REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Like all other social problems, child labour has ethical and psychological aspect. Though it is generally viewed as an economic resource in the short run, in practice it perpetuates poverty. It imposes hidden costs like deprivation of access to education, hampering of intellectual development and minimum chances for vocational training, which ultimately result in the production of unskilled adult personnel. The child labour places extra financial burden due to the work related health hazards, diseases and accidents in the future, on the health and welfare sectors of the country. The health impact of work is far more acute on the children than for adults. Many work related health problems experienced in the childhood persist into the adulthood. There is enough evidence in the documented literature that children work for hours together with awkward and painful body positions, for poor wages and in sub-standard working environment with no or mere facilities. The phenomenon of child labour aggravates malnutrition and presents a feedback on the interference with the growth and intellectual potentials of child population, which in turn affects the overall development of nation.

Several research workers have carried out studies on such children who are locked in drudgery in India and abroad. However, there are lacunae in the literature for scientifically planned studies on the growth pattern and the nutritional status of working children. The literature pertaining to the topic has been reviewed and presented in this chapter under the sub-heads stated below.

2.1 Concept and definition of child labour
2.1 Concept and Definition of Child Labour

The concept of child protection was not unknown to ancient India. *Manu Smiriti* reveals the fact that education was necessary for the children. The community punished the fathers and mothers if they did not send their daughters and sons to the hermitage of a Guru or University after attaining the age of eight years. *Manu Smiriti* says:

कपियानों अनुप्रासुतों च कुमारकाणों च रक्षणम

It means that it is the duty of king to make *Brahamcharya* compulsory to educate every girl and boy of society. In case of breach of this rule, he should punish parent. In other words, after eight years no children should be left at home. They should be sent to *Ashrams* i.e., schools for education.

As regards child labourer in ancient India, it can be said that it existed in the form of child slave. The children of less than 8 years were purchased as slaves, like articles of trade for doing low and dishonourable work. Children of slaves took birth as slaves, lived and died as slaves, unless the master liked to release them from the slavery.

Kautilya pointed out that the 'Trade of Children' as slaves was not prohibited in *Mlechchas*, because they were backward and uncivilised. On the other hand *Arya* child was prohibited to become a slave.

If an *Arya* child was sold or pledged with some one, then all the parties
to the contract including the witness were liable to be punished. The degree of punishment depended upon the status of parties. Kautilya said that it was realised by Kautilya that children were not physically fit to do dishonourable work. Taking such work from children was considered by Kautilya against humanity and shameful. Therefore, he prohibited the purchase and sale of slave children below 8 years.

The term "Child Labour" is, at times, used as a synonym for "Employed child" or "Working child". In this sense it means any work done by a child for gain. But more commonly the term "child labour" is used in a pejorative sense. It suggests something, which is hateful and exploitative. Thus, Homer Folks, the Chairman of the United States National Child Labour Committee, defined child labour as "any work by children that interferes with their full physical development, their opportunities for a desirable minimum of education or their needed recreation".

The term "Child Labour" is commonly interpreted in two different ways: first, as an economic practice and secondly, as a social evil. In the first context it signifies employment of children in gainful occupations with a view of adding to the labour income of the family. It is in the second context that the term child labour is now more generally used. In assessing the nature and extent of the social evil, it is necessary to take into account the character of the jobs on which the children are engaged, the dangers to which they are exposed and the opportunities of development, which they have been denied.

Thus, child labour, in a restricted sense, means the employment of children in gainful occupations, which are dangerous to their health and deny them the opportunities of development. Three things, therefore, are necessary to include employment of a child within the notion of child labour. Firstly, the child should be employed in gainful occupation, secondly, the work, to which he is exposed, must be dangerous. Thirdly, it must deny to him the opportunity of development. Hence, any work taken by a father from his child on his field or business place for long hours, is also covered under this definition, but work by students at school workshops cannot be called "Child Labour" (Kulshreshtha, 1978).
The term "Child labour" is generally used to refer "any work by children that interferes with them in their full-physical development, the opportunities for a desirable minimum of education and of their needed recreation" (Stein and Davis, 1940).

A child labour is an employed child. He is one such child working for the family members, even when not receiving any remuneration beyond the facilities of boarding, lodging and enjoying other advantages of being a member of his / her family of procreation. When a child is given the opportunities of formal schooling, yet he may be made to work, outside the school hours for the family because of poverty. Such a child may also be equated with "Child labour". Thus child labour may be considered as synonymous with an "employed child" (Behura and Behera, 1991).

The factory Act of 1948, which is an elaborate and highly specific Act relating to child labour, makes use of three different concepts to classify the workers, viz. A "child", a 'young person' or an 'adolescent" and an 'adult'. It has been made explicit in this Act that a person below the age of 15 years is to be regarded as a child. Therefore, any physical labour undertaken by a child of below 15 years either under compulsion or voluntarily in an organised or unorganised sector qualifies to be called as "child labour" (Mishra, 1991).

2.2 Child Labour Legislation and Government Policy

The Central Statute on the child labour covers mainly employment in industries, mining, transport shops and other establishments. India is party to ILO (International Labour Organisation), and as such has an obligation to adopt ILO conventions on child labour. India has ratified several ILO conventions on child labour but with some exceptions. Keeping in view poor economic condition in countries like India, the convention made special provisions for these countries. These provisions lay down lower standards than those to be followed by the developed nations. India tries to follow the standards set by ILO conventions in the matter of labour laws relating to children (Jain, 1981) though not in all cases.
The Indian laws mainly deal with four matters such as minimum age for employment of children, medical examination of children, maximum hours of work and prohibition of night work for children (Jain, 1985).

2.2.1 Legislation and Government Policy Before Adoption of Constitution

The Indian factories Act, 1881 was the first legislation passed with a view to regulate the hours of work for the children working in factories. After this, various legislative enactments were made which were:


2.2.2 Legislation and Government Policy After Adoption of the Constitution

In 1950, The constitution of India was adopted which prohibits employment of children upto 14 years; guarantees them protection against exploitation and makes provision for free and compulsory education for children. After this, various legislations related to child labour were passed. These legislations are:


Besides these Central Acts, various state legislatures have been also passed such as acts for regulating conditions of employment in shops and commercial establishments (Varma, 1993).

2.2.3 The National Policy for Children

The Government of India adopted a National Policy for Children through a resolution dated August 22, 1974. This policy envisaged balanced growth of children. The measures of the balanced growth of children included:

1. No child under 14 years shall be permitted to be engaged in any hazardous occupation or be made to undertake heavy work.

2. Children shall be protected against neglect, cruelty and exploitation.

2.2.4 Constitutional Provisions

The framers of Constitution realised the need for putting curbs on child labour and made following provisions in Indian Constitution.

Article 15 (3) - enables State to make special provisions for women and children.

Article 24 - prohibits employment of children below 14 years of age in any factory or mine or in any other hazardous work.


Article 39(e) - maintains that tender age of children should not be abused.

Article 39(f) - makes it obligatory on the part of the State to direct its policies
towards securing opportunities and facilities for the healthy development of children.

Article 42 - provides provisions for securing just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief.

Article 43 - strives for a living wage, conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full employment of leisure, social and cultural opportunities to all workers (Varma, 1993).

2.3 Magnitude of Child Labour

Since child labour, in most of the countries is a clandestine activity; it is difficult, if not possible, to obtain precise figures. However, various international and national sources were scrutinised to obtain the precise estimates and the review is presented in following sub heads.

2.3.1 International Estimates of Child Labour

In the case of India and even in other countries, it is difficult to give exact estimate of the overall magnitude of child labour on account of numerous limitations. The limitations such as predominance of the informal and unorganised nature of labour market; however attempts have been made by various agencies to estimate the extent of child labour.

Banerjee (1980) reported that in Thailand thousands of children seek jobs in fields and factories. The children labour rose from 1 million in 1960 to 1.6 million in 1970. The Bangkok Bank disclosed that about 3.5 million children were in the labour force. Majority of them worked in rural areas with their parents on farms or house keeping. The findings of the study conducted by the department of SWD and NCSDF, Philippines, in collaboration with UNICEF (1988) indicated that there were 50,000 to 75,000 working street children in Philippines.

It is mentioned in Labour Gazette (1995) that the garment industry in Bangladesh employees as many as 55,000 child workers who had helped the country's
export of about 750 million dollars worth of clothing to the United States. A survey by ILO (1996) had concluded that the child labourers were increasing in developing countries. It had given the number of child labourers in developing countries. Out of the global figure of 250 million, about 120 million were full time workers and the rest were engaged in part-time employment. Nearly 153 million (61%) were found in Asia, 80 million (32%) in Africa and 17.5 million (7%) in Latin America. Further, it was reported that the child labour also existed in many industrialised countries including Italy, Portugal, UK, USA and the east European countries.

Raj and Chauhan (2001) discussed the nature of child labour. It was mentioned that the magnitude of child labour is alarming. The UNICEF report on the State of the World's Children revealed that in U.K., working children aged 11 years and 15 years were 15-26 per cent and 36-66 per cent, respectively. The figures of working children for Asia, Africa and Latin America were 153 million, 80 million and 17.5 million, respectively. As per the ILO estimates for 1995, the proportions in Africa were generally higher than those in Asia and elsewhere. Within Asia the range varies between zero in Japan and Hong Kong to over 55 per cent in Bhutan, 45 per cent in Nepal and Timor. It was 14 per cent, 30 per cent, 17 per cent and 16 per cent for India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Thailand, respectively.

2.3.2 Child Labour Magnitude in India

According to ILO estimates of 1971, 1981 and 1991 census of India, the number of working children, accounted for 10.75 million, 13.64 million and 11.28 million, respectively (Table 1). The ILO estimated child labour at 15.10 million in 1975 and 23.17 million in 1996. National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), India estimated the figures at 17.60 million and 13.50 million, respectively, during 1987-88 and 1993-94. The Baroda based Operation Research Group, estimated the number of working children at 44 million. The Planning Commission of India put the figure at 17.36 million (Sekar, 1997).
Table 1. Child labour status given by different agencies in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data source</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Magnitude of child labour (Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>13.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>11.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>15.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>23.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSSO, India</td>
<td>1987-88</td>
<td>17.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1993-94</td>
<td>13.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning Commission</td>
<td>1983 (GOI)</td>
<td>17.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG, Baroda</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>44.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source - Sekar Helen R., (1997)

In India, as per the 1991 census, the state with the highest child labour population in the country was Andhra Pradesh with 1.66 million child workers, followed by Uttar Pradesh (1.41 million), Madhya Pradesh (1.35 million) and Maharashtra (1.06 million) (GOI, 1996-97). The lowest number of child workers (34) was observed in Lakshadweep (Table-2).

The number of working children were estimated at 17.58 million. This figure had been extrapolated to reach an estimate of 20 million working children by the year 2000. The Operations Research Group in a study sponsored by the Labour Ministry revealed that about 44 million children in the age group of 5-14 were in the labour force (Raj and Chouhan, 2001).

According to the census of India, 1971, the rural and urban child labour distribution stands at 9.98 million (98.2 per cent) and 0.77 million (7.16 per cent).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State/UT</th>
<th>1981 Workers</th>
<th>Main workers</th>
<th>1991 Marginal workers</th>
<th>Total workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>1951312</td>
<td>1537293</td>
<td>124647</td>
<td>1661940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>259953</td>
<td>67645</td>
<td>327598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>1101764</td>
<td>795444</td>
<td>146801</td>
<td>942245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>616913</td>
<td>373027</td>
<td>150558</td>
<td>523585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>194189</td>
<td>89030</td>
<td>20661</td>
<td>109691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>99624</td>
<td>30771</td>
<td>25667</td>
<td>56438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>258437</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>1131530</td>
<td>818159</td>
<td>158088</td>
<td>946247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>92854</td>
<td>28590</td>
<td>6210</td>
<td>34800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>1698997</td>
<td>997940</td>
<td>354623</td>
<td>1352563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>1557576</td>
<td>805847</td>
<td>262571</td>
<td>1069418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>20217</td>
<td>13478</td>
<td>3015</td>
<td>16493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meghalaya</td>
<td>44916</td>
<td>30730</td>
<td>3903</td>
<td>34633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagaland</td>
<td>16235</td>
<td>16106</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>16476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>702293</td>
<td>325250</td>
<td>127144</td>
<td>452394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>216939</td>
<td>132414</td>
<td>10454</td>
<td>142888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>819605</td>
<td>490522</td>
<td>283677</td>
<td>774199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sikkim</td>
<td>8561</td>
<td>5254</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>5598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>975055</td>
<td>523125</td>
<td>55764</td>
<td>578889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
<td>24202</td>
<td>13506</td>
<td>2972</td>
<td>16478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>1434675</td>
<td>1145087</td>
<td>264999</td>
<td>1410086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>605263</td>
<td>593387</td>
<td>118304</td>
<td>711691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andaman &amp; Nicobar Island</td>
<td>1309</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>1265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arunachal Pradesh</td>
<td>17950</td>
<td>11632</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>12395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandigarh</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1839</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dadar &amp; Nagar Haveli</td>
<td>3615</td>
<td>2677</td>
<td>1739</td>
<td>4416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>25717</td>
<td>26670</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>27351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daman &amp; Diu</td>
<td>9378</td>
<td>741</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goa</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>3938</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>4656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakshadweep</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mizoram</td>
<td>6314</td>
<td>6391</td>
<td>10020</td>
<td>16411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pondicherry</td>
<td>3006</td>
<td>2565</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13640870</td>
<td>9082141</td>
<td>2203208</td>
<td>11285349</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Census could not be conducted

Source: Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour 1996-97, Delhi, GOI Publication P.100

The figures for 1981 census stand at 12.57 million (92.15 per cent) for rural areas and 1.07 million (7.8 per cent) for urban areas (Table 3).
Table 3. Area-wise distribution of child labour in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th></th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>9.98</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>21.57</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Sharma and Sood (1989) reported the distribution of child labour by sex and rural urban residence. It is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Population of child labourers below the age 15 and their work participation rates by sex and rural, urban residence, India, 1981 (million)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of residence</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Total Population (aged 5-14)</th>
<th>Main Workers</th>
<th>Workers marginal</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Work participation rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>179.597</td>
<td>11.196</td>
<td>2.445</td>
<td>13.641</td>
<td>6.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>93.533</td>
<td>7.438</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>8.114</td>
<td>7.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>86.064</td>
<td>3.758</td>
<td>1.769</td>
<td>5.527</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>140.153</td>
<td>10.204</td>
<td>2.366</td>
<td>12.570</td>
<td>7.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>73.051</td>
<td>6.699</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>7.343</td>
<td>9.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>67.102</td>
<td>3.505</td>
<td>1.722</td>
<td>5.227</td>
<td>5.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>39.444</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>20.482</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>18.962</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The relationship between child labour and development was assessed by Naidu (1985). All the 26 districts in the state of Maharashtra were included in the study. It was noticed that there was inverse relationship between the development of district and child labour participation rate. The district of Parbhani presented a
very dismal situation, in which 8 per cent of the children were working, whereas Pune district being a developed one had only 4 per cent of the total children in the labour force. The projection of magnitude of child labour in India for 2000 AD was given by Mehta (1987). It was reported that child labourers aged between 5-14 years during the year 2000 AD would be 20.25 million.

Child Labour Cell (1992) conducted a study on brassware industry of Moradabad and indicated that fifty per cent of workers involved in the moulding of the box furnace workshops were children below the age of 14 years. Polishing the semi finished goods employed 12000 child workers. About 5000 children worked in electroplating. In the welding process, about 7000 children in the age group of 7 to 9 years were estimated to work.

A survey on child labour in the Kamraj district of Tamilnadu by Vidyasagar (1994) revealed that the total number of full time working children were 31,685 in the match industries in the district. In another district (VOC) 9289 children were working for full time, which accounted for 27 per cent of the work force.

A study conducted by South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude (SACCS, 1995) has revealed that Delhi had 18 per cent of the child population in the city as child labour, which was highest in the country. The study indicated about 50,000 workers in teashops, dhabas, restaurants, 30,000 at car or scooter work shops, 50,000 in shops and other establishments, 40,000 in farms, construction sites and brick kilns, while 1,30,000 were working as domestic workers.

A survey on the prevalence of child labour in chemical factories in Maharashtra state was undertaken by Government of Maharashtra. The Hon. Minister of Child Development, Maharashtra, pointed out that the survey report illustrated an astonishing figure of 8152 child workers engaged in hazardous work in various chemical factories round the state (Sakal, 2002)

### 2.4 Studies on Socio-Economic Profile of Child Labourers

The Anti Slavery Society for the Protection of Human Rights studied the child labourers in Morocco's carpet industry in 1978. It was noticed that children, as young as 7 years old, were working upto 72 hours a week in Moroccan factories making carpets for export to the prosperous Western nations. Some
children were paid as little as equivalent price of a loaf of bread in Morocco but the rest of the majority were under 12 years and classed as apprentice were paid nothing. The conditions in which the children were working were appalling. The need for cheap child labour was growing in Morocco, as there was increased demand for carpets.

Searight (1980) explored that in Spain working children were far less. Children work, illegally, but not on a massive scale and not in large groups. It was evident that throughout Spain there were under age children working. All over the country, away in shops or small factories, behind the doors of their own houses, out in the streets or in the fields, thousands of children were prematurely leading adult lives. The factors associated with child work were parental attitudes and lack of alternatives.

A study of working children from nine slums in the age group of 6-15 years was conducted (Singh et al., 1980). The survey covered 300 children who had joined work force. Sexwise distribution of the sample showed that 67.7 per cent were boys and 32.3 per cent were girls. As regards their distribution of age, 5.5 per cent were in the age group of 6 to 9 years, 28.3 per cent in the age group of 9 to 12 years and 66.2 per cent in the age group of 12 to 15 years. The break up by religion showed that 71.3 per cent were Hindus, 21.3 per cent Muslims, 2.7 per cent Christians and 4.7 per cent Neo-Buddhists. The educational level showed that 33.3 per cent had never gone to school, 52.7 per cent had schooling upto primary level, 13.3 per cent up to middle school and 0.7 per cent beyond this level. The working children staying with parents were 96 per cent, while only 4 per cent lived with guardians and relations. Of the 300 working children 62 were engaged in production units, 64 in trade and commerce, 15 in arts and crafts, 65 in services and repairs, 21 in construction work, 45 in domestic service, 8 in small hotels and restaurants, 8 in casual labourers and 12 in scrap collection. The majority of the families of working children (63.8 %) had 5 to 8 members, having more male members than females. The percentage of working children was increased with age. Most of them joined
labour force when they were 10 years of age. Irrespective of the sex, the eldest child in the family was working. Children contributed to the extent of 23 per cent of the family income. Majority of children (68.2 %) were getting a salary of Rs. 100 and below per month (mean Rs. 86.40) while children engaged in construction work, arts and crafts and production were paid highest (Rs. 105 to 110), and 62.5 per cent of children received wages by themselves. Most of the children (64.9 %) received pocket money. Children spent it on seeing films, on tea, snacks and purchase of articles of personal use. Children worked from 4 to 14 hrs. Protection against sun and rain was available to 79.9 per cent working children, separate rest place to 20.6 %, proper lighting to 88.7 per cent, medical facilities to 41.2 per cent, drinking and bathing water facilities to 79.4 per cent, protection against job hazards to 52.9 per cent, proper ventilation to 83.8 per cent, recreational facilities to 17.2 per cent and toilet facilities to 57.4 per cent children were available. Job was felt very tiresome by 46 per cent children. Other complaints regarding the difficulties experienced were pain, bad physical conditions, far off places and improper treatment by the employer. However, 88.6 per cent of the children were satisfied with the treatment accorded to them by their employers. Almost 92 per cent had leisure time. Only 3.3 per cent of the employed children smoked and negligible percentage (1.4 %) played cards. None of them was addicted to drinking. Out of studied 300 working children, 67.3 per cent were in favour of child labour and 32 per cent were against it.

As quoted by Bouhdiba (1981) 24.7 per cent of the working children in Bombay started working between the ages of 6-9 years and 48.4 per cent between 10-12 years. In Pakistan, children under the age of 6 years were found to work in carpet industry. In Italy, 8-18 per cent of the victims of industrial accidents were children or adolescents below 18 years. Khare (1985) studied 32 rural working children from Palghar (Bombay). The study indicated that most of the studied children were from nuclear families and both the parents left house for work. The child labourers had to perform many household chores. They looked after the
feeding and care of the other siblings, fetched water and were entrusted with responsibility of cooking.

Krishnakumari (1985) conducted a study on child labour in Bangalore City. From the slums of Bangalore, 1255 households were selected which contributed 809 children in the age group of 0-14 years. Of the selected children, 325 (53 %) were child workers. The age range showed that 12 per cent workers were 6-8 years old, 24 per cent were 9-11 years old, 64 per cent were 12-14 years old. Out of the total children 62 per cent were males and 38 per cent were females. Nearly 5 per cent of the children started working at the age of 5 years and the remaining 95 per cent started working between the age of 6 and 14 years. More girls entered the job market earlier than boys. Only 10 per cent of the child labourers were unpaid. All the children were engaged in manual work, which required no special skill. They were found to be working as domestic servants, mechanical assistants, hotel cleaners, shop assistants, weaving assistants, apprentices, coolies, agarbatti rollers, tailors, carpenters and beedi rollers. Female child workers mainly offered the domestic service. Of the total child labourers, 89 per cent were full time and 11 per cent were part time workers, 89 per cent worked for 6 to 7 days, 6 percent for 5 days and 5 percent for 3 to 4 days a week. Further, it was reported that 62 per cent children under study worked for 9 to 12 hours, 18 per cent for 5 to 18 hours, and 11 per cent for 1 to 4 hours, while 13 per cent children worked for more than 13 hours a day. The rest period was not there for 4 per cent workers, 39 per cent got rest for less than an hour and 42 per cent children had rest interval of 1-2 hours. The most popular payment method was monthly (35 %) followed by weekly (23 %), daily wages (20 %) and on piece rates basis (10 %). About 45 per cent child workers got a monthly income of less than Rs. 50 while 26 per cent of them got Rs. 100/- and 16 per cent got more than Rs. 100. Almost all the workers were regularly paid and 73 per cent of them received their payments themselves. Only 38 per cent child workers reported that the work place was cleaned daily, 39 per cent workers said that they were working in unhygienic conditions while remaining 23 per cent
were cleaning the working place themselves. Drinking water facility was available for 74 per cent workers, whereas 26 per cent of them in occupations like coolies, sweeping, work of mechanical assistance reported non availability of drinking water. Only 30 per cent of workers had toilet facility, 68 per cent workers had good lighting facility, however 22 per cent had lack of lighting. There were no loss compensation arrangements. A majority of the children (55 %) were satisfied with their jobs while remaining 45 per cent were dissatisfied due to the nature of job or the working conditions. The complaint of bad treatment by employer was reported by 49 per cent workers while 41 per cent said that treatment was good. In addition to the job, 92 per cent girls attended the household work while 82 per cent male children were free from additional household work. Both the 92 per cent male and the 78 per cent female child workers received pocket money. They spent it on movies and eatables, girls spent it on cosmetics too and saved a little amount. Sport was a leisure time activity for boys (58 %), while girls (88 %) helped their mothers in household work. It was observed that more girls (33 %) than boys (27 %) were wanted to continue their studies. Almost 70 per cent of the children opted for vocational studies and more boys than girls aspired for better jobs and preferred self-employment.

Mehta et al., (1985) conducted a cross sectional study on 73 working children from Matunga labour camp in Bombay. The results of the study conveyed that the maximum number of children (74 %) were between the age of 10 and 15 years. Only 4.1 per cent workers were less than 10 years old, however the youngest was 6 years old. About 22 per cent of the children entered in labour force before the age of 10 years. The data regarding their religion revealed that 85 per cent of the children were Hindus, 63 per cent having migrated. Among the migrants, majority of them (46.6 %) was alone and only 16.4 per cent were migrated with families. Observation regarding schooling of children evidenced that 48 per cent of the working children were school dropouts while 16.4 per cent continued the schooling and 32 per cent had completed primary education. The reported reason for starting the work by subjects was to increase the family income and 82 per cent children
were doing their first job. About half of the studied children were earning less than Rs. 100/- per month on temporary basis. Most of the (53.4) children handed over more than 75 of their pay to their parents. From the studied group, about 50 per cent of the child workers resided at the workplace, away from their families. Almost 40 per cent of children worked for more than 12 hours a day and almost 50 per cent worked 8-12 hours a day. The leisure hours were spent in sleeping by 51 per cent children while 16 per cent children used it for schooling.

A study on working children was conducted by Naidu (1985) in villages of Chiittor district of Andhra Pradesh. The sample was selected from agriculture and household industrial sectors. A total number of 400 respondents (200 from each sector) engaged in directly productive work and in household maintenance work were selected. For comparison, the school children were selected. The results of the study evidenced that only 23 per cent of younger children (5-9 years age group) were working as against 78 per cent of the elder children (10-14 yr. age group). The participation of the girl workers was significantly more than that of the male workers. A high proportion of working children (13) were from socially backward caste, illiterate, wage earning and economically backward families, while only 2 child workers belonged to the forward caste. The data regarding father's economic and educational status of child labourers showed that there was inverse relationship between parent's economic and educational level and child labour which was more prominently observed in case of female child workers.

It was observed in Madras city (Savithri, 1985) that 23 per cent of the children in urban areas were employed because of the death of adult breadwinner in the family. It was further mentioned that the working conditions in urban sector were unprotected by labour legislation, welfare facilities and trade unions. The child workers were completely at the mercy of their employers. The study pointed out that majority of the child workers were working without any fixed wages. The wages paid to them ranged from 50 paise to Rs. 2 per day. It was also noticed that they rarely got an opportunity to be trained to learn the job. Shah (1985) when studied
the specific health problems and alternative approaches for health care of working children stated that at least 55 million working children in the world were deprived of education, health care, play and recreation due to work, local conditions and poverty. Further it was inferred that children apart from domestic help were also engaged in all sorts of jobs such as machine minding, weaving, brick making, in building construction, match factories, coal mines, sweat shops, micro-computer industry, drug trafficking and begging.

Child labour in agriculture was studied by Singh and Verma (1987) at Nainital district of Uttar Pradesh. The data was collected by interviewing selected child workers and their guardians. The results indicated that the majority of child workers (70.2 %) were 13-14 years old and 29.8 per cent were in 8-12 year age group. Most of them (69.8 %) were males and 30.2 per cent were females. As many as 35.6 per cent of child workers had never been to any school, 19.4 per cent discontinued their education and remaining 45 per cent continued schooling. The monthly income of the child workers was not affected by age. The child workers earned Rs. 30-60 per month. A majority of the children contributed their earnings to family fund. The information on ordinal position of child labourers revealed that most of the (58.20 %) children were eldest, 20 per cent were second, 14.4 per cent third, 3.6 per cent fourth, 1.2 per cent fifth and 1.8 per cent sixth in the ordinal position. As expressed by the children, the relationships with grand parents (94.4 %) with parents (99.2 %) and with elder brother (96.6 %) were cordial. The percentage of children working on their own land was highest (91.95%). The largest number of child workers had been engaged in crop matching (75.07%), followed by harvesting (73.35 %), irrigating (61.90%), weeding (58.74%), hoeing (53.30 %), threshing (49.86 %), preparatory work and sowing (47.28 %) each, ploughing (46.70 %), storage (27.51 %) and other activities (1.99 %). The activities other than agriculture included bringing water, watching the house, cleaning utensils, cattle grazing, looking after young ones and carrying food to the field. The majority of child workers (61.20 %) remained employed for the whole year. Child workers were provided with the facility of
drinking water (100 %) followed by rest interval (88.75 %), necessary tools (65 %), shed at the work place (13.75 %), free breakfast (7.50 %) and free residence (5 %).

The situation of street children in ten cities of Philippines was studied by the Department of SWD and NCSDF, Philippines and UNICEF (1988). The information was gathered about a total of 3255 purposively selected respondents. The findings indicated that there were 50,000 to 75,000 street children. There were more male than female children. Majority of the children had some elementary schooling. The number of out of school children ranged from 21 to 69 per cent and those who never attended school ranged from 21 to 29 per cent. Economic difficulties and need to work to augment family income were the major reasons expressed by the children to leave the schooling. The families of children were migrated to the cities in search of income and employment opportunities. Neglect, maltreatment at home, deception by prospective employers, death of parents and search for lost kin in the city, separation, escape from household obligation and search for adventures were the other reasons expressed by child workers. The street children came from large families having 6 to 12 siblings. A considerable number of parents (15 to 65 %) were separated and had little education. The most common occupation of the children was vending, cleaning and watching cars, carrying baggage, prostitution and to a limited extent drug pushing. It was also observed that children got entangled with unscrupulous adults engaged in exploitative schemes like extortion, drug pushing, pimping and other anti social activities. The children worked in the streets from 6 to 14 hours a day. The earned money was spent for their food and school needs, family, drugs and gambling. When they were not working, they spent time playing, resting, sleeping, watching movies, gambling and sometimes taking drugs. The hazards the street children were facing included sickness, physical injuries from vehicle accidents, street fights, harassment from extortion and policemen, being suspected, arrested or jailed for petty crimes, police brutality, drug addiction and exposure to sexually transmitted diseases.
A study was conducted by Mathivanaanan and Arasu (1989) on child pledging in the beedi industries among migrant workers in Tamil Nadu. A purposive sample of 725 pledged children was chosen. As inferred, the main reasons of child pledging were migration of families, broken family, extreme poverty, large family size, chronic alcoholism of fathers, diseased fathers, loss of both the parents and exploitative social system. Most of the children were forced to discontinue their primary education. Children worked from 7 a.m. to 10 p.m. and on Saturdays they had to work for 12 hours. The wages were paid on piece rate basis, which summed up to Rs. 1 to 4 per day. The children had no rest time, no recreation, no freedom and no basic human rights too. The surveyed children had very bad image of themselves. They were frustrated in their work, most of them felt pity on themselves, some of the workers had restored to alcoholism and smoking to get rid off frustration.

The situation of child labour in Pakistan (Marie, 1990) indicted that according to 1986-87 labour force survey, 19 per cent of the 10-14 year old population was part of the labour force. The participation of rural children was found to be more (23 %) than those of urban child labour (10 %). About one fourth of the urban working children were less than 10 years old. More than half of these children worked for 10 years or more a day and 88 per cent worked 8 to 10 hrs.

Incidence of child labourer in Orissa was studied through case studies by Behura and Behera (1991). Purposively selected 165 child labourers engaged in 15 categories of occupations formed the sample of study. The child labourers were found to be employed in shoe shining, door to door milk supply, rickshaw pulling, domestic servant, hotel and restaurant boys, motor garage, cycle mart, betel shop, carpentry work, construction work, transport, laundry, tailoring, snack vending and vegetable vending. The maximum number of children were working as domestic servants followed by hotel and restaurant workers. Out of 165 working children, 29 were from age 7 - 10 years and the rest 136 were from the age group of 11-14 years. The data regarding the educational status of sample revealed that majority of them (56.97%) were illiterate, 4.85 per cent could write their names and...
remaining 38.2 per cent were educated. The data regarding earnings of child
labourers revealed that they earned Rs. 50 to Rs. 250 per month. Their services
were terminable at the pleasure of their employers. They were not provided with
any service benefit, and most of them were not even granted the privilege of a
weekly holiday. Children did not refrain from duty even during minor sickness. It
was done out of fear of losing wages. The data regarding attitudes of the child
labour towards the employers elicited that about 41.8 per cent respondents rated
their employers as sympathetic, 34.31 per cent as unsympathetic, 16.67 per cent
indifferent and 7.48 as aggressive. Responses of child labourers about their attitude
towards present job indicated that about one third of the sample lacked self-
confidence. They were uncertain about their economic well being.

A survey was undertaken in Orissa by Kanungo in 1991 on young girls helping
in house hold work. The data was collected from 50 girls, below 15 years working as
domestic labourers through questionnaire. It was noticed that the average family
size of working girls was six, the family income ranged from Rs. 700 to Rs. 2000 per
month, 75 per cent fathers and all mothers were illiterate. The age of the working
girls ranged from 9 to 14 years. Of the 50 girls, 35 were part time workers and 15
were full time employees, staying in employer's house. Only 12 girls were literate
and 12 others expressed their desire for reading. They worked minimum for 5 hours
and maximum even more than 10 hours a day. They earned Rs. 35 to Rs. 110 per
month. Part time workers earned more cash than full time workers, while full time
workers also received other facilities like food and clothing. There was no leave
facility to the domestic workers. Regarding the future aspiration, 64 per cent working
girls expressed that they did such type of work as it was their fate but other 36 per
cent girls were interested in vocational training.

Mishra and Mohapatra (1991) studied the growing menace of child labour in
drought prone Kalahandi district of Orissa. For the purpose of study 150 working
children were randomly selected. The study indicated that out of 150 samples
studied, 95 were males and 55 were females. The male children were working
as hotel boys, helpers in garages and repairing shops, daily wage labourers in the building / road constructions, domestic servants, assistants in rice and saw mills, soap factory and small scale industrial units. The female children worked as maidservants, daily wage labourers in building / road constructions and as assistants in different types of shops. The age of working children ranged from 5 to 14 years. They worked for more than 10 hours a day and earned Rs. 2 to 7 per day. The children working in houses and garages were treated normally but all the other children received bad treatment from their masters. The percentage of working children, who wanted to leave their job, ranged from 35 to 85 per cent. The children working in shops and garages got leave facility of once a week, while all the other children had to work for 7 days a week. More than 75 per cent children under study supported their families through their earnings.

Problems of tribal working children in Orissa were studied by Mohanty and Jena (1991). For the purpose of study 185 Kondh children were selected. Of the 185-working children, in the age group of 6 to 15 years, 87 were boys and 98 were girls. Selected children were engaged in household work taking care of siblings and domestic animals, forest collections, wage earning and agriculture activities such as ploughing, weeding, transplantation and harvesting. Though all the activities were performed by both the sexes it was noticed that for taking care of children and for domestic chores, girls were preferred while care of domestic animals and ploughing was allotted to boys. There was no sexual discrimination in forest collections, weeding, transplantation and harvesting. Besides, some tribal children were found to be working at construction and repairing of village roads, cleaning of village tanks and in a paper and a sugar mill in adjacent town. The identified causes responsible for this social evil (child labour) were poverty, low educational attainment, low aspiration level and defective plans and programmes of development.

Nath and Majumdar (1991) had undertaken a study on working children in Calcutta. The sample was 174 working children comprising of 112 males and 62 females. The findings indicted that about 36.7 per cent children had lost their
father, 11.5 per cent had lost their mother and 2.3 per cent had no parents. About 86 per cent of the respondents had four or more siblings and 31 per cent had six or more siblings. First order of birth was observed in 25.3 per cent children, 18.4 per cent children in the second order, 23 per cent in the third order, 16.1 per cent in fourth order and the rest in five or more order. The age of working children ranged from 8 to 15 years. About 40.2 per cent children started working when below the age of 10 years, 52.9 per cent at 12 years and 6.9 per cent between 13 and 15 years. About 55.2 per cent working children had some education while 44.8 per cent never attended school. Of the 174 subjects, 49.4 per cent started working on their own, 16.1 per cent at the insistence of their fathers, 24.1 per cent due to pressure from mother, 5.7 per cent due to both parents' insistence and the rest due to the force from others such as elder brother and step mother. Among the working children studied, 31 per cent were working in hotels, restaurant or tea stalls, 27.5 per cent as domestic servants, 14.9 per cent as factory workers, 11.5 per cent as self employed, 6.9 per cent as tailors' assistants and the remaining as miscellaneous such as scrap collectors. The children working as domestic servants and in hotels or restaurants received food from the employers. About 40.2 per cent working children earned less than Rs. 100 per month while another 13.8 per cent children and self employed children earned more than Rs. 350 per month. In addition to salary, 57.5 per cent children received clothes or bonus from the employer at the time of Durga Puja. The salary was drawn by 66.7 per cent children by themselves while it was drawn through father, mother, or brother for rest of the children. Only 10.7 per cent children kept their earnings with them and remaining children deposited it with parents. The percent child labourers receiving pocket money was 21.8 whereas, 68 per cent children did not receive any amount as pocket expenses. The average working duration was 10.7 hours a day, 32 per cent children worked for less than 10 hours, while 22 per cent worked for more than 12 hours a day. Most of the child labourers (79.3 %) worked seven days in a week. About 14.9 per cent workers got one holiday per week while 3.4 per cent were free from work for half a day in a
week. It was stated that, most of the children were exposed to the work in unfriendly conditions such as prolonged sun, heat, fire, rain, dust, as well as long duration of work with little rest.

Child labour was studied as an adjunct to domestic mode of production in Orissa by Otta (1991). The survey was conducted by using interview schedule. A total number of 90 households comprised of 26 weavers, 32 potters and 32 cultivators were surveyed. All the households had one or more children engaged in the productive process but none of them was working outside his/her home. The information regarding educational status, age of working children and reasons for engaging children in work was gathered. The results indicated that the average age of working child was above 8 years. The educational status indicated that the extent of illiteracy was not significant. Most of the children from all the three categories of occupation were admitted to school and continued their schooling simultaneously while helping parents in family occupations. In case of boys, about 37 per cent were expecting to continue education up to university level. The main reasons stated by parents for engaging the children in work were to socialise the child in the traditional family calling, this work is done only by the children and to initiate the child at work. Children were engaged at all the stages of work in weaving, pottery making and cultivation.

Panigrahi (1991) had undertaken a study on the problem of child labour among the Orans of Sundargarh. A sample of 46 children between the age of 7 to 14 years, working in various spheres in both urban and rural area was selected. The educational profile of the sample showed that, of the 46 working children 24 children were illiterate, 14 literate, 8 had primary and only 2 had upper primary education. The data on recreational activities revealed that almost each subject had easy access to the urban recreation centres. About 80 per cent of them were the regular viewer of all the movies coming to the town, 40 per cent of them visited night show from 9 to 12 p.m. with their girl friends in group. Out of 46 cases, 18 were found taking foreign liquor, 29 mahull and almost all consumed locally made rice beer.
Gambling (playing cards) was a recreational activity among 13 child labourers.

A study on 125 male working children selected from garages, small shops, canteens and restaurants was conducted by Pati and Swain (1991). The study revealed that more than 65 per cent of working children were from age group 14-16 years as compared to 34 per cent from age group below 14 years. A great majority of working children (38.40 %) were from canteens and restaurants as supplies, the other jobs reported by working children were construction cites, garage, cycle repairing shops, tailoring, electric repairing, laundry work, selling in small shops and trolley pulling. With regard to their religion and ethnicity, more than 90 per cent were Hindus and 71.20 per cent were from rural area migrants. Only 14-40 per cent were able to read and write, 15.20 per cent were with education up to primary standard, 6.40 per cent upto middle school and rest were uneducated. The working hours varied from 6 to 10 per day however, 36 per cent of them were forced to work for more than 10 hours (e.g. hotels, restaurants). About one fifth of the working children did not received any wage for their work. Where as, 30.40 per cent received pocket allowance upto Rs. 100 per month. The monthly salary varied from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 among 25.60 per cent of the working children and 23 per cent of children received salary more than Rs. 300 per month. The working children who were not given any incentive constituted 40.80 per cent. The employers provided accommodation and food to 40.40 per cent of the children, whereas in case of 10.40 per cent of subjects, only accommodation was provided. Study further revealed that over 70 per cent of the working children worked to supplement their family income, whereas, 23.20 per cent were forced to lead independent life due to family disorganisation or withdrawal of guardians' support. The main problem encountered by 52 per cent of the total sample was tedious work detrimental to their health. Ill treatment by employer (10.40 %), low remuneration (23.20 %) and non-availability of accommodation (6.40 %) were the other problems reported by the working children. The children were deprived of availing basic health care facilities. Majority of (60.80 %) them joined work force since less than six month prior to survey.
The study also indicated that 57.60 per cent of them aspired to establish themselves as independent businessmen in future. More than 50 per cent of the parents of the working children were landless. Only 10 per cent of families belonged to small family of four members. The mean annual income of the families of child workers was Rs. 6,088. The main reason observed to take up work by the children was liquor addition of father coupled with growing need for feeding more number of family members.

Sharma (1991) studied the deplorable condition of child workers in Bhopal. The investigator interviewed children below 14 years of age from automobile garages, hotels, beedi and soap industries. The working hours of these boys were 10-12 hours a day with only half to one hour given as lunch time.

The data regarding 50-selected child labourers and their exploitation in a tribal block of Orissa was explored (Tripathi, 1991). The findings indicated that the child labourers belonging to SCs and STs constituted 70 per cent, 56 per cent children belonged to landless families, 32 per cent families were small farmers possessing less than one acre of land, 54 per cent children were from the families having 4-6 members and 83.33 per cent families were earning less than Rs. 2000 annually. The observed age of child labourers was below 15 years. Of the total sample the percentage of male children was 75 whereas females were 28 per cent. Nine (18 %) children were totally illiterate. The children were found performing work in agriculture or in collection of forest produce or in construction sector. They found to be changing type of work performed while none of them was engaged in a single specialised work. They were working for more than 9 hours a day (70 %) and were earning less than Rs. 61 a month. The payment was received mostly by the parents. It was also found that 30 per cent children wanted some kind of technical or vocational training whereas 70 per cent child workers opted for resuming studies if facilities were provided. About 90 per cent child labourers were not aware of the act enacted for the betterment of children.

A study was conducted by Child Labourer Cell (1992) on child labour in the brassware industry of Muradabad with an objective of understanding the nature of
the work and the reason for child employment. The study indicated that the estimated number of child labour was 24,000 in the age range of 8-12 years. Moulding and polishing were found to be the most hazardous processes followed by electroplating, welding and polishing. Box mould furnace workshop was extremely dangerous where children had to throw powder in furnace to test the temp and to lift the crucible of molten brass. Children were found to be standing near the furnace without any protective cover and faced 1100°C temperature. None of the child under study was educated. The study suggested to discourage the child labour in brass industry, rescue the children and supply them with grant in aid for regular school with free books and uniform.

Scavenger children in the Philippines were studied by Gunn and Osteos (1992). It was noticed that the children started working along with parents or older siblings on dump from the age of 4 or 5. By age 10, they worked five to eight hours a day and by the time they reached teens they were accomplished enough to work at night hours on the streets. Girls as well as boys worked on the dump, but girls did it less regularly, being frequently called upon to perform household work or childcare as well. Most of them tried to go to school. However they dropped out of school usually around age 12 to scavenge full time.

KewalRamani (1992) conducted a study on child abuse in working and non-working children in Rajasthan. It was observed that of the 74 working children, 23 (31%) were working as domestic servants and in salt mine, each 17.6 per cent were working in building construction, 16.2 per cent in carpet factory and 4 per cent in printing press. Majority (60 %) of girls were working as domestic servants. However, large percent (88.6 %) boys were engaged in works other than domestic service. About 5.4 per cent children worked for less than four hours a day, 9.5 per cent for 4-6 hours, 16.2 per cent for 6-8 hours, 36.5 per cent for 8-10 hours, 27.0 per cent for 10-12 hours and 5.4 per cent for more than 12 hours a day. The data on earning showed that 14.9 per cent working children earned less than Rs. 100 per month, 29.7 per cent between Rs. 100- 200, 17.6 per cent between Rs. 400-500
and 4 per cent more than Rs. 500 per month. Besides getting wages, 41.9 per cent working children got food or clothes also. In 67.6 per cent cases children never got any holiday, about 17.6 per cent got one holiday a week, 10.8 per cent got one holiday in a fortnight and 4 per cent got one holiday in a month. When the working children remained absent from work without intimating their employers, in 21.6 per cent cases they were threatened of being discharged, in 9.4 per cent cases wage was cut, 8.2 per cent children were physically beaten and 60.8 per cent children were emotionally abused by crude behaviour, scolding and accusations by the employers. Approximately, 29.7 per cent working children described their employers, as cruel, 29.7 per cent termed them as indifferent and 40.6 per cent said they were sympathetic. Children under study were getting pocket money. More boys (71.8 %) than girls (45.3 %) received pocket money. They got Rs. 20 (62.1 % children), Rs. 20-40 (25.2 % children) and Rs. 40 or more (12.6 % children) pocket money per month. Out of the total children, 4.7 per cent boys spent pocket money on cigarettes, tobacco, alcohol and Pan Parag.

A complete profile of the Bangalore street children was studied by Reddy (1992). A sample of 1750 children who lived and / or spent most of their time on the streets was selected. The participatory approach was used to gather the information, in which, besides the pre planned survey schedules group discussions with children were arranged. The findings indicated that only 2.29 per cent of the street children were beggars or vagrants and 95 per cent children were working. Rag picking, vending and coolie work were the major occupations of the street children. Only 10.22 per cent of the working children were skilled workers i.e. garage mechanics, tailors, tinkers; 16.26 per cent were semiskilled (cycle rickshaw drivers, helpers, card - board box makers) while all the remaining were manual labourers (rag pickers, construction work labourers, cart pullers, watchmen, sweepers and stone cutters). Nearly 90 per cent of the subjects were full time workers and 60 per cent of them earned less than Rs. 150 per month. About 14 per cent of working children did not receive any rest during their work. One third of working children handled hazardous machinery during their work. More than half of the children (54.45 %) felt that they were
inadequately paid, 40.53 percent felt that they worked more for the payment and 44.28 per cent said that they were physically exploited, 16.64 per cent were asked by the employer to work in the night. Most of the children (84%) felt that they were used as instruments of income. Two third felt overworked and 94 per cent felt that their basic needs were only partly or poorly or not at all met by their parents. There were no recreational and sports facilities for 97.6 per cent street children. Regarding the love and affecting, 53 per cent working children expressed that they were loved by their both parents, while nearly 30 per cent felt unloved by their fathers and 5 per cent unloved by their mothers, 11.09 per cent felt unloved by both parents. Similarly 50 per cent children said that they loved their parents while 20.86 per cent did not love their fathers and 15.54 per cent did not love their mothers, 12.51 per cent loved neither parent. The children who had some ambition to achieve wanted financial assistance (64.61 %), while a quarter of them (25.11 %) wanted vocational training and less than 5 per cent wanted a job or education.

Shah (1992) conducted a case study on 200 child labourers who were engaged in carpets making (100), papier-mâché (70), hotels and *dhabas* (20), and domestic services (10) in Jammu and Kashmir. It was noticed that child labour percentage was more than adult workers in the selected areas of work indicating the children as main source of labour. Predominance of male children in all the sectors was observed. None of the girl child worked in hotel, *dhabas* and domestic services. The age distribution of sample showed that in all the selected work sectors maximum per cent children were from 12-14 years age group. Very young children (4-6 years old) were also engaged in all the selected work areas except in hotels and *dhabas*. Various reasons stated by sample children for taking jobs were inadequate income of parents, large family size, absence of adult wage earners in the family, illiteracy and ignorance of parents, family tension, bleak employment opportunities, desire to satisfy personal economic needs and early marriage. In addition to all these reasons the other reasons stated by the parents of subjects were meeting school expenses, defective education system, bad company, low performance at school and desire to restrict the secrets of art / craft. Among all the stated reasons inadequate income
and the large family was stated by maximum number of subjects (87) from all the working sectors followed by absence of adult wage earners in the family. The reasons given by employers for favouring child labour were as it was cheaper and helped in bargaining with adult workers (135 employers), children can afford the long apprenticeship period needed to learn the intricacies of art (23 employers). Child labourers were employed to express sympathy with poor and down trodden parents and children by 46 employers. Child labour was essential for 16 employers to keep the craft secrets limited to the family. Child labourers had less bargaining power, were meek and submissive and could perform work unhesitatingly under bad working conditions was the opinion of 33 employers. Child labourers ensured factory peace in view of their non-militancy was the another reason stated by 7 employers. Majority of child labourers (76-94 %) from all the working places except domestic servants were working at suffocating, filthy and dinghy huts. They were working for 10 to 22 hours in a day. The domestic workers had to work for more number of hours than other workers do. They were earning from Rs. 90 to Rs.450 per month. The wages were paid at persistent demand of the child or his parents in carpet weaving (94 %) and papier-mâché (92.86 %) while it was paid at month end in hotels, dhabas and domestic services.

In Portugal, Williams (1992) studied the working conditions and various fields of work where the children were engaged. It was mentioned that employment of children was widespread in Portugal, although, the country's legislation on child labour was hundred years old. Children were working in factories, small enterprises, shops, hotels, restaurants, cafes, markets, fishing ports, on building sites, farms and on the streets. Most of them worked in the clandestine or informal sectors of the economy where no protection was provided by trade unions or the ministry of labour inspectors.

Bonnet discussed about child labour in Africa in 1993. The work performed by children in rural areas was domestic chores (predominantly by girls than boys), farm work and the work in the informal sector of the rural economy, which included crafts in the small trades. In urban informal sector also children were
engaged in small trades, domestic service at home and outside and begging. In domestic service more than 90 per cent of the employed children were girls sometimes as young as seven and eight years old. The working conditions were very harsh, sometimes verging on slavery. In rural areas climatic conditions quickly induced fatigue, there was a constant danger from insects, reptiles and other animals, the ground was very hard and tools primitive, distances were very great, working hours were long.

A study of child labour working in roadside tea stalls of Karimnagar town of Andhra Pradesh was undertaken by Kanakalah et al., (1993). The child workers' background revealed that they belong to socially and economically deprived sections of the society particularly scheduled tribes and backward class communities. Almost all of them were working for 10 to 14 hrs a day with the food intervals of 15 min. Most of the workers (51.25%) earned Rs. 30-60 per month. Maximum amount earned was Rs. 150 per month. As a reward they were paid Rs.2-5 as tips every week and two pairs of clothes a year. The educational needs of child workers in the tea stalls were totally neglected.

Murty conducted a case study on child labour in unorganised sector of Ujjain city in 1993. A sample of 100 working children was selected of which 50 were boys and 50 were girls. The data regarding the age of child workers indicated that maximum percent (72 %) of children were of 8 to 12 year's age. Most of the girls (30 %) worked for 6 to 8 hrs, whereas most of the boys (30 %) were working for 8 to 10 hours. Boys earned Rs. 400 to 500 per month while girls were earning between Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 per month. The working hours as well as the earnings were more for boys. The information on the size of family of surveyed child labourers revealed that 37 per cent children belonged to medium families (7 to 8 members) and a big number (27 %) belonged to large families (9-10 members) followed by 25 per cent children from small families (4-6 members). Majority of the children (88 %) were from Hindu religion while 10 per cent belonged to Christian. Maximum number of working children (51 %) were from scheduled and backward classes. All the
children 100 per cent reported that poverty was the most prevalent cause of child labourer. Thirty nine per cent children added that they worked because of the death of one or both parents, 69 per cent children worked because of the big size of the family, 14 per cent children were working as their father was ill habituated and spent money on drinking liquors. While 6 per cent boys said that they themselves wanted to work though their parents wanted them to go to school. Twenty two per cent boys and 19 per cent girls were going to schools. Most of the studied children liked to work. Boys had more liking for their work. Most of the subjects (50 %) were satisfied with their master's behaviour. Half of them were not satisfied, they felt that they were being exploited. The data regarding the perks to working children revealed that 16 per cent girls and 5 per cent boys got tea casually and 15 per cent of each boys and girls got tea regularly. The boys who worked in hotels or as full time workers were served with food regularly while the full time girls servants got food regularly only in the morning as they were not staying at work place in the night. Most of the working girls (40 %) received old clothing whereas 15 per cent boys received new clothing from the employers.

Mishra and Mishra (1993) conducted a study on 150 child workers in Cuttack city. They observed that 88.6 per cent sample was from the lower social strata of the society and 85.7 per cent child labourers were slum dwellers. About 21 per cent, 32.4 per cent and 46.6 per cent of child labourers belonged to age groups 7-10 years, 10-13 years and 13-15 years, respectively. Female child labourers constituted 14.11 per cent of the total child labourers, who were engaged only in construction and household work. The educational level of the studied group was very low. Only 14.3 per cent children had passed 7th grade whereas 33.3 and 30.5 per cent children passed upper primary and lower primary school examination, respectively. The another noteworthy feature of the study was that the maximum child workers (70.5%) were relatively immobile and worked under one employer since beginning of their career. Whereas, 17.1 per cent had served under at least 2 employers and 12.4 per cent of them were self-employed. The study further indicated that the
average size of families from which children were working had 5 members. Only 41 per cent of the parents of child labourers were compromising and acceptable to each other. However, 18 per cent of the parents were actually segregated and never owed any responsibility for their families. Another 41 per cent of the parents pulled on with each other with much difficulty. The identified categories of jobs carried out by children were 13 such as assistance in cycle and motor repairing, mechanical and technical work in workshops and tailoring, hotel boys, rickshaw pulling, road side chat and gupchup vendors, band party boy, construction work, household works, cobblers, barbers, blacksmith, working in printing press etc. There was no definite rule or law regulating child labour in the city. Of the studied group of child workers, 68.6 per cent smoked, 13.3 per cent drank alcoholic drinks and 15.2 per cent resorted to gambling. The finding regarding the income and wages of child labourers revealed that the children working as rickshaw pullers and construction workers got their payment daily whereas others did not get their wages regularly although they worked on monthly basis. Eighty one per cent of child labourers were not satisfied with their earning, 13 per cent were satisfied with their jobs. It was found that apart from wages, 33.4 percent of child labourers got an additional benefit in terms of food and dress. Especially, in case of hotel boys and house hold workers children did not get paid holiday facility, except those working in markets and workshops, which remain closed for a day in a week. The mode of expenditure of child labourers showed that 37 per cent of them spent their money for their own food, clothing or welfare, 42 per cent gave part of their earnings to their families and 21 per cent spent in both ways. The children from 10-15 age group saved Rs.1-1.5 daily, while members of 7-10 years age group did not save. The majority of children (69 %) worked for more than 8 hours daily. Most of the children, except those in household works were working in unhealthy conditions. In hotels and restaurants, they were working with fumes and water. In motor garages, workshop etc. children were working with iron welding. In street shops, they were working in sun and rain. Such conditions were dangerous for their health and might cause skin and other
diseases. Most of the child labourers (76%) were in good terms with the employers and were liked by them. Only 29 per cent had strained and unwilling relationship with their employers. It was found that 61 per cent of them got severe punishment either physically or loss in wages for their negligence and small mistakes. Only 52.3 per cent of the child labour force wanted to continue with the profession in which they were engaged, other 47.7 per cent either wanted to change to other professions or they were concerned about having their own business.

Child labourer in diamond industry of Surat city was studied by Operational Research Group of Planning Commission (ORGP, 1993). Overall, 502 working boys and 22 working girls were interviewed. The children were in the age group of 12-14 years. They started working from the age of 10 years. It was found that half of the sample (54%) was staying alone within their work primacies in the diamond polishing units, around 22 per cent were staying with their relatives and rest (23%) were staying with parents. Nearly 90 per cent of the working children had discontinued their studies soon after primary education, 9 per cent of children never attended any school. Majority of the children (98%) were working for 9 and more hours a day. Of these, almost 50 per cent children were working for 10 to 11 hours a day including recess. Going for a walk and taking rest were major leisure time activities reported by nearly 43 per cent children. Watching TV/film and listening to radio was the most favourite recreation activity for 23 per cent child workers, 8 per cent children enjoyed playing and 7 per cent going to pan shop. Among female workers, 10 per cent helped in household chores and 13 per cent used their leisure time in reading books, visiting temple and chatting with friends. Only 2.5 per cent sample expressed that they were compelled to work while rest all did not mind doing work. Almost 50 per cent workers were earning Rs. 600 to 1000 a month. Majority (91%) spent money on snacks and food items and 10 per cent spent on entertainment. Most of the workers (75%) were sending 50 per cent or more money (between 201 to Rs. 1000) to their families per month which accounted for even 50 per cent of total family income. It was also noticed that 11 per cent child workers saved Rs. 200-900 per month. It was kept either with the owners or with themselves.
Sattaur (1993) in a report on child labour in Nepal stated that two million children were living near slavery in Nepal. Such children were away from home for work to pay off the debts incurred by their parents. It was a common practice in Nepal and people ignored it. Some of the major reasons stated to be responsible for child labour were poverty, ignorance of education and child rights, traditions of the society and migration to urban area.

A study based on data collected by Sekar (1993) through unstructured interviews with 115 child workers and their parents from match industries of 10 villages of Sivakashi panchayat unions and Sivakasi town revealed that among the working children maximum (90%) were girls. The children interviewed were between four and fourteen years old though a good proportion of three years old was found assisting their mother. Most of the children were from rural areas and were taken by buses every day. Majority of the child labourers were from families where household income was irregular. Many parents sent their male children to school. Hence the burden of supplementing income fell mainly on girls. It was reported that the survival rate of parents did not affect the children's participation in the labour force. Illiteracy and low levels of education among the parents were found to be major contributory factors for child employment. Among the children interviewed, 58 per cent were not free to leave their employment because their parents had taken loans from the owners. About 76 per cent girl children were employed in frame filling, 16 per cent in box filling and 4 per cent in band rolling. All were casual workers. They were not made permanent despite working for several years in the same unit. There was found to be a sexual bias. No reward or promotion was given to women while men were given skilled jobs and promoted as foremen, accountants and even managers. The work places were congested, improperly ventilated, ill-lighted, chemical odour emitting and nauseating. There were complaints about non-availability of toilet facilities and drinking water. Children worked on an average for 12 hours daily, for six to seven days a week, without a break for months together. Many of the children started their day as early as 4
am. There were instances when children worked till 10 p.m. with short lunch break of 20 to 40 minutes. Children were seated in the same room where the sacks of chemical powder were also stored. The average wage for girl children per week was Rs. 38 but income varied from Rs. 12 to 70 per week.

Shukla and Shukla (1993) studied the child labour in the informal sector. It was stated that the factors which enabled children to seek employment in the informal sector included absence of any statutory minimum age for employment, easy entry, less competition among job seekers, absence of any minimum requirement of education or training, easy nature of work, provision of food, shelter and clothing in the city by the employer, absence of any minimum wage requirement and easy entry and easy exit. Singh (1993) had taken an overview of working children in India. It was mentioned that most of the children at work were illiterate. Since they were initiated to the world of work quite early in life due to which they remained under nourished, underdeveloped and unskilled.

Child labour in rainfed agriculture was studied by Singh and Singh in Bihar (1993). In the selected area the work force included 23.45 per cent child labourers in the age group of 5 to 15 years. Most of the working children were from scheduled and backward castes. The children got altogether 45 days employment in agriculture and were paid Rs. 12 (male child) and Rs. 10 (female child) per day. Other than agriculture they performed other jobs during the shortage of agriculture employment and were receiving relatively lower wages (Rs. 10 per day for male and Rs. 8 per day for female).

Vijaygopalan (1993) conducted a cross sectional survey of 500 children employed in the hand knitted carpet industry of Bhadohi Mirzapur in Utter Pradesh. It was stated that the estimated incidence of child labour was 8 per cent but the actual incidence might be higher. Of the child labourers employed, 4.4 per cent worked as family labourers, 34 per cent child labour attended schools and 3.6 per cent of the children were away from their families, were dependent on employer, tied to him for many years, and did not get school education.
An evaluation of child labour in tile factories of Andhra Pradesh was done by New Concept Consultancy Services (1994), which indicated that out of 252 children in the age group of 5-14 years, 108 children (40%) were found to be working. Of the 108 children, 87 were employed in the tile factories, 3 were domestic servants, 2 tended cattle and the rest were engaged in agriculture. The working girl's percentage was reported to be more (55%) over male counter parts. There were 108 child workers as compared to 191 adults earning in the 100 household surveyed. Further it was noticed that the girl child who worked in the tile factory was generally of 5-10 years however once they reached 11 years they were withdrawn from the factories and confined to house hold work. Out of the 100 subjects, 63 opined that they did not want to work in the factories but the poor economic condition of their families forced them to work and earn to supplement family income. The data regarding educational status of child workers under study revealed that of the 100 child workers, 18 were school dropouts due to poor studies and poor economic conditions. On further probing, many children expressed that given the opportunity, they would join the schools.

A sample of 250 child labourers from the silk industry of Bhagalpur (Bihar) was studied by Sinha in 1994. It was noticed that 51.20 per cent sample belonged to urban area and rest was from rural area. The working children aged 5-14 years. Majority of the child labourers (62.80%) received primary education, 10.80 per cent were middle standard educated and 26.80 per cent children were illiterates. The vast majority (95.60%) mothers and 64.80 per cent fathers were illiterate. Most of the children (50.80%) worked for 8-10 hours a day with half an hour interval. The children received Rs. 5 to 15 per day towards wages and nearly 70 per cent children received it on weekly basis. However, a part of payment was kept in the custody of the employer in the guise of security amount. Vast majority (86.40%) child labourers reported that they had to work in unhygienic conditions.

A survey of child labour in the match belt of Tamil Nadu State was conducted by Vidyasagar (1994). The results reported that 21 to 27 per cent of the
total children were working in match or firework industries. The sex wise distribution of sample showed that there were 42-44 per cent males and 56-58 per cent female child workers which concluded that mainly girls were engaged in the work force. The education level of the sample indicated that 16 per cent of the male and 24 per cent of the female child workers were never enrolled in school, while 56 per cent each of male and female children were school dropouts. The social background of children showed that majority of households with working children were from backward communities.

Karunanithi (1995) conducted a study on 500 children engaged in beedi works in Tamil Nadu State. The finding revealed that one third of the labour force in beedi works was constituted by children in the age group of 5-15. The proportion of male (50.80 %) and female (49.20 %) children was more or less same. More number of girls than boys were pledged during early childhood. The illiterates out numbered the literates. Boys who studied up to middle school were twice than that of girls. It was enumerated that 42 out of 500 pledged children, attended night schools. The pledged children from scheduled caste constituted about one third of the sample. The average size of the households of child workers was 6.58. Children worked about 10 hours a day. All children were given rest on all Sundays. Children earned Rs. 3-5 or less a day. Of the 500 selected child workers, one third complained of punishment by the employer. Especially, the children below 10 years of age were more prone to punishment than children above 10 years.

It is mentioned in Labour Gazette (1995) that the children were frequently locked in Bangladeshi garment factories, working for 10 to 14 hours a day, with half a day off on Friday, the Islamic Sabbath. As stated by Maggie (1995) Hotel and Tourism Branch of the International labour office (ILO) initiated exploration of the child work in hotel, tourism and catering industry in the developing world. For this study four countries Kenya, Mexico, Philippines and Sri Lanka were selected. The study revealed that the employment of youngsters in this sector provided a pathway into exploitative world of commercialised sex. Many of the child prostitutes were
not employed in brothels but they were working in twilight zone of the tourism and entertainment world.

A study conducted by South Asian Coalition on Child Servitude (SACCS, 1995) in Delhi has revealed that about 86 per cent child workers were male and 14 per cent were female. Among males 63 per cent and among girls 81 per cent were illiterate.

Vigil Group of Bangalore (1995) worked on child labour in Kanyakumari district. They observed that female children participated to a greater extent than male children. The number of working girls was as high as 62.25 per cent as against the 37.75 per cent working boys. Male child participation was highest at 12 to 14 years (61.42%) and 30 per cent of children were below 10 years. A majority of respondents were Hindus and Christians. The average family size to which children belonged was 7 members. The parents of almost all the children were illiterate while more than 95 per cent of the children were literate. About 75 per cent of the children had attended school for one to seven years. The male children primarily worked as labourers in tile and brick factories, rubber tapers and coolies, while girls were mainly engaged in beedi rolling, incense stick making, carrying and engraving sea shells, making decorative sea shell items, lace making and domestic service. Their wages were very low, ranging between Rs. 2 and Rs. 15 a day. They worked 10 to 12 hours a day. The children worked under harsh conditions, without light and fresh air. Often they worked in cramped and over crowded rooms. Some of them had to inhale chemicals and fumes.

Poverty, unemployment, inadequate distribution of land and assets, migration of labour, inadequate income of adult workers, zamindari and bonded labour system, social and cultural factors, educational backwardness and ignorance of parents, absence of provision for compulsory education, employer's preference for engaging children for work, victims of misfortune, large families, inefficacy of protective legislation for working children and dowry system were the various causes of child labour (Joseph, 1996).
A study on child workers working in tea stalls, sweet shops, and dhabas was conducted in Shimla by Mehta and Jaswal (1996). In 55 establishments, 80 children were found to be working, which was 37.73 per cent of the total employment. Out of 80 child workers, 20 got employment through self-persuasions, 36 through their relationships and remaining 24 by the owners. The wage range of child workers varied from Rs. 0-350 per month. The age composition of the child workers indicated that 14 children were of 9 or less than 9 years, 38 children were between the age group of 9-12 years, and 28 children were between the age group of 12-14 years. The educational profile of child workers revealed that 45 per cent working children were illiterate and remaining all 55 per cent children were school dropouts. All the children under study got the food and housing facilities. They were provided with electricity, water for bathing and washing clothes. There were no entertainment facilities for 58.75 workers. However 25 per cent child workers got entertainment through radio and 15 per cent through T.V. Children toiled between 8-15 hours without any rest. They started work at early hours in the morning and worked till late in night, without any rest.

The child workers in carpet industry of Mirzapur, Uttar Pradesh, were studied by Mishra and Pande (1996a). The study comprised of 608 working children, which contributed to 37 per cent of child population, out of which 71.21 per cent (433) never attended the school. The number of school dropouts was 116 while 9.53 per cent child workers continued their education. Of the 116, 59.49 per cent left school due to unbearable expenses, 6.03 per cent children were forced to leave the school by their parents while 5.17 per cent workers left it due to death of either parent. A sizeable number of children (29.31 %) simply discontinued the education because they had no interest in studies. The data regarding the type of work indicated that about 94 per cent working children were performing skilled jobs in village and small-scale industries. A meagre percentage (6.09) of children were engaged in unskilled activities. No child was found to perform household work along with the work he / she was engaged in. Out of the 492 subjects, 381 entered the job between the
age group of 7-11 years, while only 20 per cent children entered the job at the age group of 11-14 years. About 197 working children worked 8 to 10 hours per day whereas remaining children performed work for 6 to 10 hours a day. The wages earned by the child labourers ranged between Rs. 150 to 600 per month. About 18 per cent workers collected their wages by themselves while for rest of the sample the wages were collected by their parents. A large number of child workers (420 of 492) got pocket money between Rs. 11 to 25. A snack was the major item of expenditure for pocket money (87 %), 28 per cent spent mostly on entertainment and 13.43 children spent a part of pocket money on tobacco and smoking. About 35 per cent of the total-working children reported dislike for work, however rest of them liked it.

Mishra and Pande (1996b) conducted a study on child labour in glass industry in Firozabad. The study comprised of 500 households from which the children were working as child labourers. The findings revealed that the average monthly income of a working child was Rs. 259, which contributed about 25.22 per cent of the total household income. The monthly income of 39 per cent of the sample households was less than Rs. 1,000 while 46.2 per cent households had income between Rs. 1001 to 2000. Only 12.8 per cent families earned more than Rs. 2000 per month. The working children were found to be engaged in various types of jobs skilled and unskilled. The skilled activities were performed by 76.21 per cent child workers. Out of these 79.20 per cent were males and 20.80 per cent were females. Study showed that male children were employed proportionately more in skilled work than the female children. Age and sex wise distribution of sample showed that 81 per cent of the total sample was males and most of them (96.40 %) belonged to the age group of 7 years and above. The data regarding educational status of subjects revealed that 45.40 per cent children never attended school, 35 per cent of them left the school due to compelling situations. However 20 per cent of the working children were attending the school while being in a job. The per day earnings of the children under study showed that 69 per cent of the working children did not get more
than Rs. 14 per day, about 35 per cent of them had daily income of Rs. 2.20 to Rs. 8.09. Only 9 per cent of the subjects earned Rs. 22.56 to 32.28 per day. About 49 per cent of the working children collected wages by themselves and wages for rest of the sample were collected by their parents and local guardians. Out of 500 working children only 276 received some pocket money. Majority of them (276) received Rs. 40 and more per month towards pocket money. The children's attitude towards work indicated that about 81 per cent of them did not like to work. Most of the workers (75 %) stated the dangerous and injurious nature of work as a reason for dislike of work.

A study was conducted on child labourers working in various work sectors at Delhi by Mohd. Mohd. Mustafa and Sharma (1996). They observed that of the 68 child workers working in tea stalls, 41 (60 %) were in age group of 13-14 years, 25 per cent in the age group of 11 to 12 years and remaining were below 10 years of age. Only 10 of 68 children were girls. Most of the children worked more than 6 hours a day. The monthly wages of the earning children were less than Rs. 150. Actual recipients of their own earnings were 96 per cent. Children were engaged in jobs such as sweeping the premises, dusting and cleaning the chairs, benches and tables, washing the vessels, served the customers and taking tea and eatables to customer in the near by area. All the children working in teashops were provided with an accommodation facility. The percentage of children receiving wages by themselves was 46 while remaining 64 per cent workers' parents or wards received the wages directly. Most of the children started work at about 5.00 or 6.00 hours. There were a few who started work even earlier than 5.00 hours, in one case the child's work started at as early as 3.00 hours. Their duties ended only after 20 hours, in one case at midnight. The spread over of time showed that more than 70 per cent children worked for more than 12 hours a day. Rest interval was there only for 10 per cent children while 26 per cent children had rest interval that of 30 minutes, which was not fixed. The data regarding the 64 child workers offering domestic service, 125 engaged actively in shoe shining, 19 working in auto repair
workshops, 52 rag collectors and between 500-800 children engaged in hawking of evening papers were also presented. The results revealed that of the 64 domestic workers, 22 were girls and 42 were boys. They aged between 9 to 12 years (10) and 12 to 14 years (54), one fourth had lost their father. They started work at 5.00 to 6.00 hours and worked till 23.00 hours, which counted for 12 hours for more than 50 per cent children. Only five boys reported working less than 8 hours a day. They earned less than Rs. 25 to Rs. 100 per month. All the domestic workers got food from the employers. Shoe shiners worked for 10 to 12 hours starting from 8.00 hours and earned from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30 per day. The children in auto repair workshop were between the age of 9 to 14 years. Twelve out of 19 children received daily wages and remaining seven workers were paid monthly, which varied from 50 paise to four rupees. Children worked for 12 to 16 hours (73 %) and less than 12 hours (27 %) a day with a paid weekly holiday. Among the rag collectors 23 out of 52 were below the age of 11 years and the remaining were in the age group of 12 to 14. The working hours were more than 9 a day for 8 children, 40 rag pickers worked between 6 to 9 hours while remaining worked for less than 6 hours a day. Rag picking children were earning daily between Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. Almost all rag pickers lived with their parents. A large number of children (560-800) were found engaged in hawking of evening papers. They earned one to two rupees per day. The hawking started at 15.00 hours and extended upto 20.00 hours.

Singh (1996) conducted a study on the child rag pickers in slums of Kurukshetra in Haryana State. A total number of 145 rag pickers were selected for the study. The data regarding socio-economic perspectives revealed that the age of rag pickers ranged from 6 to 15 years. Only 10.67 per cent selected rag pickers were just literate, 36.67 per cent rag picker were engaged in rag picking up to five hours a day, 62 per cent up to 6 to 10 hours and 1.33 per cent up to 11 hours and above. About 43 per cent of the rag picking children were earning between Rs. 5-10 per day, 37 per cent between Rs. 10-15 and 20 per cent earned Rs. 15-20 per day. From the earned money 70 per cent of children, contributed their total earnings to the family. Another 30 per cent of the child
respondents handed over 60% of their earnings to parents and they kept 40 per cent of it for their personal care. In the absence of parental control, the children took to smoking, gambling and other vices. The study further pointed out that, 58.67 per cent of rag pickers were satisfied with their work while 35.3 per cent were not satisfied and remaining 6 per cent had mixed responses. The detailed scrutiny of data pointed out that 64 per cent children's parents were illiterate, 23.33 per cent parents were literate and rest 12.67 per cent were primary school educated. The maximum number of children (65.33%) chose the occupation because of poverty, 10.67% joined job out of conflict between mother and father as they failed to carry on the responsibilities towards their children, 9.33 per cent jointed rag picking after the death or illness of parents. The data regarding family income of child workers showed that 66, 17.33, 14 and 4.67 per cent children were from families having monthly income between Rs. 300 to 301, 301 to 400, 401 to 500 and above Rs. 500, respectively. Nearly 70 per cent of the children admitted that the work was not appreciable, was tiresome and competitive, 78 per cent of them confirmed its bad effect on health. It was also noticed that 90.67 per cent of children were unclean, whereas 9.33 per cent of them were clean.

In Egypt, 39.9 per cent of children engaged in labour attributed to their family's lack of income. Another reason was educational failure due to which 49.6 per cent children were motivated to work (UNICEF-96). Child labour in the hotel, catering and tourism sector in various countries was studied by Gust in 1997. It was stated that low pay and lack of control were the main reasons for employment of children in the hotel, catering and tourism sector. They worked in hotels as bellboys, waitresses, maids, hospitality workers, golf caddies, servants, dancers, beach boys, guides, hawkers, etc. The major factors responsible for pushing children in employment were poverty, ignorance, and illiteracy of the families and family breakdown. Children suffered from physical harm, impaired growth or loss of well being, accident risk, long working hours, abusive treatment by customers resulted in psychological damage.
A study on child labour in beedi industry of Nizamabad district of Andhra Pradesh was conducted by Pande (1998). A sample of 1000 households was selected targeting the child labourers aged 6 to 15 years. The findings revealed that the majority of households (94%) did not own any agricultural land, while, rest 4.5 per cent owned less than 1 acre and 1 per cent owned between 1 to 5 acres of land. The working girls were more (67%) than working boys (26%). Only 28 per cent of the males had been to the high school, 4.5 per cent were from middle school and 16.7 per cent were educated at the primary level. The percentage of adult illiterate males in studied families was 89.4 per cent. The total monthly income of majority of respondents (48%) was between Rs. 501 to 750 followed by 18 per cent households having an income of Rs. 750 to 1000. The majority of children contributed Rs. 250 towards the household income. They got money monthly and only another 7 per cent got it fortnightly. Most of the child workers (98%) reported that they received their payment in time, while only 2 per cent stated that there was a delay in payment or they received their payments in parts. About 67 per cent of the child workers were first borns and 20 per cent were second borns. Girl child workers were looking after siblings besides doing household chores. About 11 per cent of child workers had dropped out of school at the age of 12 years, another 35 percent at the age of 13 years, 2 per cent at the age of 11 and 14 years each. Most of the work sheds were at a walking distance. Two per cent respondents were walking for less than 1 km. Other 8 per cent had to walk 1 to 2 km to reach the work shed. Some of the sheds had drinking water and toilet facilities but there was no facility for rest, lunchtime, medical, or paid holiday. Majority of the child workers (66%) expressed that they liked their work. They were very proud that while other children were going only to school, they were sharing the responsibilities of their parents and assisting them in earning a livelihood. Thirty four per cent of the child workers said that they did not like the work. The reasons stated for dislike were body pain and lack of time for play and study. The data regarding treatment by parents revealed that if they did not do as much work as was expected from them they were punished (53%) or
were scolded (47%). Severe beating was reported in 0.3 per cent cases and food was denied to another 0.3 per cent cases. The child workers received pocket money if they were only in 11-14 years age group. There was found to be good awareness regarding dangers of beedi making among child labourers. Majority of the child workers (99.2%) knew that beedi making leads to diseases, and only 0.6 per cent said that it made no difference.

Giri, (1998) carried out a study on child labourers in sports goods industry at Jalandhar in Punjab. The findings of the study revealed that in 144 registered units only 3 male children were found working while a large number of children were involved in the manufacture of sports good at the home based level. The sample was divided into two categories as only working (OW) and working and school going (WSG) children. It was observed that out of 2, 326 children in the age group of 5-14, three fourths (1719) were WSG and about 10 per cent (225) were OW children. Average numbers of working hours per day were increased by more than three after the age of 10 years. Of the OW children, 75 per cent were reported to be school dropouts. The data further suggested that the 90 per cent of the total dropouts had turned into full time workers. The total hours (8.94 hrs) spent on schooling (5.44 hrs) and work (3.20 hrs) by the WSG group were more than the OW children who spent only 5.81 hrs at work. As children grew older, the total number of hrs spent by WSG category rose from 8.67 hours for a five-year-old child to nearly 10.34 hrs for a 14 years old child. Other sectors listed from both urban and rural areas where children were working included handloom weaving, carpet making, zari work, embroidery, khaja making, metal work, metal polishing, tinkering services, pottery, ceramics, spinning, carpentry, construction, automobile workshops, lorry cleaners, domestic servants, shoe shines, paper boys, coolies, hawkers, fruit and vegetable vendors, rag pickers, dealers in used bottles, tins and all kinds of junks, helpers in spinning mills, laundries, servants and cleaners in hotels and tea shops.

The child labour in agriculture was studied by Fyfe (1999). It was stated that large number of children around the world were forced to work. There was rise
in the use of contract labourer worldwide. The demand for child labourers on farms and plantations was likely to remain strong. Children were also working in the commercial fishing industries of Indonesia, Sri Lanka, The Philippines, India and Pakistan; in the harvesting of rattan in the Philippines, sugar cane and rubber in Brazil and vegetables in Honduras and South Africa.

NRCCL (1999) studied the child labourers engaged in the home based production of sports goods in Meerut. The villages and urban centres engaged in household manufacturing of sports goods, which utilise child labourers, were selected. The empirical data was collected from 120 households by administering schedule and group discussions with parents, employers and officials'. The findings of the study indicated that there were 81 working children. The magnitude of working children was more in rural areas (50 %) compared to urban areas (45.45 %). Majority of them were working for six to 10 hours. About 50 per cent of working as well as school going children worked for 2 to 4 hours. About 23 per cent of the total income was contributed by children. About 62 per cent of working children reported pain in finger joints and knee joints, headache, and backache. The work they performed was stitching of inflammable balls, cricket balls, batting gloves and abdominal guards.

The different causes of prevalence of child labour in India were growth of population especially below poverty line, lack of education, and large-scale unemployment (Konar, 2001).

2.5 Anthropometric Measurements of Child Labourers

A cross sectional study of physical health problems in working children was carried out by Mehta et al., (1985). Working children residing in Matunga Labour Camp in Bombay were selected for the observations. The findings regarding anthropometric measurements of children revealed that 4 children had heights less than 5th percentile whereas only 4 children from the studied groups could grow above 95th percentile of ICMR norms of height. Yamuna and Jaya (1985) carried
out a study on health profile of child workers in hosiery industry in Tamilnadu State. The number of male child workers selected was 36 while 32 girls formed the other cohort of sample. Socio-economic status of the children was assessed by a scale while to elicit the anthropometric data slide balance and steel tape were used. It was evident from the results that the mean weight of the child workers at all age levels was lower than that of NIN standard norms while mean height of the child workers was almost equal to the NIN standard norms, other than at age 14 years.

Longitudinal growth data from 5th year to young adult stage on 410 boys were analysed around Hyderabad according to their work status during the ages of 10-14 years by Satynarayana et al., (1986). Of the 410 boys, 213 were engaged, as child labourers during the ages of 10-14 years and remaining were students. Out of the 213 child labourers 84 were wage earners, 76 were working on their own farms and 53 as helpers in small work establishments. The growth pattern of child labourers was compared with students. The findings of the study revealed that the child labourers always had lower growth compared to their non-working counterparts. It was concluded that physical labour during growth period acted as one of the important stress variables in addition to other socio-economic factors.

Kanungo (1991) had undertaken a survey in Orissa on young girls helping in household work. The data was collected from 50 girls, below 15-year age, who were working as domestic labourers. The observation regarding the anthropometric data indicated that the age height ratio of the working girls was satisfactory for 72.46 percent of the children. A study was conducted by Srinivasan (1993) on working children from Baroda city. The sample consisted of 180 child workers. The findings with respect to anthropometric data suggested that only 8 per cent children had normal weight, 30 per cent showed signs of malnutrition, whereas 72 per cent belonged to the category of moderate to severe malnutrition. While assessing the health and nutritional status of adolescent girls working in dying units in Trichi district, Vijayalaxmi and Vijayalaxmi (1994) observed that the height and weight of the studied group were significantly less than that of NCHS standards. The mean
height of the working adolescent girls of 13-15 years was 139.3 cm as against 141.7 cm recorded by the non working girls. The mean weight of the subjects was 38.1 kg while the non-working subjects of same age group had 39.6-kg weight.

Anthropometric status of the child labourers of Berhampur town of Orissa was assessed by Patnaik and Haritha (1995). The sample of the study was randomly selected from slum areas of town, which comprised of 100 child labourers of both the sexes equally in the age group of 9 to 14 years. The anthropometric criteria used in the study were weight for age on the basis of Jelliffe's classification of malnutrition while the heights of subjects were compared with the I.C.M.R. norms of height and weight. The findings of the study revealed that all the studied children were suffering from third and fourth degree malnutrition. The percentage of children suffering from 3rd degree malnutrition was more (87 %) than that of children suffering from 4th degree malnutrition (22 %). The further scrutiny of data conveyed that the percent of female children showing malnutrition was higher (54 %) than their male counterparts (46 %). The statistical analysis of data regarding heights and weights of the child workers showed that heights and weights of the studied group were significantly lower than the ICMR reference heights and weights at 0.01 and 0.05 per cent level. A comparative study carried out over a period of 17 years on both children who attended school and those who worked in agriculture, industry or the service sector showed that working children grew up shorter and weighed less than school children. The finding indicated that early initiation to work crippled children of physical growth (Anonymous, 1996).

Anthropometric measurements of child workers were compared with school children having the similar age group and socio-economic background in Parbhani City by Deshpande (1996). It was reported that the anthropometric measurements of all the subjects were significantly lower than that of the NCHS standards. Even some anthropometric measurements such as height, weight and mid upper arm circumference in 9-10 year old child labourers were significantly lower than control group children. Income level and family size of the subjects influenced the
anthropometric measurements, however, it could not reach to the level of significance. Prevalence of malnutrition among the subjects according to Gomez and Waterlow's classification indicated that normal children were more from control group while malnutrition prevailed among more number of the working children.

Mishra and Pande (1996b) while studying the child labour in glass industry at Firozabad observed that retardation of physical development of working children was the first forth coming effect of abuse of child labour. They found that the weight and height of most of the working children were below the prescribed standard norms, which was an indication of poor health and physical fitness. Working children suffer significant growth deficits compared with children in school; they grow up shorter and lighter, and their body size continues to be smaller even in adulthood (Anonymous, 1998).

Nutritional and health status of female child labourers was evaluated by More (1998). The anthropometric measurements of the subjects increased with increase in age. The statistical comparison of means of height and weight with NCHS standards and of mid arm circumference and triceps skinfold with Frisancho(1981) reference values projected that all the studied anthropometric measurements of the subjects were significantly below the standards. The monthly family income and family size did not show significant impact on the anthropometric measurements of selected girl workers. The Gomez classification of nutritional grades revealed that only 26.66 per cent working girls were normal whereas, 28.33 per cent, 24.66 per cent and 20.33 per cent workers were suffering from grade-I, grade-II and grade-III malnutrition, respectively. According to Waterlow's classification only 17.66 per cent child labourers were normal. Current long duration malnutrition was observed in 45.66 per cent children while, 21.23 per cent girl workers were stunted and 15.33 per cent were wasted.

Patil (2000) studied the nutritional status of child labourers in Parbhani from Maharashtra and observed that the anthropometric measurements of the
selected child labourers increased with increase in age. Statistical comparison of all the anthropometric measurements with NCHS standard values showed that all the studied anthropometric measurements of the subjects were significantly lower than the standard values (P<0.01). When the selected child labourers were categorised into different nutritional grades according to Gomez classification it was found that only 2 children were normal. Grade II malnutrition was seen in maximum (49 %) child workers. Waterlow's classification depicted that only 18 children were normal while, from remaining children maximum child labourers suffered from long duration malnutrition.

2.6 Nutrient Deficiency Disorders Prevailing Among Child Labourers

Mehta et al. (1985) while studying the working children in Bombay observed that two children were suffering from protein energy malnutrition. Vitamin A deficiency was observed in eight child workers while six children showed signs of B complex vitamin deficiency. The signs of anaemia were present in eight children. Nutritional and health status of child workers was assessed in Calcutta by Nath and Majumdar (1991). The observations indicated that the child workers under study suffered from fatigue, vitamin and protein deficiencies. Reddy (1992) conducted a study on a large number (4500) of working street children in Bangalore. The data pertaining to nutritional status of child workers pointed out that 87.37 per cent subjects were undernourished and 7.89 per cent were severely undernourished. Over 95 per cent street child labourers had excessive or moderate protein and vitamin deficiency.

The studies conducted by Operational Research Group of Planning Commission during 1993 regarding deficiency symptoms among child workers engaged in diamond industry revealed that 15.8 per cent subjects suffered from angular stomatitis which was indicative of vitamin B complex deficiency. Protein deficiency as noticed by dispigmented hair was seen in 14.1 per cent subjects. Almost half of the sample exhibited dental caries due to mineral deficiency.
Deshpande (1996) noticed that iron deficiency was prominent in working children (16%) from Parbhani, which was followed by vitamin B complex deficiency (8%). Only 0.8 per cent child workers suffered from PEM. Not even a single child out of the studied children suffered from vitamin A or vitamin C deficiency, while iron deficiency, fluorosis, vitamin B complex deficiency and morbidity symptoms were noticed among the child labourers. Nutritional status of selected subjects was influenced due to age and income level. It was noticed that in general nutritional disorders increased proportionally with age. Children belonging to 10+ age group found to be more vulnerable than children from other age groups. PEM prevailed more in 9+ age group children while vitamin B complex deficiency, iron deficiency, fluorosis and morbidity symptoms were more in 10+, 11+, 13+ and 14+ age groups, respectively.

Mishtra and Pande (1996) studied the deficiency disorders in 608 working children in Mirzapur (U.P.). The results of the study illustrated that about 56 per cent of the child workers under study suffered from cracks on the lips or soar mouth, 22.24 per cent suffered from dental caries, about 35 per cent suffered from cough and cold, stomach pain and cholera. About 21.76 per cent child labourers were victims of dispigmented hair, bleeding gums and ulcers on their skin and scabies. Some of the subjects also suffered from skin diseases, jaundice and TB.

Prevalence of nutrient deficiency disorders among the girl child labourers was studied by More (1998). Out of 300 selected female child workers 12.66 per cent workers suffered from PEM while 6.66 per cent children showed signs and symptoms of vitamin B-complex deficiency. Another study by Patil (2000) on nutritional deficiencies among 100 child workers from Parbhani was under taken. It was evidenced that iron deficiency was the most prevalent deficiency disorder (74%) followed by vitamin C deficiency (53%) and PEM (4%).

The documented studies on nutrient deficiency disorders on the child labourers depicted that working children suffered from various nutrient deficiencies. However the available literature on this topic is very scanty.
2.7 Dietary Intake of Child Labourers

Krishnakumari (1985) pointed out that a very small percentage of child workers (11%) especially performing domestic work were given food by their employers while 89 per cent workers carried food from their own houses. In another study conducted on 73 child workers from Bombay, Mehta et al., (1985) observed that 67.1 per cent child workers from Matunga Labourer Camp in Bombay completely depended on their employer for all their meals, 2.7 per cent subjects were dependent for one meal whereas, 30.1 per cent of children brought food from home. The child workers who received all the meals from employers, mainly worked in hotels or canteens and got food in adequate amount at least 3-4 times a day including tea and occasionally snacks with tea. Study further inferred that though majority of children were non vegetarian, only 46.6 per cent had occasional access to non vegetarian food.

In the study conducted by Singh and Verma, (1987) it was inferred that 7.5 per cent of child labourers in agriculture in Nainital district were provided with free breakfast facility. Similar observations were made when Mishra and Mohpatra studied the child labour in drought prone area of Orissa State, in 1991. Sample comprised of 95 boys and 55 girls. The results revealed that the children working in hotels and household workers were being benefited in terms of foods. It was pointed out by KewalRamani (1992) that 41.9 per cent child workers were getting the facility of food extended by their employers. Mishra and Mishra (1993) made the similar observations in Cuttack city of Orissa State. Murty (1993) too collected data on food received by the children in the form of perks. The study revealed that 16 per cent girls and 5 per cent boys got tea casually while 15 per cent of each boys and girls were getting it regularly. The boys who worked in hotels or as full time workers were served with food regularly. However, the full time girl servants got food regularly only in the morning as they were not staying at work place in the night. Vigil Group of Bangalore (1995) noticed that children working in some factories and establishments were provided with food. However, a majority of children had to
make their own arrangement for food. While Mohd. Mustafa and Sharma (1996) observed that in Delhi children working in tea shops and domestic workers were provided with food facility from the employers.

Tripathi (1991) while studying the commonly consumed foods by tribal child labourers indicated that the subjects generally consumed ragi, arrowroot, maize, suan, mango seeds, rice, kandula, cashew, sweet potato, country bean, jack fruits, manual ambushed and several roots. The diet was found to be far from satisfaction. The scheduled caste tribal child workers were found to eat meat of buffaloes and pigs. Alcohol was the regular feature of their diet.

It was noticed that three meal pattern was followed by Bangalore street child labourers. Out of 1750 selected street child workers from Bangalore, 60 per cent claimed that they had at least two meals and breakfast every day (Reddy, 1992). In 1995 it was evidenced by Karunanithi that 95 per cent of the working children under study took three meals per day. The rice was the staple food for them.

From Parbhani district of Marathwada region Deshpande (1996) reported that foods habits of the child labourers from Parbhani were specific. She observed that 84.8 per cent subjects were non vegetarian 99 per cent child workers were eating suits and 84 per cent children were consuming fresh food. Fasting on specific days was practised by 42.4 per cent workers. Another study from Parbhani on food consumption pattern of female child workers (More, 1998) indicated that majority (69.32%) of subjects were non vegetarian while only 30.68 per cent working girls were vegetarian. Tea was consumed as early morning beverage by 98 per cent of working children. Previous day's left over food was used in breakfast. Lunch and dinner consisted of jowar roti or chapati, rice or biryani, tur or green gram or lentil dal or any subji. Only 25 per cent subjects were taking breakfast regularly while lunch and dinner was taken by 95 and 100 per cent working girls, respectively. Further, it was reported that 61 per cent child labourers consumed fruits and 73 per cent children were eating left over food. The fasting for religious reason was followed by 36.6 per cent girl workers. Patil (2000) also conducted a study on
food consumption pattern of both, male and female child workers, engaged in various occupations in Parbhani. The findings inferred that 98 per cent children under study had habit of taking tea as early morning beverage. Breakfast and lunch was taken by 98 per cent children regularly. However dinner was taken by all 100 per cent subjects every day. The common items included in all the three meals of the day were almost same as chapati or jowar roti or rice with only cooked dal or any subji or green chilli chutney or besan. Further scrutiny of data indicted that all the subjects ate seasonal fruits while 60 per cent children ate street foods.

2.8 Health Hazards Experienced by Child Labourers

Bhargava (1985) while studying on health situation of working children observed that children working in bidi industry showed very high incidence of anaemia and chronic bronchitis. Bangle industry child workers had bronchitis, asthma, tuberculosis and eye diseases. Child labourers in carpet weaving industry were also prone to respiratory infections, poisoning due to colouring dyes and deformities of the hand. Zari embroidery work, stone polishing and diamond cutting were associated with eye diseases. It was further reported that the jobs, which compelled to sit or work in a particular position, resulted in bad posture, deformities of the spine and the limbs leading to disabilities and handicaps. Mehta (1985) reported that in bidi industries children were exposed continuously to tobacco and unhealthy surrounding which led to bronchitis, asthma, tuberculosis and cancer. Primary tuberculosis and asthma was noticed in 60 per cent of the children. The child workers in carpet industry suffered from asthma, tuberculosis and diseases of lungs. Glass bangle manufacturing units exposed the child labourers to excess furnace heat due to which they suffered from eye diseases. The trade like diamond cutting and polishing permanently damaged the respiratory system and eyes. During rag collection children were continuously exposed to foul air and infective bacteria which made them suffer from tuberculosis and tetanus.

It was evidenced that Mehta et al., (1985) 40 out of 73 working children
in Matunga Labourer Camp in Bombay had at least one or more health complaints. The most common complaint was cough. The job related problems were seen in 6 children. The worker in a printing press who also carried heavy weights and helped in pushing, binding, etc showed pigmentation while remaining 5 children who had roughened skin were working in hotels. It was claimed that the constant contact with water and soap while washing cup saucers and washing and mopping the floor might be reason of problem.

Krishnakumari (1985) conducted a study on child labour in Bangalore City. From the slums of Bangalore 1255 households were selected, which contributed 809 children in the age group of 0-14 years. Only 32 per cent workers had sickness of various kinds and they felt that health problems were due to occupational hazards. While studying the specific health problems of working children. Shah (1985) pointed out that hard labour, severe malnutrition, anaemia, fatigue and inadequate sleep made the children susceptible to infectious diseases like T.B. In some industries children were exposed to radiation which might cause long-term effects such as sterility or leukaemia. Contact dermatitis was another health hazard in children working in industries where chemicals and irritants were used. Children working in brick kilns, quarries, asbestos factories and coal mines for a longer period of time developed silicosis, asbestosis and pneumoconiosis of lungs. Girls who spent the whole day on narrow planks while weaving the carpets were unable to move and adopted squatting posture. The eyesight of the young girls of 12-15 years old was damaged within a period of 5-8 years by joining very fine wires who worked for 12-14 hours a day in micro computer factories.

Child pledging in the beedi industries among migrant workers was studied by Mathivanaanan and Arasu in 1989 in Tamil Nadu state. Study revealed that of the 25 selected pledged children, many suffered from backache, hip pain and nervousness. Malnutrition, anaemia, eye infection and stunted growth were the other health problems observed among them.

George (1990) stated in book "Child labour and child work" that about 9
per cent of employees in beedi industries between the ages 10-14 years suffered from symptoms of chronic bronchitis and 10 per cent of the boys were anaemic. The high incidence of tuberculosis among beedi employers was noticed. The reasons indicated for this were the employment at an young age, long hours of employment, excessive over crowding and the peculiar posture adopted while on the job, which was detrimental to the healthy development of the respiratory organs of the child. The child workers working in glass bangle industry and handloom carpet weaving industry also suffered from asthma, bronchitis and many eye diseases. Children employed in Zari making and embroidery industry aged between 8 to 15 years of age and suffered from various forms of eye diseases due to over crowded working rooms with poor lighting and ventilation.

A survey of 26 small industries in Lahore City of Pakistan showed that all the establishments employed children under 15 year age who faced several hazards of health. The major health problems included respiratory diseases such as pneumonia, T.B., silicosis, ophthalmic disorders, mental retardation, damage to various body organs and cancer. The study further evidenced that the brick making children suffered from 50 per cent more chronic diseases, especially chest infections than their counterparts in neighbouring villages. Other major sector which comprised the large work force (minimum of 1 million) was carpet knitting Industry (Marie, 1990).

Pati and Swain (1991) conducted a study on 125 male working children selected from garages, small shops and canteen and restaurants. The study revealed that the health problems ranged from gastrointestinal disorders to various skin diseases. A study was conducted by Child Labourer Cell (1992) on child labourer in the brassware Industry of Muradabad with objectives of understanding the nature of the work and the reasons for child employment. Burns, TB and other respiratory problems due to inhalation of gases and dust. Poor nutrition and bad working conditions were the stated causes of life span reduction of child workers.

Sekar (1992) studied the child labourers working in fireworks industries of Sivakasi in Tamilnadu State. The findings indicated that children were suffering from
cough, sour throat, methaemoglobinemia with bluish skin, dizziness and anaemia as they were working with chemicals like sulphur, ammonium phosphate, manganese, zinc oxide etc. Other diseases observed among child labourers in Sivakasi were tuberculosis, malnutrition, gastro intestinal disorders, skin disorders (dermatitis), over exhaustion, burn injuries and water borne diseases.

The child labourers working in roadside tea stalls of Karimnagar were studied by Kanakalah et al., (1993). It was observed that nearly 87.50 per cent child workers did not get medical aid. Due to lack of hygienic living condition and proper medical care most of the child workers were prone to number of diseases like skin diseases, amoebiosis, etc. The employers neglected majorities of the child workers at the time of illness, which had resulted in retarded physical and mental health of child workers.

Mishra and Mishra (1993) studied 105 child labourers from Cuttack. They observed that most of the children except those in household jobs were to work in unhealthy condition. In hotels and restaurant they worked with fumes and water, in motor garages and workshops they were working with welding irons, in steel shops they had to work with sun and rain. All such conditions were dangerous for their health and might cause skin and other diseases.

Child labourer in diamond industry of Surat City was studied by Operational Research Group of Planning Commission (1993). Overall 502 working boys and 22 working girls were interviewed. As reported by the children, 49.6 per cent did not fall sick since last year while remaining children fallen sick less than three times. The major illnesses were fever (42.5 %) followed by cold and cough (17.7 %), headache (11.5 %) malaria (13.3 %). Typhoid, eye problem, chest pain and leg / body pain, were the other illnesses mentioned by the children. The common problems faced by children while working in factories included long working hours, low wages, exposure to dangerous substances such as chemicals and use of heavy machinery with moving parts. In most of the cases there was total lack of welfare, medical, recreational or educational facilities (Panudda, 1993).

A study based on data collected by Sekar (1993) through unstructured
interviews with 115 child workers and their parents from match industries of villages of Sivakashi Panchayat union and Sivakashi town revealed that among the children below 14 years 15.5 per cent suffered from primary complex, 4.4 per cent from chronic bronchi and 6.7 per cent from pneumonia. In view of the local practising doctors of Sivakashi, Children working in match industries were exposed to chemicals and hence suffered from respiratory diseases and eye infections. The study personnel also observed that the children were seated in the same room where sacks of chemical powder were stored. The doctors expressed that working children suffered mostly from TB, malnutrition, gastrointestinal disorders, skin disorders, over exhaustion, burn injuries, water borne diseases and eye strain.

Singh and Mohnty (1993) while taking an review of dimensions and policy options of child labour in India stated that the children working in match and fire work industries in cramped environments with hazardous chemical and inadequate ventilation were exposed to dreaded and killer diseases like chronic bronchitis, tuberculosis, asthma and anaemia. Jain (1995) studied child labour in urban India and reported that it leads to poor health, makes children susceptible to infectious diseases, creates bone lesions and postural deformity, leads to loss of eye sight and adversely affects their physical development. They were often exposed to traffic accidents, street violence, and excessive noise in the work place, communicable diseases and toxic substances, which adversely affect their health. Long hours of work in hazardous and unfavourable working conditions disturb the child family and social relationships. Bad working conditions exert a direct negative effect on the physical and mental development of children.

Karunanithi (1995) conducted a study on 500 children engaged in beedi works in Tamil Nadu State. The findings revealed that nearly half of the children had respiratory diseases such as cold, cough and TB. One-fifth subjects suffered from headache and 15 per cent of them had backache and anaemia. Less than five per cent of them had skin disease. SACCS (1995) had revealed that the major health hazards were asthma, bronchitis and tuberculosis in shoeshine boys, eye
diseases in embroidery workers, scabies, tetanus and asthma in rag pickers, skin
diseases, malaria or typhoid in children working in restaurants or dhabas, fatal
accidents in scooter mechanic boys, silicosis and diarrhoea in brick kiln workers. Vigil
group of Bangalore (1995) worked on child labourer in Kanyakumari district. The
noticed physical problems in working children were headache, chest and back pain,
severe cold, cuts and wounds, pain in the limb, T.B and asthma.

Singh (1996) while studying the socio-economic perspectives and intervention
strategies of the child rag pickers of Kurukshetra observed that the rag picking
children suffered from occupational hazards. Out of the 145 rag pickers, 33.33 per
cent had injuries and pain in their joints and fingers, 25.55 per cent suffered from
headache, another 20.67 per cent had eye pain, 13.33 per cent suffered from skin
infection and the rest 7.33 per cent had regular stomach pain. The 80 per cent
children did not take treatment except putting kerosene on cuts and injuries on the
body. However, no permanent disability was noticed. The study further revealed
that in opinion of parents 60 per cent children showed positive behavioural change in
the habits such as responsible and bearing adult behaviour. While, 30 per cent
parents expressed about the negative behaviour of children such as use of abusive
language, smoking, drinking and gambling too.

Study carried out on assessment of nutritional and health status of female
child labourers from Parbhani city by More in 1998 revealed that about 62 % of
working girl children reported pain in finger joints and knee joints, headache and
backache. A study on child labourer in beedi industry of Nizambad district of Andhra
Pradesh was conducted by Pande (1998). A sample of 1000 households was selected
targeting the child labourer aged 6 to 15 years. There was found to be good
awareness regarding dangers of beedi making among child labourers. Majority of the
child workers (90.2 %) said that beedi making leads to disease and only 0.6 % said
that it made no difference. Most of the child workers had headache, giddiness,
body ache, pain in the joint, burning, itching in the eyes and skin rashes were the ill
effects of beedi making on health. A study on child workers in sports goods industry
by V.V. Giri NLI, New Delhi (1998) indicated that almost 60 per cent of the studied
children suffered from joint pain and backache.

Fyfe (1999) studied the child labour in agriculture. It was stated that the risks
faced by children were death from pesticides, poisoning, facing poisonous snakes
and insects, cut themselves on tough stems and on the tools they used. Further
scrutiny of data indicated that child workers also suffered from skin, eye, respiratory
or nervous problems due to exposure to agro-chemicals, cough and pneumonia due
to damp field and cold weather, injured growing spine due to frequent heavy lifting.

2.9 Supplementation of Iron-Folic Acid for Prevention of Anaemia

There are several approaches to assess iron status of an individual or of a
population. Measurement of haemoglobin concentration provides information about
quality of blood. Therefore, it is agreed internationally that blood haemoglobin
concentration serves as a key indicator for anaemia (INACG, 1977).

Among child labourers, iron deficiency may be a limiting factor for growth. The
results of various studies pointed out that iron is an essential element for skeletal growth.
Hence the deficiency of iron during adolescence may limit the growth spurts. Labour
during growing age may elevate the iron requirement in addition to growth demands. The
children with such increased demands and with marginal or deficit intake will suffer from
anaemia (Naeye, 1981). The prevalence of anaemia was reported to be 63.8 per cent in
girls of 6-14 year age group and 73.9 per cent in the 15-24 year female subjects in a study
conducted by Datta et al., (1982).

The effect of iron supplement on blood iron levels and physical growth in 119 rural
Indonesian children was assessed by Chwang et al., (1988). Haematological,
anthropometric and morbidity data were collected before and after treatment for 12
weeks. Before supplementation anaemia subjects were smaller and had higher morbidity
than normal subjects. Treatment resulted in significant improvement in the haematological 
status, growth velocity and level of morbidity of the anaemic subjects.

Iron status was assessed in a representative sample of 302 children and 
adolescents in Spain by Sales et al., (1990). The findings indicated that prevalence 
of anaemia was 8.2 percent in 2-5 year old, 1.7 per cent in 6-9 year old and 3.3 per 
cent in 13-16 year old children. The prevalence of anaemia ranged from 38-72 per 
cent in India. The reported percentages for the 6-14 year age group of males and 
females respectively were 55 and 65.3 at Hyderabad, 72.4 and 69.4 at Delhi and 
96.1 and 97 at Calcutta (Narsingarao, 1991). Iron deficiency and iron deficiency 
aemia are problems in both developed and developing countries affecting about 
2150 million people worldwide. In many countries where the prevalence of anaemia 
is below 50 per cent, there are an equal or greater number of people who are iron 
studied 117 children in the age group, living under similar environmental and socio­ 
economic conditions. They observed that anaemic children had poorer growth status 
as indicated by lower body weight, height and weight for age. Supplementation of 40 
mg of iron per day improved their haemoglobin level as well as their growth as 
indicated by their weight gain. Reddy (1993) while studying child nutrition in India 
mentioned that according to WHO the universal iron-folate supplementation should 
be implemented for children and adolescents because their adult stature is 
determined by nutritional status during childhood.

Gross et al., (1994) conducted a study on treatment of anaemia with iron and 
folic acid supplementation. About 42 women factory workers received 60-mg iron 
and 250 ug of folic acid daily. Haemoglobin concentration of the group-receiving 
supplement increased upto 16 g/dl. Schultink et al., (1995) selected anaemic children 
and supplemented them with 30 mg of iron daily for 8 weeks. At the end of the 
study period haemoglobin, serum ferritin and protoporphyrin were increased 
significantly. UNICEF-WHO joint committee on health policy (1995) stated that iron 
supplementation is an important strategy for preventing and controlling iron 
deficiency anaemia in developing countries. Patil (2000) conducted a study
on iron folic acid supplementation to child workers from Parbhani City. The supplement was given daily for 2.5 months to working children. Impact of supplementation indicated that blood haemoglobin content of experimental group working children was increased from 9.54 g per cent to 11.99 g per cent.

It can be concluded from above cited literature that iron folic acid supplementation helped to elevate blood haemoglobin content of the individuals.

In all, review of the existing literature indicated that lot of work has been done on the social aspects and economic status of child labourers. It has to be noted that very few workers had studied the nutritional status with special reference to anthropometric measurements, diet pattern, dietary intake and nutrient deficiency disorders. There was hardly any study on this aspect i.e. studies on child labour in Marathwada region.