such surveys should be mainstreamed to Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) facilities. Children of 6-14 years of age identified through such surveys should be enrolled in age-appropriate classes with the provision of textbooks/note books/guidebooks, stationeries, school bags, uniforms and tuitions free of cost. Their educational status/learning level and further needs should be assessed from time to time.

Since different forms of child labour cannot be ended only by improving school enrolment and educational rehabilitation, efforts for improvement of socio-economic environment of the child labour families should be strengthened. Some of the prominent schemes of various Departments, which could have an explicit component for child labour and their families, could be utilized. Efforts to be made to raise the income levels of parents through linkages with the employment and income generation programmes and other poverty alleviation programmes of the Government of Meghalaya and the Central Government.

To evoke large-scale awareness on this issue of child labour, there is a need for an extensive awareness generation campaign launched over a period of time on a sustained basis. Moreover, it is important to sensitize and spread awareness among different sections of the society in Meghalaya on the prevalence of enslaved forms of labour. Line State Government Departments dealing with issues relating to social sectors should take up the issue of child labour and also periodically organize awareness-generation programmes and other Camps. Enrolment campaign should be energized to ensure that the children below 14 are enrolled and retained in the schools and not forced to work. Medical Camps for Health check-ups and Disability Camps to reach out to those who are specially-abled and to locate children vulnerable for child labour in their families, etc. are some of the ways to inform the masses and sensitize the general public and particularly the parents on the consequences of child labour on the health and overall development of their children; and also make them aware of various Government Schemes/programmes and enable them to get benefitted from the schemes for raising their economic conditions.



Effective rehabilitation measures, therefore, must be supplemented with strong enforcement measures to prevent further entry of children into the work force. All those who are designated as labour inspectors should be oriented on the issue of child labour and imparted Training in the CAL (PR) Act and the rules. In order to address the demand factors there is need to strengthen enforcement of legal provisions relating to child labour and ensure rehabilitation of children withdrawn from work. Strict enforcement of laws is essential to deter employers from employing children. For the enforcement of relevant laws in general and Child Labour Act in particular, role of state government is of crucial importance. Proactive identification of child labour, and adolescent labour in hazardous employment should be carried out by way of creating networks with various implementation and child protection agencies.

Police may be made as the integral part of all the meetings and committees on the subject of child labour. Traffic Police and Railway Police are ideally placed to locate children being trafficked for labour exploitation. Police in the Anti-Human Trafficking Units may be required to keep watch on the movement of vehicles and agents trafficking children particularly in the borders and vulnerable to geographical areas. Police Department may be required to carry out vulnerability mapping of areas prone to human trafficking in their respective districts periodically. Plain cloth police personnel should be deployed at the bus-stands and tourist taxi stand and market places for locating and detaining persons involved in human trafficking.

District-specific comprehensive Action Plan should developed for total elimination of child labour involving the representatives of Trade Unions, PRIs, CPUs, CWCs, Civil Society Organizations, community, parents, and the employers. The local community should keep constant vigil on the engagement of child labour.

The role of employers is crucial in the efforts to end employment of children and ensuring their Right to Education. They also play a powerful role in dissuading those who hire child labour, especially in both the rural and urban informal sectors. Moreover, Employers and Employers' Organizations play a vital and fundamental role in providing education for children by lobbying for effective schooling. They have the potential to help in the collection of data on the incidence of child labour in various establishments and to influence the development of appropriate policies. They can help in designing vocational and skills training for working children. Manufacturers/Exporters/Employers' Associations can help raise public awareness on the wrongs of child labour and rights of children thereby bringing about changes in the attitudes towards child labour.

In India, Employers' Organizations and their members have been active in support of child labour elimination efforts through a variety of capacity building measures including the development of guidelines for action to be followed by the employers. As vertically integrated organizations, they provide a unique link between the global and the national level on issues related to social protection and child rights. They have undertaken different types of activities towards eliminating child labour.

The Employers' Organizations through its chambers and affiliates in various states have conducted awareness raising programmes, trained change agents and have setup community based organizations to ensure the rights of children. The employers' organizations have also developed training, advocacy and information materials aimed at sensitising employers and other stakeholders. As a result, many employers have acquired knowledge on child labour



issues and have been actively restricting children's access to the workplace. In addition to their other programmes, awareness raising sessions on child labour have been conducted by these organizations with the specific focus of addressing child labour in the supply chain and towards supporting education systems. The employers' organizations have also developed codes of conduct and stresses the need for compliance by monitoring and social auditing and with regard to child labour as a form of forced labour which has been emerging as an important issue in the area of supply chain management.

Further, various employers' organizations have been deliberating on the factors that may contribute to child labour in the production and trade of major commodities, and which therefore warrant a more systemic approach than traditional supply chain management and the factors that make child labour a particular risk for some non-export businesses particularly the Artisan Units, Small and Medium Enterprises exposed to the informal economy. The employers' organizations have also been taking measures to prevent trafficking of children for labour by monitoring the recruitment processes. The continued engagement and support of employers' organizations and their members in combating child labour is vital for total elimination of child labour from hazardous occupations and processes.

In the contemporary world of rapid development of communication technology, media can play a critical and an indispensable role towards ensuring the Right to Education for children and towards abolition of child labour with its ability to propagate ideas, disseminate information and to create awareness. Therefore, effective utilization of media is essential in a way so that it can play a catalytic role not only for enforcement of various policies and legislation relating to the Rights of the Child but also for implementation of programmes targeting different beneficiaries which may influence the amelioration of the situation of children who are out of school. Media can play a role in generating awareness on the importance of enrolment and retention of children in school and for tackling the problem of child labour has long been recognized. All communication channels and social media should be tapped for evolving a workable package. From generally sensitizing people in a subtle manner affecting social acceptability of the phenomenon of child labour, the media could go right down to the local level and motivate people to take action to cease the employment of children. Child labour is the outcome of bargaining for small benefits in the present for a very large sacrifice in future, which very often is not envisaged. Media can help by directly showing the problem of child labour and non-enrolment of children in school and their effect on the child and on the child's future.

It is important not to place over emphasis on the electronic media as the traditional communication channels are not only less costly but more effective in reaching out directly to the community at the grass-roots level. The need of the day is also to formulate media policy on child labour and children's Right to Education. Communication strategies should be devised and contextualized in an overall plan of action. The strategies for the national media package should include a common symbol which could be a character that runs through the various media like cartoon films, posters and hoardings. This common character can be either real character or fictional. Development and production of media packages should involve NGOs and Media groups which are familiar with the issue of child rights and child labour.

The basic message is on the abolition of child labour should be area-specific, audience-specific and occupation-specific and should be able to arouse the emotions and should be



appealing to the heart and mind. The emphasis should be placed on different dimensions of child labour and not on different messages. While the scope of messages for the victim group such as child labour, their parents and guardians, should be of conscientizing in nature and for the catalytic group it should be of informative in nature with emotional touch as invoking any action from below needs to be preceded by emotional arousal. On the contrary, the message for those who perpetuate the practice of child labour such as the employers, middle men, contractors, those who traffic children for labour, profiting groups, should be of threatening in nature with punitive action and legal repercussions of exploiting child labour. The messages should be given in such a manner that it becomes a process of empowerment, asserting the rights of the children. All messages should be so formulated and material should be developed in such a way that they include the spirit of the Rights of the Child contained in the articles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Unless concern for ensuring education for all children and eliminating the practice of child labour do not become a societal issue, no policies, programmes or action can effectively ensure children their rights. There is ample evidence and demonstration that a well thought out a media strategy and plan, supported by creative media software, has resulted in bringing about change in the mindsets, attitudes and behaviour of different sections of population. All children have right to their childhood and they should be imparted education to achieve their true potential and to become effective citizens of our nation.



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Web Resources

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- http://mospi.nic.in/mospi_new/upload/ne_hill_university_nra_project_30apr08_final.pdf
- <http://vedantbatra.wordpress.com/2013/05/06/coal-mining-in-meghalaya/>
- http://www.cseindia.org/userfiles/meghalaya_arwat-challam.pdf
- <http://www.easternpanorama.in/index.php/component/content/article/27-2009/september31/530-meghalaya-digging-deep-indeed>



Annexure 1

SUMMARY REPORT OF THE VULNERABILITY MAPPING ON CHILD LABOUR (RURAL AREAS)

The Vulnerability mapping survey on child labour in rural areas, conducted in the State of Meghalaya during the year 2013.

The survey is carried out as under:-

1. Total number of Districts covered by the survey is **11**.
2. Total number of C& RD Blocks covered by the survey is **39**.
3. Total number of Gram Sevak Circles covered by the survey is **579**.
4. Total number of villages covered by the survey is **6168**.

INDICATORS

The figures found under the columns 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 & 10 of the consolidated statement (Rural Areas), for Group A, Group B, Group C, Group D, Group E & Group F occupations respectively indicates the number of villages wherein an occupation is prevalent.

The findings of the survey can be summarized as per the table below:

Occupations	Number of villages covered	Number of villages where the occupation is prevalent	% of prevalence of the occupation out of the villages covered
Group A - Tea shop, Dhabas (road side eateries), Restaurants, Resorts, Motels, Hotels, Spas or other recreational centers	6168	1828	29.64%
Group B - Transport of passengers/ goods etc, Automobile workshops/ garages, repairing maintenance	6168	1122	18.19%
Group C - Factories and Industries, Manufacturing works and units, Saw mills, Timber Handling and loading, Handloom and power loom industry	6168	521	8.45%
Group D - Food processing, Cashew and cashewnut descaling and processing, Agriculture process with use of heavy machines	6168	170	2.76%
Group E - Mining and collieries, Lime kilns and manufacture of Lime, stone breaking and crushing, Brick kilns and roof tiles units	6168	416	6.74%
Group F - Other hazardous occupations/ processes, if any	6168	692	11.22%

DYNAMICS OF EMPLOYMENT AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC REALITY: HOUSEHOLD SURVEY IN JAINTIA HILLS, MEGHALAYA (HOUSEHOLD SURVEY FORMAT)



1. Particulars of Field Survey											
1.1 Result status of the interview: Completed 1 Refused 2 Partly completed 3 Dwelling vacant 4 No competent respondent found 5											
1.2 Time starting			<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Time ending			<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
1.3 Date of interview:			<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Date:	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1.4 No. of visits made
			<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Month:	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
			<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Year:	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
1.5 Site/Place of conducting the interview: Household <input type="checkbox"/> Labour Camp <input type="checkbox"/> Coalmine site/Depot <input type="checkbox"/> Workplace <input type="checkbox"/>											
1.6 Languages known to the respondent (<i>Jait ktien ba nang ki nong jubab</i>) :											
Languages	English	Hindi	Khasi	Nepali	Pnar	Bangla	Biaste	Assamese	Any other Language (Specify)		
Speak											
Read											
Write											
1.6 Name of the investigator:						Signature of the investigator					
1.7 Name of the Supervisor						Signature of the Supervisor					



2. Identification and Characteristics																					
2.1 SCHEDULE IDENTIFICATION (FOR OFFICE USE ONLY)																					
2.2 Name of the District:		East Jaintia Hill:	1	West Jaintia Hill:	2	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> (For office use only)															
2.3 Name of the Community Development Block:		Khliehriat:	1	Saipung:	2	Amlarem:	3	Thadlaskein:	4	Laskein:	5										
2.4 Name of the Gram Sevak Circle:		<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> (For office use only)																			
2.5 Name of the Village:		<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> (For office use only)																			
2.6 Full Address: (<i>Jaka sah / trei ba pura</i>):																					
2.7 Name of Head of Household (<i>khlieh jong ka iing</i>):																					
2.8 Name of the Respondent (<i>nong jubab</i>):																					
2.9 Respondent's relation with the Head of the household (<i>jingiadei jong u / ka nong jubab bad u / ka khlieh ka iing</i>):																					
2.10 Place of Birth of the respondent: Village: State:																					
2.11 Household size (<i>katno ngut ki briew ba sah ha iing</i>):																					
2.12 Social group:		Scheduled Caste:	1	Scheduled Tribe:	2	Other Backward Caste:	3	Others (Specify Name of Tribe/Community):	4												
2.13 Religion:		Hinduism:	1	Islam:	2	Christianity:	3	Sikhism:	4	Buddhism:	5	Jainism:	6	Niam Tre:	7	Khasi:	8	Songsarek:	9	Others (Specify):	10
2.14 Whether Surveyed household is a card holder of any of the following? BPL: 1 APL: 2 NREGA: 3 MHIS Smart Card: 4 AAY: 5 EPIC: 6 None: 7																					
2.15 Total Annual Income of the Household (Rs.):																					
2.16 Land possessed (home/agricultural land/shop/mines/groves etc.) as on date of survey(<i>Jaka ba don</i>): Yes 1 No 2																					
2.17 If yes in 2.16, specify area in the local unit/acre in the relevant box.																					



3. Demographic Particulars of Household

Sl. No.	3.1 Name	3.2 Relation to head of Household *	3.3 Sex (M / F/ O)	3.4 Age (years)	3.5 Marital status **	3.6 Education # (if attending school, mention name of the school)	3.7 Present status \$\$	3.8 Main Occupation	3.9 Secondary Occupation	3.10 Income from main Occupation Per Month (Rs.) @	3.11 Income from Secondary Occupation Per Month (Rs.) @	3.12 Age of Entry into work	3.13 Name of Employer/ Sordar & Address
1													
15													



Codes for Table No. 3

3.2* Relation to head of the household:	Code
Self	1
Spouse of head (U ne ka Tnga jong u khlieh ka iing)	2
Married child (Khun ba lah shongkurim)	3
Spouse of married child (tnga ki khun)	4
Unmarried child (Khun bym pat shongkurim)	5
Grand child (Khun Ksiew)	6
Father (Kpa)	7
Mother (Kmie)	8
Father-in-law (Kthaw)	9
Mother-in-law (Kiaw)	10
Brother	11
Sister	12
Brother-in-law	13
Sister-in-law	14
Servants (Nongtrei iing)	15
Employees	16
Other non-relatives	17
Other relatives	18
Others, specify	19

3.5** Marital Status	Code
Unmarried	1
Married	2
Widowed	3
Divorced or Separated	4

3.6# Education	Code
Below Schooling age	1
Illiterate	2
Literate without formal schooling	3
Below primary	4
Primary (upto class 5)	5
Middle (upto class 8)	6
Matric/ High School/ Secondary (upto class 10)	7
Higher Secondary / Intermediate (class 12)	8
Diploma or Certificate Course	9
Graduate (B.A/BSc/B.Com)	10
Post Graduate and above (M.A/ MSc/M.Com and above)	11

3.7\$\$ Present Status	Code
Self employed: Own-account workers/ own land	1
Self employed: others' land (leased in)	2
Self employed: Employers	3
Self employed: Helpers in household Enterprise	4
Unpaid worker	5
Regular wage / salaried	6
Casual labour	7
Helper in House	8
Hawkers/Vendors	9
Car Cleaning/Washing	10
Unemployed	11
Attending school	12
Attending school & also working (5 to 18 years of age)	13
Neither at school or at work (5 to 18 years of age)	14
House Wife/ those engaged in domestic duties; Rentiers; Pensioners; Disabled persons; Below schooling age (Too young; etc.)	15

3.10/ 3.11@ Income per month (Rs.)	Code
Up to 3000	1
3001-6000	2
6001-9000	3
9001-12,000	4
12,001-15,000	5
15,001-18,000	6
18,001-21,000	7
Above 21,000	8

ADDITIONAL NOTES / INFORMATION



4. Particulars of all Persons below 18 years of Age

Sl. No	4.1 Name	4.2 Sex M/F	4.3 Age	4.4 Attending School and also Working (ASW)/ Only Working (W)	4.5 Mention Actual Work (Refer to the List of Occupation and Processes attached)	4.6 Is the person working in their village? Yes/ No	4.7 Mention Name and Address of the Employer /Sordar/ Workplace	4.8 Age of entry into work/ school	4.9 Mention Working Hours per day	4.10 Periodicity of Payment of wages (Monthly / Weekly / Daily)	4.11 Mode of Payment of wages (Cash/ Kind/ unpaid)	4.12 Monthly Income (Calculate the wages for a month and write)

5. Details of persons below 18 years of Age who are outside their own village

S. No	Name	With whom have you migrated/ go to work **	Month and Year of Migration	From			Destination	Purpose
				Village	District	State		

** Migrated with whom:
 Alone-1, Along with family-2, Along with Relatives-3, Along with Villagers/Known People-4, Any other, Specify-5





6. Migration Status of Respondent

6.1 Do you belong to this village?		Yes	1	No	2	
6.2 If No in 6.1, please give details for the following:						
6.3.Migration details (number of times migrated) <i>(Katno sien kaba ki lah kynriah na la shnong ba kha)</i>	SI. No.	Month and Year of Migration	From			Destination
			Village	District	State	

6.4 Period of stay in the present village (Months/Years)	Code
Less than 6 months	1
6-12 months	2
1-3 years	3
4-6 years	4
7-9 years	5
10-12 years	6
13-15 years	7
16-18 years	8
19-21 years	9
Above 30 years	10

6.5 Nature of movement	Code
Temporary: with expected duration of stay less than 12 months	1
Temporary: With expected duration of stay 12 months or more	2
Permanent	

6.6 Reasons for migration (can be more than one answer)	Code
In search of employment	1
In search of better employment	2
Business	3
To take up employment/better employment	4
Transfer of service/contract	5
Near to place of work	6
Natural Disaster	7
Social/Political problems	8
Displacement by development project	9
Marriage	10
Migration of parent/earning member of the family	11
To avail better facilities	12
Others, please specify	13

6.7 With whom have you migrated?	Code
Family members	1
Relatives	2
Friends	3
Villagers	4
Middleman/Contractor/ Employer's Agent	5
Alone	6
Any other, specify	7



Annexure 3

List of Hazardous Occupations and Processes under Child and Adolescent Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986

The Schedule

Part A- Hazardous occupation and processes in which adolescent are prohibited to work and children are prohibited to help

- I. **Mines and Collieries** (underground and underwater) and related work in,
 1. Stone quarries;
 2. Brick kilns;
 3. Preparatory and incidental processes thereof including extraction, grinding, cutting, splitting, polishing and handling of stone/lime/slate/silica/any other element or mineral extracted from the earth.
 4. Open pit mines
- II. **Inflammable substances and explosives** such as
 1. Fire crackers; or
 2. For manufacture, storage, sale, loading, unloading or transport of explosives as defined under the Explosive Act, 1884;
 3. Work relating to manufacturing, handling, grinding, glazing, cutting, polishing, welding, moulding, electro-plating, or any other process involving inflammable substances;
 4. Waste management of inflammable substances, explosives and their by-products;
- III. **'Hazardous processes' as listed in First Schedule under section (cb) of the Factories Act, 1948 and mentioned below;**
List of Industries involving Hazardous Processes
 1. Ferrous Metallurgical Industries
 - (a) Integrated Iron and Steel
 - (b) Ferro-alloys
 - (c) Special Steels
 2. Non-ferrous Metallurgical Industries
 - (a) Primary Metallurgical Industries, namely zinc, lead, copper, manganese and aluminium.
 3. Foundries (ferrous and non-ferrous)
 - (a) Castings and forgings including cleaning or smoothening/roughening by sand and shot blasting.
 4. Coal (including coke) Industries
 - (a) Coal, Lignite, Coke, etc;
 - (b) Fuel Cases (including Coal Gas, Producer Gas, and Water Gas).
 5. Power Generating Industries
 6. Pulp and paper (including paper products) industries.
 7. Fertilizer Industries



- (a) Nitrogenous
- (b) Phosphatic
- (c) Mixed
8. Cement Industries
 - (a) Oil Refining
 - (b) Portland cement (including slag cement, puzzolona cement and their products).
9. Petroleum Industries
 - (c) Oil Refining
 - (d) Lubricating Oils and Greases
10. Petro-chemical Industries
11. Drugs and Pharmaceutical Industries
 - (a) Narcotics, Drugs and Pharmaceuticals.
12. Fermentation Industries (Distilleries and Breweries).
13. Rubber (Synthetic industries)
14. Leather Tanning Industries
15. Electro-plating Industries.
16. Chemical Industries
17. Chemical Industries
 - (a) Cake Oven By -products and Coaltar Distillation products
 - (b) Industrial Gases (nitrogen, oxygen, acetylene, argon, carbon dioxide, hydrogen, sulphur dioxide, nitrous oxide, halogenated hydrocarbon, ozone, etc.
 - (c) Industrial Carbon
 - (d) Alkalies and Acids
 - (e) Chromates and dichromates
 - (f) Lead and its compounds
 - (g) Electro chemicals (metallic sodium, potassium and magnesium, chlorates, per chlorates and peroxides)
 - (h) Electro thermal produces (artificial abrasive, calcium carbide)
 - (i) Nitrogenous compound (cyanides, cyanamides, and other nitrogenous compounds)
 - (j) Phosphorus and its compounds
 - (k) Halogens and Halogenated compounds (chlorine, fluorine, bromine and iodine)
 - (l) Explosives (including industrial explosives and detonators and fuses)
18. Insecticides, Fungicides, Herbicides and other Pesticides Industries.
19. Synthetic Resin and Plastics
20. Man-made Fiber (Cellulosic and non-cellulosic) industry.
21. Manufacture and repair of electrical accumulators.
22. Glass and Ceramics
23. Grinding or glazing of metals.
24. Manufacture, handling and processing of asbestos and its products.
25. Extraction of oils and fats from vegetable and animal sources.



26. **Manufacture, handling and use of benzene and substances containing benzene**
27. **Manufacturing processes and operations involving carbon disulphide**
28. **Dyes and dyestuff including their intermediates**
29. **Highly flammable liquids and gases**
 - iv. Process involving handling and processing of hazardous chemicals as listed in Part II of the Schedule 1 under the Manufacture, Storage and Import of Hazardous Chemical (Amendment) Rules, 2000.
 - v. Work in slaughter houses and abattoirs;
 - vi. Work involving exposures to radioactive substances and incidental processes therein;
 - vii. Ship breaking;
 - viii. Salt Mining/Salt Pan Work;
 - ix. Hazardous processes as specified in Schedule IX of the Building and other Construction Workers' (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Central Rules, 1998.

The Schedule

Part B

List of Occupations & Processes where children are prohibited to help in family or family enterprises (in addition to Part A) Occupations (Non Industrial Activity)

Any occupation concerned with:-

1. Transport of passengers, goods or mails by railways;
2. Cinder picking, clearing of an ash pit or building operation in the railway premises;
3. Work in a catering establishment at a railway station, involving the movement of a vendor or any other employee of the establishment from the one platform to another or in to or out of a moving train;
4. Work relating to the construction of a railway station or with any other work where such work is done in close proximity to or between the railway tracks;
5. A port authority within the limits of any port;
6. Work relating to selling of crackers and fireworks in shops with temporary licenses;
7. Automobile workshops and garages;
8. Handloom and power loom industry;
9. Plastic units and fiberglass workshop;
10. Domestic workers or servants;
11. Dhabas (roadside eateries), restaurants, hotels, motels, resorts;
12. Diving;
13. Circus;
14. Caring of Elephant;
15. Power driven bakery machine
16. Shoe making

Processes (Industrial Activity)

1. Beedi-making;
2. Carpet-weaving including preparatory and incidental process thereof;
3. Cement manufacture, including bagging of cement;
4. Cloth printing, dyeing and weaving including processes, preparatory and incidental



- thereto;
5. Mica-cutting and splitting;
 6. Shellac manufacture;
 7. Soap manufacture;
 8. Wool cleaning;
 9. Building and construction industry including processing and polishing of granite stones; hauling and stacking materials; carpentry; masonry;
 10. Manufacture of slate pencils (including packing);
 11. Manufacture of products from agate;
 12. Manufacturing processes using toxic metals and substances; such as lead, mercury, manganese, chromium, cadmium, benzene, pesticides and asbestos;
 13. Cashew and cashew nut descaling and processing;
 14. Metal cleaning, photo engraving and soldering processes in electronic industries;
 15. 'Agarbatti' manufacturing;
 16. Automobile repairs and maintenance including processes incidental thereto namely, welding, lathe work, dent beating and painting;
 17. Brick kilns and roof tiles units;
 18. Cotton ginning and processing and production of hosiery goods;
 19. Detergent manufacturing;
 20. Fabrication workshops (ferrous and non-ferrous);
 21. Gem cutting and polishing;
 22. Handling of chromite and manganese ores;
 23. Jute textile manufacture and coir making;
 24. Lime kilns and manufacture of lime;
 25. Lock making;
 26. Manufacturing processes having exposure to lead such as primary and secondary smelting, welding and cutting of lead-painted metal constructions, welding of galvanized or zinc silicate, polyvinyl chloride, mixing (by hand) of crystal glass mass, sanding or scraping of leadpaint, burning of lead in enamelling workshops, lead mining, plumbing, cable making, wiring patenting, lead casting, type founding in printing shops, shot making and lead glass blowing;
 27. Manufacture of cement pipes, cement products and other related work;
 28. Manufacture of glass, glass ware including bangles, florescent tubes, bulbs and other similar glass products;
 29. Manufacture of dyes and dye stuff;
 30. Manufacturing or handling of pesticides and insecticides;
 31. Manufacturing or processing and handling of corrosive and toxic substances; metal cleaning and photo engraving and soldering processes in electronic industry.
 32. Manufacturing of burning coal and coal briquettes;
 33. Manufacturing of sports goods involving exposure to synthetic materials, chemicals and leather;
 34. Oil expelling and refinery;
 35. Paper making;
 36. Potteries and ceramic industry;
 37. Polishing, moulding, cutting, welding and manufacturing of brass goods in all forms;
 38. Processes in agriculture where tractors; threshing and harvesting machines are used and chaff cutting;



39. Saw mill - all processes,
40. Sericulture processing;
41. Skinning, dyeing and processes for manufacturing of leather and leather products;
42. Tobacco processing including manufacturing of tobacco, tobacco paste and handling of tobacco in any form;
43. Tyre making, repairing, re-treading and graphite beneficiation;
44. Utensils making, polishing and metal buffing;
45. 'Zari' making and processes involving the use of zari (all processes)';
46. Graphite powdering and incidental processing;
47. Grinding or glazing of metals;
48. Diamond cutting and polishing;
49. Rag picking and scavenging;
50. Mechanized fishing;
51. Food Processing;
52. Beverage Industry;
53. Cultivating, sorting, drying & packaging in Spice industry
54. Timber handling and loading;
55. Mechanical Lumbering;
56. Warehousing;
57. Massage parlours, gymnasiums, or other recreational centres, or in medical facilities;
58. Operations involving the following classes of dangerous machines:
 - a. Hoists and Lifts
 - b. Lifting machines, chains, ropes and lifting tackles
 - c. Revolving machinery
 - d. Power presses
 - e. Machine tools used in the metal trades
 - f. Guillotine machines
59. Printing as in Section 2(k) (iv) of the Factories Act, 1948 (63 of 1948) i.e. composing types of printing, printing by letter press, lithography, photogravure or other similar process or book-binding.



Annexure 4

NATIONAL POLICY ON CHILD LABOUR - 1987

PART-I INTRODUCTION

- 1.1 The Constitution of India, both in the Directive Principles of State Policy and as a part of the Fundamental Rights, has laid down that the State shall direct its policy towards securing that health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused, and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter vocations unsuited to their age or strength, and that children, particularly, are given opportunities and facilities to develop, in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. Childhood and youth are to be protected against exploitation, and no child below the age of 14 years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment.
- 1.2 The National Policy for children Resolution, adopted in August 1974, further developed the above ideas and set out a policy framework and measures aimed at providing adequate services for children. These were to form a prominent part of the nation's plan for development of human resources. Free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14, provisions of health and nutritional programmes and services, providing alternative forms of education for children unable to take full advantage of formal school education for whatever reasons - and measures for protecting children against neglect, cruelty and exploitation form part of the National Policy for Children. The Policy also provides, as one of its objectives, that no child under the age of 14 years shall be permitted to be engaged in hazardous occupations or to be made to undertake heavy work.
- 1.3 The Committee on Child Labour (Gurupadaswamy Committee) which submitted its report in December 1979, examined the problems of child labour in detail. India is one of the countries where the problems of child labour are quite openly manifest and the widespread existence of child labour has been viewed by the Government of India with concern. The Gurupadaswamy Committee recognised that a distinction had to be made between child labour and the exploitation of child labour, although both are a problem, they are of different orders. It had underlined that in all future action dealing with child labour this basic aspect would have to be taken note of, i.e., that 'Labour becomes an absolute evil in the case of the child when he is required to work beyond his physical capacity, when hours of an employment interfere with his education, recreation and rest, when his wages are not commensurate with the quantum of work done, and when the occupation he is engaged in endangers his health and safety', i.e., when he is exploited.
- 1.4 Government has given consideration to these aspects of the problems of child labour, i.e., the need to protect child labourers from exploitation or from being subjected to work in hazardous conditions which endanger such children's physical and mental development; the need to ensure safety and health at their working places; that they should be protected from excessively long working hours and from night work; that



there should be regulated work even in nonhazardous occupations; and that all child labourers have to be provided with sufficient weekly rest periods and holidays in their employments.

- 1.5 The recently enacted Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, is the culmination of the process of consideration that Government has been giving to this pervasive problem figuring in the economic and social landscape in the country. Both in enacting the legislation, and thereafter in proceeding to lay down the policy and the outline of the programme of action, Government had to keep in mind the economic and social aspects of child labour in the country, For example, with substantial portions of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) coming from the agricultural sector, from rural industries or from artisans' workshops, or from small scale services, often children work as an essential part of a farm household, or as part of the working family assisting parents in ancillary tasks. In such working activities by children in farm and field, in artisan households or in small family-centered trade or services establishments, children most often acquire the skills which enable them to become full-fledged workers in farming households, family establishments or trades. While work of such kind has its problems, it is more essential at the present stage of our national development to concentrate in those sectors or establishments where children are deployed on wage or quasi-wage employment, outside the family, where there is most likely to arise exploitation, in whatever form it may be.
- 1.6 The national anti-poverty policies, the national education policy, the national policy on health for all and on nutrition, as also the generally stepped-up provisions in social services in national plan outlays, are all geared to tackle the problems of poverty, where too often the origins and compulsions of child labour are rested. The general rating of a large number of the population above the poverty line, or the provision of the entire spectrum of improved social services in the areas above mentioned will, it is hoped, lead to progressive elimination of poverty, and consequently of the phenomena of children being put out for wage employment or quasi-wage employment at unsuitable ages. The measures to promote employment-oriented development both in rural and in urban areas, and the all-round development and extension of adequate facilities for both formal and non-formal education, vocational education and training, and in the coverage and extension of social security and family welfare measures would all go a long way to tackle the basic and root causes of child labour.
- 1.7 This action programme, therefore, has to be viewed against the above background. Specifically, the attempt is to deal with a situation where children work or are compelled to work, on a regular or a continuous basis to earn a living for themselves and/or for their family, and where their conditions of work result in their being severely disadvantaged and exploited, and where abuses connected with such factors impacting on wage-employed children need to be given dose attention by the State for rectification, amelioration and regulation through specific legal and administrative instruments and measures.
- 1.8 The future action programme is set out under the following three heads:
 1. The legislative Action Plan;
 2. The focusing of general development programmes, for benefiting child labour wherever possible; and
 3. Project-based Plan of Action in areas of high concentration of child labour engaged in wage/quasi-wag employment.



PART-II

LEGISLATIVE ACTION PLAN

- 2.1 A Child Labour Technical Advisory Committee has been set up to advise the Central Government on addition of occupations and processes to the Schedule contained in the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 (herein after referred to as CLA, 86)
- 2.2 The provisions of the CLA 86, the Factories Act and the Mines Act will be enforced so as to particularly ensure that children are not employed in factories or mines or in any other hazardous employment, and where they are employed in non-hazardous employments or occupations, to ensure that the work is regulated in accordance with Part III of the CLA 86. Where it is necessary for State Governments to make rules under CLA 86 or under any other legislation so as to protect the interest of child labour, they will be so requested to undertake reviews and frame rules as necessary. The Railway administration, major ports and Central and State Government departments in charge of oil-fields and mines will also similarly be asked to review the situation arising from the enactment of CLA 86, so as to ensure that child labour is not employed in other occupations or employments, that the provisions set out for their health and safety, for the maintenance of registers, and for regulating the period and hours of work or overtime or of weekly holidays and days of rest are enforced in all establishments.
- 2.3 Government will also bring forward legislation to delete the provision contained in the Minimum Wage Act allowing different wages to be fixed for children, adolescents and adults. In other words, children will have to be paid the same as adults. This will remove the economic incentive to employ child labour on lower wages. For enforcing other protective legislations, like the Payment of Wages Act, the Equal Remuneration Act. etc.. it will be ensured that child labour is not discriminated against as compared to adult labour. The Central and State inspection machinery will be geared up for this purpose.

PART-III

FOCUSSING OF GENERAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR BENEFITTING CHILD LABOUR

- 3.1 National development programmes exist with very wide coverage in areas of education, health, nutrition, integrated child development and the anti-poverty group of programmes. In order to have an impact on child labour, it will be necessary for the implementing agencies particularly under the State Governments to focus on these programmes and bring convergence so as to deliver maximum benefit to child labour, wherever possible. Some areas where such focusing could be possible are set out below:
- 3.2 **Education:** The National Policy on Education, 1986 (NPE) sets the target of all children who attain the age of 11 years by 1990 having had five years of schooling, or its equivalent, through a non-formal system of education. 4, 90, 000 Non-Formal Education (NFE) Centres are proposed to be opened, which will supplement the formal education system. Since the Central feature of the implementation of the strategy for non-formal education is based on micro-level and area specific and population specific planning, NFE Centres for child labour will be set up with the involvement of voluntary agencies and Panchayati Raj institutions which are capable of running



Non-Formal Education Centres wherever possible to cater to child labour who, after work or during holidays, can attend the NFE Centres. Special attention will be given to attracting and retaining girls from among working children to NFE Centres. Part-time courses and vocational courses will also be catered to at these centres. Such Non-Formal Education Centres for child labour would aim to educate children upto class V level, with arrangements for continuance of non-formal education upto class VIII level, wherever possible. Where it is possible to organize such NFE centres for child labour, all the special features figuring in the Programme of Action of the NPE will be provided.

- 3.3 For child labour belonging to disadvantaged classes like SC/ST families, details of schemes of incentives/assistance to indigent SC/ST families who have to put their children to wage/quasi-wage employment will be worked out in consultation with State Governments. For such children who come from families engaged in occupations like scavenging, flying and tanning, scholarships will be extended, with constant microplanning, to ensure that SC/ST child labour enrolled in non-formal education centres successfully complete the course of non-formal education upto class VIII. These are as per the specific provisions laid down in the Programme of Action of the NPE.
- 3.4 Micro-planning for non-formal education centres will have to be undertaken for child labour, especially for those belonging to such disadvantaged sections of the society as SC/ST, or in areas of known concentration of such disadvantaged groups of families.
- 3.5 In urban areas also, especially in urban slums, non-formal education programmes by both the State Governments and by voluntary agencies will be promoted, including the organization of extra-curricular activities, diversity in learning activity and with a provisions of games and sports and related equipment,, plays and skits, excursions, etc.
- 3.6 The projects of voluntary agencies will be entertained for a period of 3-4 years, whether for urban or for rural areas, and while the initial proposals would be required to be sent to the State Governments, at subsequent stages, the voluntary agencies will directly approach centres. The Ministry of Labour may also arrange for micro-level planning for NFE centres for benefiting child labour, and recommend these to the department of Education.
- 3.7 NREP/RLEGP funds would be used on a priority basis for creating the infrastructure for non-formal education centres catering to child labour the overall coordination and direction of the local district level development authorities.
- 3.8 For continuing education of child labour who have been enrolled and successfully completed their period of non-formal education, efforts would be made to link the non-formal educational institutions with the open schools, or with the formal educational system, so as to enable them to continue their education. The non-formal education programmes would also be linked with the Shramik Vidyapeeths, scheme of Public Libraries, Jana Shiksha Nilayams and vocational technical course of a wide variety would be provided where required for, among others, working children who come from the non-formal stream.
- 3.9 **Health:** Health is a State subject, and the programmes of medical inspection of children have been assigned to the States. The progress among the various States is uneven. A few States have good health programmes but many other States do not. In those States where there exists a school health service programme, many, and in some States even



all, primary school-going children in the rural areas have been covered under the scheme for regular examinations. But those children who do not join school because of being at work would obviously not be covered by such school health programmes (where they exist). The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare will address the State Governments, recommending that intensive medical inspection of children be taken up in those areas where child labour is prevalent. The State Governments will have to be persuaded to extend the coverage of the school health services programme to child labour. Since this is an area essentially under the State sector, a continuing dialogue, effort and persuasion with the State Governments will have to be maintained so that all children, irrespective of whether they are in primary school, or at work, are covered by regular health inspection and treatment/referral services. It should be by regular health inspection and treatment/referral services. It should be possible to arrange for some health screening at NFE centres for child labour.

- 3.10 **Nutrition:** Department of Women and Child Development have an on-going programme for women and children i.e., Integrated Child Development Services which is approved on the basis of proposals by the State Government and non-governmental organizations. While it will not be possible to earmark funds specifically for child labour, proposals from State Governments/non-governmental organizations and voluntary agencies in child labour areas will be funded on a priority basis and, if necessary, the rules could be relaxed to consider proposals from the organizations to be set up for taking up welfare measures for child labour also.
- 3.11 **Anti-poverty programmes:** IRDP/NREP/RLEGP etc. funds are meant for poverty-alleviation programmes on the basis of criteria which have been laid down for the States to follow. Included in the coverage of the entire gamut of anti-poverty programmes are families which have child labour and, to the that such families with incidence of child labour fall within the selection criteria for endowment of income-generating assets (i.e. IRDP) or for wage employment (NREP/RLEGP) they would be benefited by the on-going programmes which have a large corpus of funds allocated to them in the 7th Plan. To the extent, therefore, that the poorest families are often forced to send their children to work for wage/quasi-wage employment, they would be getting assistance to raise themselves above the poverty line and this, in conjunction with the non-formal education centres being opened in rural areas, slum areas etc., will go a long way towards tackling one of the basic causes of children being put to work i.e., poverty.

PART-IV

PROJECT - BASED PLAN OF ACTION

- 4.1 It is known that there are specific sectors of employment where the incidence of child labour is high, such as:
1. Match industry in Sivakasi, Tamilnadu.
 2. Diamond polishing industry in Surat, Gujarat.
 3. Gem cutting and polishing industry in Jaipur, Rajasthan.
 4. Glass industry in Ferozabad, Uttar Pradesh.
 5. Brassware industry in Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh.



6. Handmade carpet industry in Mirzapur-Bhadohi in Uttar Pradesh.
 7. Lock-making industry in Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh.
 8. Handmade carpet industry in Jammu & Kashmir.
 9. State industry in Mandsaur in Madhya Pradesh.
 10. State industry in Markapur in Andhra Pradesh.
- 4.2 The Child workers involved in the above mentioned sectors of employment and geographical areas deserve priority attention because either the employment processes in which they work are prohibited under the Factories Act, or the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act of the work is such that it is likely to affect the child's well-being, particularly health and education.
- 4.3 In each of the 10 "project areas", the strategy will be to evolve a package comprising of the following elements:-
1. Stepping up the enforcement of the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, the Factories Act and the Mines Act.
 2. Coverage of families of child under the income/employment generating programmes under the overall aegis of anti-poverty programmes.
 3. Where there is a concentration of SC/ST families with child labour, a concentration of special component and Tribal sub-plans by the State Governments in each project area.
 4. Formal/non-formal education of all child labour engaged in hazardous employment, and of as many child workers as possible as may be in non-hazardous employments. Also, a stepped up programme of adult education (including non-formal education) of the working children.
 5. Coordinating the activities of different Department/Ministries of the Central Government and State Governments to benefit child labour.
 6. Setting up of special schools for child workers together with provision of vocational education/training in such special schools, supplementary nutrition, a stipend to the children taken out from prohibited employments, and health care for all children attending such special schools.
- 4.4 For this purpose, i.e., (6) the infrastructure will have to be created, and wherever the infrastructure run by the Departments of Education, Health, etc. like Shramik Vidyapeeth exists, they will be suitably modified and utilized. Stipend will not be paid to children who are working in non-hazardous non-prohibited employments. The non-formal education/formal educational institutions in the project area will function on flexible hour basis after working hours, during holidays etc., as may be convenient. They will cover the range of special features on non-formal education set out in the Programme of Action of the NPE.
- 4.5 In order to enable intensive coverage in the Project areas of the anti-poverty group of programmes, the health programmes analogous to the school health programs run by the State Governments, the special nutrition programme, and for the setting up of special schools, providing vocational education and training arrangements and for providing stipend to the children take out from hazardous employments, it will be



necessary to provide for additionality for funds over and above the funds that exist in the respective programmes administered under the Plan, whether by the Central or by State Governments. The additionality of funds required will be channeled through the Ministry of Labour which will be the nodal Ministry for the child labour projects.

- 4.6 In the first phase of the special project areas approach, it is proposed to cover upto 30, 000 child labour. Each project will be carefully drawn up in consultation with the State Governments and Central Ministries concerned, to ensure proper coverage and inter-meshing of programmes administered by the Central and State Governments under the overall coordinating agency of the Ministry of Labour. The Ministry of Labour will be the nodal agency for drawing up a project report in respect of each project area and for providing the additionality of funds that may be required for the total coverage envisaged in each project area.

PART-V

ORGANISATION FOR IMPLEMENTING THE CHILD LABOUR PROJECTS

There will be a Chief Executive Officer in charge of each project area who will work under the general supervision and direction of the administrative head of the district wherein the project is situated. There will be a Child Labour Project Board, with the Collector as its Chairman on which will be represented the district educational, health, and nutrition authorities, as also representatives of voluntary agencies/Panchayati Raj institutions who are active in the District in the area of Child Labour. This will ensure coordination of all inputs of the various departments executing plan and non-plan schemes in the project area, so as to enable the focusing for the benefit of child labour/their families, and also to allocate the additionality of project funds made available to each project by the Ministry of Labour.

PART-VI

MONITORING OF PROJECTS

The working of the child labour projects will be monitored by a high-powered Committee of the Central Government with representatives of the Ministries/Departments of Labour, Education, Health, Rural Development, Women and Child Development and the State Governments where child labour projects are being implemented, namely Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh. The Committee will meet as often as necessary to ensure the smooth working of the projects.

V.V. Giri National Labour Institute is a premier institution involved in research, training, education, publication and consultancy on labour and related issues. Set up in 1974, the Institute is an autonomous body of the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India. It is committed to establishing labour and labour relations as a central feature in the development agenda through:

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