PREVALENCE OF GIRL CHILD LABOUR IN THE INDIAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY – A STUDY ON THE TEXTILE & GARMENT CLUSTERS IN TAMIL NADU AND KARNATAKA

A REPORT SUBMITTED TO

THE NATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS COMMISSION, INDIA

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The satisfaction and euphoria that accompany the successful completion of any work would be incomplete without mentioning the people who made it possible with their constant guidance, support and encouragement.

This study was carried out with the financial support of the National Human Rights Commission, India and conducted by Institute of Public Enterprise, Hyderabad.

I express my heartfelt thanks and acknowledgements to the Officers, and officials in the research wing of NHRC, for their continued support and guidance throughout the project.

I am thankful to Prof Srinivasa Murthy, Director, IPE, for his kind support and encouragement in the successful completion of the project. My grateful acknowledgements to Prof R K Mishra, former Director, IPE, for encouraging me to write a proposal on a topic which is close to my heart.

I am extremely thankful to the former District Collector of Coimbatore, Mr Raja Mani, for extending all the necessary help in facilitating interaction with the industry heads.

My sincere thanks to the President of the South India Textile Mills Association, President of Tirupur Export Association, SITRA, Coimbatore, South India Small Textile Mills Association, and Dodballapur Textile Companies for their time and valuable inputs.

I am thankful to the data enumerators who actively helped me in collecting primary data and Mr Marudhachalam for his support in data analysis.

Special thanks to Ms Amrita Sharma for extending all the necessary support in drafting the report. I thank all the respondents for their valuable inputs.

I thank my family for the kind support extended throughout the project.

Finally, my gratitude to God for giving me strength, patience, and guidance in the successful completion of the report.

DISCLAIMER

The Institute of Public Enterprise, Hyderabad, has received the financial assistance under the Research Scheme of National Human Rights Commission, India to prepare this report. While due care has been exercised to prepare the report using the data from various sources, NHRC does not confirm the authenticity of data and accuracy of the methodology to prepare the report. NHRC shall not be held responsible for findings or opinions expressed in the document. This responsibility completely rests with Institute of Public Enterprise, Hyderabad.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AEPC - Apparel Export Promotion Council

ANOVA –Analysis of Variance

CAGR – Compound Annual Growth Rate
CALL – Campaign Against Child Labour
COVID – 19 – Corona Virus Disease of 2019
CPCR – Commission for Protection of Child Rights
DCPO – District Child Protection Officer
EO – Export Oriented
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
GI – Geographical Indication
ILO – International Labor Organization
LMIC – Low-Middle Income Countries
MEPZ – Madras Export Processing Zone
MFA – Multi-Fiber Arrangement
NCPCR – National Commission for Protection of Child Rights
OECD – Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PGFTU – Palestinian General Federation of Trade Unions
PLI – Production-Linked Incentive
RMG – Ready Made Garments
SDG – Sustainable Development Goals
SME – Small and Medium Enterprise
SOMO – StichtingOnderzoekMultinationaleOndernemingenb
SSI – Small Scale Industries
UNDP – United Nations Development Program
UNICEF – United Nations Child's Fund
WIETA – Wine and Agriculture Ethical Trade Association

LIST OF TABLES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The garment industry in India is an ever-growing business. It is as diverse and complex as the plurality of its cultures, and it combines with equal equanimity this immense diversity into a cohesive whole. With the advent of hyper-consumerism and unmitigated globalization, the demands and trends within the fashion and garment industries have seen a dramatic shift in the methods of production and supply. This has called for thrifty practices within the labour supply across the countries that provide informal labour and has given way to un-scrutinized forms of child labour. Child labour has been prohibited in most countries and criminalized in others. Yet, unbeknown to the top management, casual, petty, and unlisted ways of child labour exist. Some practices, owing to prolonged exposure, are severely damaging to the child's health, especially in the long run. The Government of India has also prohibited all forms of child labour (apart from those in the entertainment and family businesses), yet it continues to persist. There have been numerous academic evidence and policy support for mitigating this issue down to the grassroots levels, but it continues to function, albeit in different forms.

This report attempts to find out the employment practices of labour in the textile & garment sector in the areas of Tirupur, Coimbatore, Mysuru and Bangalore in the southern states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. These regions have a long-standing presence in the textile and garment industry and hence larger evidence of informal labour that possibly includes child labour and specifically girl child labour. The report identifies the employment and working conditions of girl child labour in the textile & garment industry in these states in order to unpack the various layers of employment that act as incentives for younger girls to join the workforce. The socio-political climate of the states has evolved to adjust to the economic conditions of the country and the world at large, and thus the presence of coercive measures is not lacking in a potentially profitable industry like this. Therefore, the report also attempts to find whether employees are influenced by any third party like sub-brokers or company representatives in employing girl child labour under exploitative employment schemes.

THE GARMENT INDUSTRY'S ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION

India is the second-largest producer and consumer of textiles and apparel in the world, behind China. Approximately 14% of the world's textile yarn and fibre production comes from India. It is currently the top industry in the nation and is one of the largest manufacturers as well. India's textile market size in 2016 was around US$ 137 billion, which is expected to touch US$ 226 billion market by 2023, growing at a CAGR of 8.7 per cent during 2009-2023. With a total workforce of 45 million, it maintains a key position in the Indian economy as a significant contributor to foreign exchange revenues and the second-largest employment (after agriculture). India's domestic clothing and textile sector generate 7% of industry production, adds 5% to the nation's GDP, and 12% of the country's export earnings. The industry comprises both structured and unorganized sectors, creating massive diversity and acting as a place of potential investments and product export by global brands that seek uniqueness and ingenuity. However, a large portion of the industry is still dependent on old technology and methods of production. This creates hurdles in accessibility and further promotion of textile styles that have been historically symbolic of the expertise and skill acquired in the garment business.

Out of 2049 large and medium textile mills in India, 893 mills are located in Tamil Nadu. The spinning capacity is 14.75 million spindles, with a labour force of about 2.17 lakhs. The cotton and silk mills and handlooms of Tamil Nadu produce some of the finest and most exquisite garments. Karnataka was the first State in the Country to launch the State Textile Policy known as Nuthana Javali Neethi 2013-2018 policy with an objective to achieve Rs 10,000 Crore (USD 1.7 bn) of investment, 5 lakh employment, Rs 1,000 crore (USD 0.17 bn) revenue for the policy period. The State contributes 65 per cent to silk, 12 per cent to wool and 6 per cent to cotton production in the country. Karnataka occupies the 1st position with regard to the number of units registered in 2015-16, under MSMEs, Manufacturing of Wearing Apparel; dressing and Dyeing of Fur. With the implementation of two industrial corridor projects, viz. Chennai Bengaluru Industrial Corridor and the Bengaluru Mumbai Economic Corridor, across the length and breadth of the state, Karnataka is poised to enter a new era in manufacturing glory. The State has abundant raw materials, skill-base and supporting infrastructure that drives the textile industry in the state.

PRESENCE OF CHILD LABOUR IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRY

The increasing reliance and usage of fast fashion have reduced the demand for locally produced garments, those that require immense skill and years of practice. The fast fashion industry depends on mechanical work and is able to employ semi-skilled workers to produce often standardized designs of lower-quality and overpriced garments to supply to wholesalers and retailers. This is where child workers come in: the need to generate income out of every member in a household in order to meet the increasing inflationary trends and pressures push a child into working part-time or full-time for these wholesalers (Phillips et al., 2011). Within the supply chain, these workers come at the lowest rung, often involved in acquiring the raw materials or segregating the useful material from waste. For this, they are paid meagre amounts, and no contracts are drawn up as this is informal wage-based labour which can be just as easily replaced by another worker that needs the income. Thus, in order to gain income and some autonomy, children volunteer to work with small vendors or retailers, avoid attending school and continue along in this pattern of haphazard growth (Holmström, 2015). Children are employed by the apparel and textile industries at various points along the supply chain and in a variety of sectors, from the production of cottonseed, cotton harvesting, and yarn spinning mills to all stages in the cut-make-trim stage. Global brands across varied industries, such as Nestle, Colgate, Dove, Audi, and H&M, have been under the radar for employing child workers in the fields, mines and for doing menial yet tiresome work (Bhaskaran et al 2010). Within India, modern-day hotspots for child labour and trafficking have emerged in parts of Telangana and the neighbouring state of Andhra Pradesh. Some of them were rescued from brick kilns, while others were rescued from domestic servitude (Suresh, 2018). Due to a paucity of schools that offer instruction in local and/or native languages, migrant children eventually join their parents in the workforce. The majority of these kids, who range in age from 12 years old to 17 years old, end up working up to 16 hours a day to support their families on a daily basis. As kids get older, so is their involvement and level of employment. Twenty per cent of all teenagers between the ages of 15 years old and 17 years old work in dangerous professions or industries (Reja, 2017).Since child labour is frequently concealed and underreported, it is challenging to determine its true scope in this country.

Girl child labour occurs as a separately layered phenomenon within child labour. Women have historically been the largest reserve force made available during times of recession or war-like situations (Bhattacharya, 1996). During their prime years, they are employed in factories, kilns, and fields where their skills and dexterities are made use of. Meanwhile, they earn a living wage which acts as a safety net and provides them with some agency. The odds of their wages increasing over the years are minimal. Thus, companies reduce their production costs by reducing wages, employing expendable labour and keep on extracting surplus over the years (Bryant &Joudo, 2021).Similar is the case for younger girls: in a country like India, where marriage is an integral and often non-negotiable part of a woman's life, employment before marriage gives them a sense of independence before being married off into another household where they continue partaking in domestic work with ease. Sometimes they are sent to work post-marriage in order to gain more income for their families (Kabeer, 2001).The age range of 12 - 16 years and 22 - 30 years is therefore crucial, when it comes to their employment. Although more evidently now, girls in the age bracket of 12 - 15 years are not made to do hazardous work, their employment in unfit working and living conditions, and borne out of incentives such as work in exchange for marriage and health expenditures is less than satisfactory and bereft of any real agency. Several reports have come up in recent years of the COVID-19 pandemic where groups of young girls were transported across states and made to work in unhygienic conditions in order to compensate for increasing rate of unemployment (Kumar, 2014).

LEGAL PROVISIONS SURROUNDING CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA

The concept of child labour in India revolves around the fact that a child should engage in work that should not be hazardous to their life in any way and must serve to be fruitful to them so that they can have a good experience in the work fieldSarshar, (2011). The work they indulge in cannot be exploitative or destructive or interfere with their school life, recreational activities, extracurricular events and rest time. If any of the aforementioned takes place, the adolescent is a victim of child labour (Yuliani &Kurniasari, 2018). Seeing as how layered this can get when considering the socio-economic conditions of the larger majority, child labor is understood to the layman to be the participation of a child less than 17 years of age in any economically productive activity with or without compensation, wages or profit; such participation could be physical or

mental or both; the work includes part-time help or unpaid work on the farm, family enterprise, or other economic activity such as cultivation and milk production for sale or domestic consumption(Ramanathan, 2000). What explains Indian policy with regards to eradicating child labor is the absence of both a political alliance outside of the state apparatus and significant internal support for government action inside the state apparatus itself. Despite statements made by politicians, authorities, academics, and social activists, as well as official government announcements, there is little popular support in India for compulsory education or for enforcement of laws banning the employment of children (Bhat, 2009).

COVID - 19 AND INCREASING CHILD LABOUR

The number of children in child labour has risen to 160 million worldwide – an increase of 8.4 million children in the last four years – with millions more at risk due to the impacts of COVID-19, according to a new report by the (International Labour Organization, 2020) and (UNICEF, 2019).The report warns that globally, 9 million additional children are at risk of being pushed into child labour by the end of 2022 as a result of the pandemic. A simulation model shows this number could rise to 46 million if they don't have access to critical social protection coverage. "These children are made to work 14-16 hours a day and if they refuse to work they are beaten. One beating sends the message down the group, which suits the owner," said (Dhananjay Tingal, executive director of the BachpanBachaoAndolan, a children's rights group set up by Kailash Satyarthi).Tingal's organization rescued at least 1,197 children between April and September 2020, across India. In the same period last year, it helped 613.

The prevalence of child labour among vulnerable communities increased by nearly 280 per cent compared to the pre-Covid situation in the state of Tamil Nadu only. The prevalence of child labour in rural areas (14 per cent) is close to three times higher than in urban areas (5 per cent). During the lockdown, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Assam made relaxations to the Factories Act, 1948(Kaur & Byard, 2021).The relaxations consisted of the extension of a factory worker's daily shift from eight to twelve hours a day, six-day week, limited time for rest, reduction in inspections and monitoring by authorities, restricted grievance redress mechanisms and limited collective bargaining through labour unions. This exacerbated the already existing situation of negligence to the children employed in factories(Chopra & Chopra 2015).The

government was unable to lend minimum support during this time in ensuring mid-day meals at schools or dry rations to the school-going students, which further contributed to an increase in child labour(Sultana, 2023). The number of youngsters employed as cheap labour surged as a result of the pandemic, and their parents did nothing to stop it. Child labour is more prevalent among boys than girls at every age (Patel, 2016).However, when household chores performed for at least 21 hours per week are taken into account, the gender gap in child labour narrows. There is the urgency for the state governments to take immediate and accelerated efforts to address this issue, otherwise India including the World countries lose the battle of eliminating all forms of child labour by 2025, a commitment under the sustainable development goals (SDGs)(Nasir et al., 2023).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Child labour is an ancient practice that has prevailed not only in India but worldwide also. There are a number of reasons and complex institutional, social, and legal inter-linkages that have helped it persist. Child labour is an illegal practice all over the world(Morrow & Singh, 2016).It is considered unacceptable for any child to work long hours and/or be involved in tedious, dangerous, heavy, or dirty tasks. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulates that all work done by children under the age of 15 and all hazardous work done by children under the age of 18 are illegal (United Nations, 1989). The children in the age bracket of 6-14 years, those who are out of school, are deemed to be actual or potential child labourers. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as "work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential, and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development" (International Labour Organization 2019). Child labour extends into many activities such as agriculture, manufacturing, mining, and domestic service (i.e., prostitution). Children are forced into child labour because of distinct factors; migration, emergencies, the lack of decent work available, and poverty which is known as the most influencing factor (UNICEF, 2017). But to get a better sense of clarity about the intricacies of the socio-economic and regional histories and its present persistence, child labour has been qualified depending upon the age, type of work, hours of work, and working conditions. UNICEF's standard indicators for child labour include the following:

- *Age 5-11 years: At least 1 hour of economic work or 21 hours of unpaid household services per week*
- *Age 12-14 years: At least 14 hours of economic work or 21 hours of unpaid domestic services per week*
- *Ages 15-17 years: At least 43 hours of economic work or unpaid domestic services per week.* (Srivastava, 2019)

In the Constitution of India, the Child and Adolescent labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act of 1986, Part I, Clause 2, a "child" means a person who has not completed his fourteenth year of

age or such age as may be specified in the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 (35 of 2009), whichever is more; and an “adolescent” means a person who has completed his fourteenth year of age but has not completed his eighteenth year(Naidu & Ramaiah,2006).

The Act lays down measures to prohibit the employment of a person who has not completed his fourteenth year of age in occupations and processes enlisted in Part A and B of the Schedule of the Act, procedures for regulating working conditions, enhanced penalties in cases of violations and obligations on the part of employers to index the workforce employed. Thus, it aims to check not just the act of child labour in a general form of existence but shifts the responsibility onto the employer, whosoever it may be.

1.1 GLOBAL PERSISTENCE OF CHILD LABOUR

According to the International Labor Organization, nearly eleven percent of the global child population is engaged in some form of work, translating to about 250 million children between the ages of five and fourteen, with approximately 120 million of them employed full-time (International Labour Organization, 2020). Work is scattered across factories, informal businesses, agriculture, and homes, often yielding low pay. Evidence from various geographic regions and production sectors has shown that this fragmentation is influenced by regional history and deep-seated structural differences, including those based on gender, caste, ethnicity, and geographic origin. Mobility within these sectors demonstrates an increasing reliance on informal institutions to maintain labor practices (Mezadri, 2010).

However, the narrative around child labor is complex and contested. Some international academicians criticize the United Nations convention that bans child labor, arguing that it overlooks the nuanced realities of families and economies in which child labor provides critical support.Posits that under certain conditions, child labor can have positive effects, such as teaching responsibility and contributing to family income (Thorsen, 2015).

Further complicating the issue, Basu and Van (1998) introduced an economic model suggesting that child labor bans might not effectively decrease child labor if families rely on their children's

income for survival. They argue for conditional cash transfers to families as a more effective strategy to reduce child labor.

In contrast, studies focused on the long-term impacts of child labor consistently highlight its detrimental effects on educational attainment, health, and future earning potential, suggesting that the costs of child labor far outweigh any short-term benefits (Edmonds &Pavcnik, 2005; UNICEF, 2019).

"For some children it is a question of rational economics. There is a wealth of evidence demonstrating that work does not automatically end a childhood and can often have positive effects, such as creating a sense of community".

Rational economics has not ensured decent standards of work though, and children in all sorts of industries are continually exploited, and these situations, overlooked. Withholding identity certificates of underage children creates a further deprivation of liberty and a slavery situation; which shows that trafficking also, does exist(Sharma, 2006).Child labor is employed in the production processes of palm oil by global companies such as Kit Kat, Colgate, and Dove. Wilmar, a leading palm oil company, has been reported to employ children to perform very hard physical labor in refineries in Indonesia (Amnesty International, 2016). Similarly, in another part of the world, children as young as 10 years old work in factories in Bangladesh. In Bangladesh's clothing manufacturing industry, two-thirds of workers from slum areas are employed full-time (Clean Clothes Campaign, 2020). Despite a history of poor safety records, this industry remains one of the world's largest sectors for garment production and supply. These children often work in the supply chains of factories in the formal sector, even though they may not be directly employed in the larger factories. Textile manufacturing components are often outsourced from large factories to small workshops, which may be under- or non-existent in government oversight, especially in countries with developing markets (International Labour Organization, 2018).

Latest research and media center highlights that Madagascar's vanilla supply chain keeps several farmers and families trapped in a cycle of exploitation, poverty, and child labor. The hard work required to grow vanilla and the low price paid to farmers for pods leave many children in Madagascar's Sava region working as laborers (Danwatch, 2019). "The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that there are 20,000 children working in the Madagascan vanilla

trade, most of them in the Sava region. The country has ratified the International Child Labour Convention and set the minimum working age at 15, but the ILO says there are 2 million children aged 5 to 17 working in all forms of work on the island. Only 16 of the 86 child labor committees proposed by the government have been established in the region" (International Labour Organization, 2020).

Furthermore, the Swedish fashion chain H&M has been linked to garment factories in Myanmar, where children as young as 14 years old work more than 12 hours a day (Business & Human Rights Resource Centre, 2017). A significant portion of the gold mined by child labourers is smuggled across the country's porous borders and mixed with official export gold before being sold on international markets. Despite the fact that Uganda does not have a large gold mining sector, there is a booming illegal gold trade where up to "30% of gold miners are youngsters," (Schipper et al., 2016).

In Indonesia, the fifth-largest producer of tobacco in the world, thousands of children continue to labor in tobacco fields despite local and international regulations prohibiting minors from working such fields(Manning, 2000). However, they typically do so to support their families financially. In four of Indonesia's tobacco-growing districts, children were questioned for side-effects consistent with severe nicotine poisoning, which occurs when nicotine is absorbed into the body while handling tobacco and may have long-term detrimental consequences on children's brain and physical development (Priyambada et al. 2005).Symptoms included vomiting, nausea, headaches, and dizziness. Children were also found to be regularly exposed to pesticides, fertilizers, and other toxic agents without receiving proper protection, in addition to nicotine poisoning (Human Rights, 2018).

Some of the largest automakers in the world, including Vauxhall, BMW, Volkswagen, and Audi, have initiated investigations into their paint supply chains due to findings that some of their suppliers were directly "connected to illegal mines in India where child labor and debt bondage are prevalent" (Kelly, 2019). Campaigners also claim that the chocolate sector is still plagued by child labor. A 2001 deal within the chocolate industry committed to ending child labor, with the largest cocoa and chocolate firms in the world, Nestlé, Mars Wrigley, and Mondelez, all members of the World Cocoa Foundation, a trade association that lent its support to the deal.

However, the protocol's objectives were changed and postponed in 2005 and 2008. The worst kinds of child labor in the West African cocoa industry were to be reduced by 70% by 2020, but this goal was changed in 2010 and was missed (Whoriskey & Siegel, 2019).

According to Amnesty International (2016), cobalt used in cellphones is mined in the Democratic Republic of the Congo by children as young as seven years old working in hazardous conditions. The human rights organization reported that cobalt used in lithium batteries sold to 16 international companies could be connected to mines where both adults and children were forced to labor in hazardous conditions for $1 per day while also being subjected to assault, extortion, and intimidation.

In the vegetable fields of Lebanon's Bekaa Valley, thousands of Syrian children now work as farm laborers for $8 (£5.50) per day for 10 hours of work. Many children dropped out of school to support their families (BBC News, 2020). According to experts' estimates in Nepal, up to 28,000 children are working in brick kilns, particularly in poor conditions. Half of them are under the age of 14 years (International Labour Organization, 2018).

Over half of the nearly 168 million children who work as youngsters, according to the International Labour Organization, do work in risky situations.Thus, the production of commonplace things like jewelry, smartphones, tea, and chocolate involves nearly 168 million child workers around the world. Despite global and even national norms condemning and mostly banning hazardous child labor, the dire conditions of poverty and unemployment force children into labor, with parents or guardians standing by helplessly(International Labour Organization, 2017).

1.2 NATIONAL TRENDS OF CHILD LABOUR

The prevalence of child labor in India, as well as in other developing countries, represents a grave violation of children's rights and a significant barrier to their education and development. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), millions of children worldwide are engaged in labor that is often hazardous and exploitative (International Labour Organization, 2021).

Child Labor in India: A Closer Look

In India, child labor is deeply entrenched in the fabric of its rural and urban economies. Studies have identified the states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, and Maharashtra as the regions with the highest concentration of child laborers (Save the Children, 2016). This geographical distribution highlights the regional disparities in economic development and education access within the country(Bajaj, 2019). The exploitation of children in the textile and garment industry is a glaring example of systemic issues facilitating child labor. Children are employed in a variety of roles that often expose them to harmful conditions, not only in factory settings but also in home-based workshops where oversight is minimal (Human Rights, 2020).

The issue of child labor is not unique to India. Uzbekistan, China, Bangladesh, Egypt, Thailand, and Pakistan also contribute significantly to the global supply of cheap labor, which involves children, particularly in the textile and garment industry (UNICEF, 2021).

A critical challenge in combating child labor is the lack of accurate data due to underreporting and the hidden nature of this labor in informal sectors (International Labour Organization, 2021). Efforts to combat child labor must include improving access to education and strengthening labor laws and their enforcement (Kumar, 2018).

Child labor remains a formidable challenge, with far-reaching implications for children's rights, education, and societal development. The plight of child laborers calls for concerted efforts from governments, civil society, international organizations, and the private sector (United Nations, 2019).

1.3 LOOKING FOR SOLUTIONS

Addressing the complex and persistent issue of child labor requires an understanding of its multifaceted causes and the development of multi-dimensional policy approaches to mitigate these causes effectively. The Center for Research on Multinational Corporations (Somo,2014) has identified several key factors contributing to the persistence of child labor, including flawed company audits, the rise of unauthorized subcontracting driven by the demands of the fast fashion industry, modern forms of slavery, poverty, exploitative financial measures, and inadequate legal frameworks for the rehabilitation of child laborers (Somo,2014).

The issue of child labor is particularly pressing in developing countries, where exploitation of children and young women is rampant. In India, the garment industry serves as a prime example of how economic incentives aimed at boosting growth can inadvertently perpetuate child labor. Despite the existence of laws and regulations aimed at curbing child labor, the reliance on informal labor, including women and children, remains a significant challenge (International Labour Organization, 2021).

To effectively tackle child labor, a multi-dimensional policy approach is needed. This approach should address the economic, social, and legal dimensions of child labor, incorporating both preventive measures and rehabilitation strategies. Key components of such an approach include:

- Strengthening Auditing Processes: Ensuring accurate and transparent audits of companies and manufacturing plants to identify and rectify instances of child labor (Clean Clothes Campaign).

- Regulating Subcontracting: Implementing stricter regulations on subcontracting practices to prevent unauthorized subcontracting that contributes to childlabor (Fashion Revolution).

- Combating Modern Slavery: Developing targeted interventions to address various forms of modern slavery, including sex trafficking, forced labor, and domestic servitude, that contribute to child labor (Anti-Slavery International, 2010).

- Addressing Poverty: Implementing economic policies and social welfare programs aimed at reducing poverty, which is a root cause of child labor (World Bank,2012).

- Enhancing Legal Frameworks: Strengthening legal and regulatory frameworks to support the exit of children from bonded labor and facilitate their rehabilitation into society (UNICEF), 2021).

- Promoting Education: Investing in education and vocational training programs to provide children and young women with alternatives to labor and pathways to upward mobility (Education International, 2007).

In conclusion, the persistence of child labor requires concerted efforts from governments, international organizations, civil society, and the private sector. By adopting a comprehensive policy approach that addresses the root causes of child labor and provides viable alternatives, it is possible to make significant progress toward eradicating this global issue.

1.4 OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

The objectives and scope of study are listed as follows:

- To find out the employment practices of labour in the textile & garment sector in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka
- To identify employment and work conditions of girl child labour in the textile & garment industry in Karnataka and Tamil Nadu
- To find out whether employees are being influenced by any third party like sub-brokers, company's representatives in employing girl child labour under exploitative employment schemes.

Research Design and Methodology

This study was based on primary and secondary sources. Secondary data was obtained for some aspects of the study. Primary data was collected to obtain data pertaining to prevalence of girl child labour and employment practices in the textile & garment sector, in following cities from Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. An Interview Schedule was used by the researcher to collect data.

Secondary Data

Secondary data was obtained from the published sources such as Newspapers, Government reports, books, articles etc. pertaining to the subject. Online databases such as JSTOR, Proquest, and EBSCO were also referred to collect data.

Sampling Design

Simple random sampling method was used for the study. The areas of study were Coimbatore, Tirupur, in Tamil Nadu and Bangalore and Mysore in Karnataka. The cities identified for the study have a large number of textile and garment companies giving employment opportunities to millions of people. Coimbatore is considered as the Manchester of south India, Tirupur is considered as the knitwear capital of India, Bangalore and Mysore have a large number of textile garment companies and hence the above-mentioned cities were chosen for the study. As the study was to check the prevalence of girl child labour and employment practices in the textile sector in the textiles and garment sector the survey was conducted only with female textile workers. Nearly 400 female respondents were interviewed in each of the four cities.

Tamil Nadu

In the state of Tamil Nadu, a total of 720 female respondents were interviewed and out of which 149 respondents belong to the age group of 14-16 and 367 belong to the age group of 16-18 and 204 respondents in the 18 or more category. The researcher interviewed a few respondents in the age group of 18 or more to check the number years of employment of the respondent to indirectly ascertain whether they were employed as child labour during the time of employment.

Karnataka

In the state of Karnataka, a total of 790 female respondents were interviewed and out of which 87 respondents belong to the age group of 12-14 and 229 belong to the age group of 14-16 and 314 respondents belong to the age category of 16-18 and 160 respondents in the 18+ category. The researcher interviewed a few respondents in the age group of 18 or more to check the number years of employment of the respondent to indirectly ascertain whether they were employed as child labour during the time of employment.

The researcher also interacted with the industry heads, Presidents of trade association, brokers and parents to understand the perspectives of them.

Statistical Tools for Analysis

The data collected were subjected to statistical tests such as Chi Square test; T test and were used to understand the relationship between the categorical variables. Standard Deviation and ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) were done to understand the significant differences between the different groups.

CHAPTER 2

AN OVERVIEW OF THE INDIAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY

India is the second-largest producer and consumer of textiles and apparel in the world, behind China. Following China and the USA, it ranks third in the world for cotton production. It is currently the top industry in the nation and is one of the largest manufacturers as well. With a total workforce of 45 million, it maintains a key position in the Indian economy as a significant contributor to foreign exchange revenues and the second-largest employment (after agriculture)(Kar, 2015). About 16% of industrial output and 18% of export revenue were contributed in 2009 by the industry. Indian textile industry is responsible for around 8% of the world's rotor capacity and about 24% of the spindle capacity, making it the second-largest contributor behind China (Dixit & Lal, 2019). With a 63% share, it also has the biggest loom capacity, including hand looms. Approximately 14% of the world's textile yarn and fiber production comes from India. Additionally, it is the biggest producer of jute. The nation ranks second in the world for the production of silk, cellulose fiber and yarn, and synthetic fiber and yarn (Prasad et al., 2020). The production of carpets, the use of batiks, the use of textiles, dyeing, spinning, and embroideries, as well as the development of several regional designs and motifs, are other characteristics of the Indian textile industry. India's domestic clothing and textile sector generates 7% of industry production, adds 5% to the nation's GDP, and 12% of the country’s export earnings. Currently, India is the 6th largest exporter of textiles and apparel in the world (Devaraja, 2011).

2.1 STRENGTHS OF THE INDUSTRY

The textile and apparel industry in India is a hugely intricate organisation. There are structured and disorganized sectors, as well as weavers, artisans, and farmers. The sector also employs a broad range of technology, from manual labour through semi-mechanical, mechanical, and very advanced information- and microprocessor-based systems (Devaraja, 2011).

The industry's core strength is its ability to produce a wide variety of yarns and fibers using both natural and synthetic/man-made fibers. In fact, no other nation, including China, can claim to

have a base of textile fibers and yarns as powerful and diverse. A variety of goods can be produced for a range of consumer demands and tastes because to the industry's complex and diversified structure, deep ties to cultural traditions, and multi-fiber raw material foundation (Chandra,1999).The existence of entire value chains, competitive manufacturing costs, a sizable and expanding domestic economy, rising per capita income and higher disposable incomes, an organized retail environment and e-commerce sector, a greater emphasis on textile materials due to growing of end-user industries such as automotive, healthcare, infrastructure, oil and petroleum, and Production-Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme in Man-Made Fiber and Tec are additional drivers of industry growth (Industry Scenario, Textiles and Apparels, Invest India) (Berwal, 2020).

2.2 EVOLUTION AND TRENDS IN THE INDUSTRY

Some of the central locations for the export garment industry in India are in New Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, Mumbai, Bangalore, Cochin, Jaipur, Tirupur, Ludhiana, and Hyderabad. The largest concentrations of manufacturers are in New Delhi, Mumbai, Tirupur, and Kolkata (Desore& Narula,2018). Although it may appear that textiles and garments might be one of India's most promising export industries, Das (2004) argues that there continues to be 'a lack of substantial growth in exports of labour intensive, relatively low technology manufacturers. Similarly, Hirway (2008) provides comparative accounts of the organized and unorganized sectors of the garment industry, noting that most workers are concentrated in the latter, marked by low productivity. In contrast, the capital-intensive organized sector employs fewer workers with high output. There appears to be growth in medium-to-high technology products such as pharmaceuticals, software, and automobiles, which are manufactured by a highly skilled, professional minority. Therefore, in India, there is 'the phenomenon of fairly high rates of growth with very minimal increases in employment' (Das, 2004, also ILO, 2005). India is lagging behind other contemporaries with the threat of price-cutting emerging as a burgeoning reality. Inevitably, a quick fix in a labour surplus economy would be to cut costs by decreasing wages and raising output expectations Das, (2007), Neve (2008) contends that the introduction of payment by garment piece rather than fixed wages has increased demand and hours for workers.

The reduction of protectionism and increased market access to developed countries after the implementation and adoption of the MFA was supposed to lead to an increase in employment in the developing world, but this did not happen. A study by Manoj and Muraleedharan (2016) of the Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) during the study period shows that textile exports, as well as the sub-sector exports, showed a low CAGR in the post-MFA period compared to pre-MFA. Total textile exports also show a low CAGR in the post-MFA period. Even though India could have improved its performance after the quota removal, the present analysis showed that the gains in Indian textiles and clothing exports in the post-MFA era have not been commensurate with its expectation. In the international markets, India faced stiff competition from a host of countries, especially Bangladesh, Vietnam, and China. Indian textile exports have therefore been suffering because raw material industries are facing the pressures of increasing global and domestic inflation (Verma, 2002).This is making the end product expensive by 15-30 percent than other competing markets. Also, the presence of more low-end and low-value-added items in India's export basket also would have affected the competitiveness of Indian textiles in the international market. The absence of globally relevant designing facilities and the failure to provide quality value-added fabrics and garments are also acting as a hindrance for India to move up in the value chain. Further, structural changes intensified exploitative wages and working standards in global factories as manufacturers entered the open international market. Within the Indian export garment industry, the post-MFA regime is marked by a growing informal sector(Kathuria & Bhardwaj 1998). The opportunity to circumvent labour regulations provides a major incentive for business owners to perform the bulk of operations within the unorganized sector. Even in the formalized sector, stringent labour laws can be bypassed, as de facto flexibility is acquired through leveraging contract and casual labour.Anubhai, (1988) even as there is support for eliminating SME monopoly to make way for more broad-based growth and amalgamation of smaller units into large-scale firms that would cater to a diverse range of products, sustain higher employment rates, create demand for skilled labour, and improve literacy levels, promote worker solidarity, social security benefits, and job security, the harsh reality is that these incentives do not match up to the political and economic heavy-lifting that the government would have to endure and bring to fruition.

2.3 THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY OF TAMIL NADU

Since 1870, Tirupur has dominated the textile industry's hub. Today, it is one of India's major garment clusters, directly and indirectly employing more than 3,000,000. It also generates a sizeable volume of international export earnings by contributing over than 50% of the country's exports of cotton knitwear. Local agriculture dominated the state's economy. Large-scale cotton production in the area led to the early creation of a demand for raw (unginned) cotton, laying the groundwork for the rapid expansion of cotton ginning plants. In actuality, Tirupur was essentially a cluster of cotton gins before it changed into a cluster of hosiery and then a cluster of knitwear(Moorthy, 2005).Over time, Tirupur's cotton markets and ramping factories lost market share to comparable hubs that sprang up elsewhere in the nation, but most of those business owners turned to knitting as a means of subsistence. The town of Tirupur reemerged as a significant hub for knitting in South India by the 1940s as a result of a series of strikes that occurred in the knitwear factories in the cities of Salem and Madurai in the late 1930s (Marimuthu, 2012).This number had climbed to 230 by 1961, and the industry served solely the local market until 1970. In 1972, the US and Ghana received the first knitted clothing exports. Tirupur has developed into a significant hub from a minor commercial city in the 1980s. Because of its consistent commercial development and exceptional performance, it has caught the attention of policymakers and businesspeople at the regional and international levels. This is the outcome of the cluster's entrepreneurs taking self-initiative to deal with problems that were impeding their company's growth without waiting for assistance from the government or other external organisations (Marimuthu, & Jessica ,2014).

The Tirupur (and surrounding Tamil Nadu cities) garment export sector became more integrated with international markets in the 1990s. Export orders significantly increased, and this was complemented by an improvement in the industry's technical capacity. This was partly due to a change in the composition of the garments(Jegadees& Fujita 2014).Whereas in the past, the Madras garment industry concentrated on the production and export of cotton shirts, there was now a shift to high-value items (including varieties of nylon fabric as well as new sportswear like padded ski-wear, denim clothing and beach wear).With these changes, the perceptible

seasonality in the industry that existed decades ago had changed. Production activity continues throughout the year now(Kalita, 2019). These changes resulted in changes in both the structure of the industry as well as in labour relations. The starting of the Madras Export Processing Zone (MEPZ) in 1985 generated employment for thousands, and created interlinkages with other industries which generated overall growth in the State.

Jessica & Marimuthu, (2013) cotton and silk mills and handlooms of Tamil Nadu produce some of the finest and most exquisite garments. The Kanjivaram saree, is one such example. The manufacturing process of a saree is complex: it uses a basic pit weaver with a dobby attachment. Designs are created using extra warp yarns. Three shuttles are utilised to weave the sari. The weaver's assistant tends to the left side shuttles as he works just on right side. De Neve,(2003)the body and border of a Kanchipuram Silk Sari are weaved separately before being joined. The border won't come off even if the sari tears because of how tightly the connection is knitted. The Kanjivaram silk sarees stand out from the competition due to this. The Kanchipuram saree has become well-known for its intricate work, high quality, and craftsmanship. In 2005, the Indian government designated the Kanchipuram (Kanjivaram) saree as a Geographical Indication (GI).

The Tamil Nadu government recently came up with a new policy whose aim was to achieve greater sustainable growth across the textile chain. Firstly, it allotted 2 per cent interest subsidy for modernizing the spinning mills, and 10 per cent capital subsidy for all new machines in the weaving and garment sector. For roughly 1.06 lakh weavers, free electricity was provided to hand - loom units at a rate of 750 units every two months, along with a discounted power rate. Additionally, support in the amount of Rs. 5 crores was provided for the upskilling of garment employees (Venugopal et al,,2015). A 15% capital credit for the private effluent treatment plant, a 10% capital subsidy for the dyeing, printing, and wet processing sectors, a 5% interest subsidy for the public effluent treatment plant, and a Rs. 1 crore R&D support was granted for effluent treatment facilities. In addition to this, technological textiles projects have been given a 9% capital subsidy and a 6% interest subsidy. Additionally, stamp duty for establishing similar projects would be entirely waived, and support in the amount of Rs. 1 crore would be given for the study of technological textile initiatives abroad. In order to assist small-scale enterprises in increasing their capacity and modernising, the TN Govt has also extended incentives for the

creation of mini textile parks by providing 50% subsidy, or Rs. 2.5 crores per park (Rajasekar & Gurusamy 2010).

2.3 (a) TRENDS AND FACTORS OF GIRL CHILD LABOUR

In March 2021, Campaign Against Child labour (CACL) (Tamil Nadu and Puducherry), a network of NGOs working to protect child rights, conducted a rapid survey in 24 districts of Tamil Nadu. Titled 'Lost Gains - COVID-19 - Reversing the situation of child labour', it showed that the prevalence of child labour among vulnerable communities increased by nearly 280 per cent compared to the pre-Covid situation. 18 per cent of these working children faced mental, verbal, physical abuse by their employers. 30.8 per cent of the survey's respondents were employed in textile units, where they were made to work for anything between 4 to 12 hours for a minimum daily wage of Rs 100 to Rs 300 (Saha, 2012).Considered a non-hazardous industry, compliance with child labour laws is lax and many teenagers are employed in local units where they don't have to produce proof of age. Age of adolescent children, which should be ascertained using proper documentation like birth certificate or using services of a government dentist, is easily forged (Vidya, 2021).The proportion of working children specifically from the Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribe communities increased three-fold from 28.2 per cent to 79.6 per cent due to the COVID-19 pandemic and the resultant school closures.

Further, the shortage of officers in the nodal agencies limited the checks on and visits to industries. The role of the District Child Protection Officers (DCPO) is crucial for coordinating and implementing child rights and protection activities at district levels. Around 50% of the DCPO positions were vacant across the state, creating a situation of possible mismanagement and disconnect with the ground at a time when the exploitation of children was continually rising (Parvathamma, 2015). The government was also unable to lend minimum support at this time in ensuring mid-day meals or dry rations to the school-going students, which further contributed to an increase in child labour.

Children are frequently used as labourers in the state's western region. The number of youngsters employed as cheap labour surged as a result of the pandemic, and their parents did nothing to

stop it (Gnanaselvam& Joseph, 2018). Given that historically the region had long been home to child labour in firecracker and matchbox industries, the nationwide lockdown and the closing of schools significantly increased forced labour in the Sivakasi region.

2.3 (b) MEASURES RESTRICTING GIRL CHILD LABOUR

Tamil Nadu has been a seat of rampant child labour in nearly all sectors – i) cultivators; ii) agricultural workers; iii) live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, and plantations, orchards, and related activities; iv) mining and quarrying; v) manufacturing, processing, and repair work: (a) domestic sector; (b) apart from domestic sector; vi) construction; vii) trade and commerce; viii) transport, storage, and communication; and (viii) other services; and across age, gender, caste According to Department of labour and Employment figures from 2007, there were 38,461 teenage girls working in 406 cotton mills, although later research by NGOs and other international organisations put the figure at 2,00,000 and 4,00,000(Khair, S. (1996).In the 1980s, child labour often was confined only or predominantly to the match and fireworks industries in Sivakasi (a town in Ramanathapuram district), and in the bidi-making industry in Gudiyatham (a town in North Arcot district). Jayaraj and Subramanian (2002) go against the 'narrow, conservative view of child labour' of official sources who take a child labourer as 'a child who is engaged in 'gainful' employment, viz, a worker who is remunerated in wages or who contributes to the production of an output that is at least partially marketed'. This leaves out of the count children who are not gainfully employed, but are not in school attendance either - children, that is, who may be engaged in unpaid domestic work or in production-related activities the output of which is not marketed. They come up with unique definitions and formula that not only classifies child labour according to various socio-economic groups but also present pertinent findings that lie at the root of the problem in the state of Tamil Nadu (White,1994).

Tamil Nadu is one of India's foremost states in the efforts of establishing social protection programmes and pro-poor policies with a focus on the welfare and advancement of women and children from the most underserved neighbourhoods. The government implemented progressive laws and programmes, including public distribution systems, expanded health, nutrition, and WASH systems, and social security measures(Ali & Khan 2012).Lama, (2022) in line with this,

there are several measures aimed at eradicating child labour in the state. In order to end child labour, which was common in the Kancheepuram silk weaving industry, organisations like Hand in Hand were established in 2002. Since then, the organisation has expanded into numerous programmes, from residence schools to support for higher education. In addition to assisting child and bonded labourers, they also assist school dropouts and kids who have not been enrolled in schools. Several activists including The People's Action for Development have pushed the authorities to increase the age under the Child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, and for free and compulsory education to 18 years, from 14 years. Another striking incident occurred on December 05, 2021 in Coimbatore where a mill manager and his wife (the hostel warden) were arrested for thrashing two women who didn't report to work. (Subburaj, 2021)

2.4 THE INDUSTRY IN KARNATAKA

Bangalore is the main seat of the garment industry of Karnataka. Some of the biggest export houses in the nation are also located there. After Bombay and Delhi, the city is a key place for clothing sourcing. Brand awareness is high in this area, and foreign customers also see a lot of possibilities for the creation of goods with added value (Shaw & Satish 2007).Similar to those in Tamil Nadu, the sector in Bangalore dates back to the British era. In contrast to the common clothing styles that were popular at the time, different outfits and dress materials were required. Modern cotton factories in Bangalore were subsequently developed as a result. In addition to some of those, there were silk manufacturing facilities, which aided in the growth of silk exporters as well. Following Independence in 1947, these factories gradually began to expand to meet the demand for garments from the general public and the neighbourhood market. The business sector began to grow. Bommanahalli and Peenya industrial estates are home to the majority of RMG Industries' plants, a leading producer (López, 2023). The de-reservation strategy encouraged major businesses like Mafthlal and Aravind Mills to enter the market and take up positions, having an indirect impact on the small-scale sector. In and around Bangalore, there are currently roughly 3000 RMG units. The majority of purchasing agencies around the world have set up shops in the city. In addition, Doddaballapur's Apparel Park has begun operating in a significant capacity. RMG units are centred in the cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Bangalore, Chennai, Jaipur, Tirupur, and Ludhiana. The final items produced in Bangalore and other locations differ. RMGs are typically produced for export houses. In the

cluster, there are numerous SSI units that mostly perform job work while supporting SME units like GE, Aravind Fashion, Sonal Holding, and Texport Syndicate. The manufacturing method and technology are the same as those utilised in other regions (Yoganandan, 2015).

The following region is where Bangalore's clothing factories are primarily located: Bommanahalli, Bommasandra, Peenya, Yeswanthpur, and Rajajinagar Industrial Estate and Industrial Town are the first three on the list. The significant goods produced here are; - Ladies: Gents: i. Trousers, ii. Shirts, iii. Coats, iv. T-Shirts. Ladies: i. Jacket, ii. Blouses, iii. Churidar, iv. Petticoats.

Since 1990, the number of RMG units in Bangalore has been steadily increasing. There are currently roughly 900 active exporters and manufacturers of ready-made clothing. In addition to meeting the demands of the home market, these exporters employ roughly 1600 fabricators. For value addition, these units are supported with 50 embroidery units. The overall sales prior to December 2009 amounted approximately Rs. 3050 Crores, according to reports from AEPC. The cluster produces roughly 3500 crores in total, of which only 3000 crore is exported and the remaining are consumed domestically (Devaraja 2011).

Tantri & Sanjukta (2020) karnataka is divided into three primary geographic regions: the coastline region, the hilly Western Ghats region, and the lowlands of the Deccan Apennines. The differences in these regions' demographic and subsequent socio-economic requirements and policies, growth has been unequal in all its industries and developing markets. Karnataka has made investments in social development sectors notably health and education as a result of a remarkable economic growth rate in the past two decades.

Glaeser, (2010) the state's northern region, which is home to many Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and minorities, continues to lag behind on numerous human development metrics and has high rates of child labour, child marriage, and child trafficking. An enormous migration of children and adults from the north region of the state as well as other states are drawn to Bengaluru, Mysuru, as well as other smaller cities due to their rapid urbanisation.

2.4 (a) CHILD LABOUR TRENDS ACROSS KARNATAKA

Karnataka is among the few states that implement decentralization processes as per the 73rd and 74th Amendments of the Constitution. This creates empowerment for its local institutions and communities to participate in development activities. Nevertheless, the 2011 census and figures from the Union labour Department show that there were roughly 2, 49,432 youngsters working as employees in Bangalore. 1.5 lakh children work as slaves in Bangalore, activists claim (Kumar, C., 2014; Times of India 2015) Bangalore is the most female-populated district in the state, followed by Bellary and Raichur. It has about 29,069 girl children. According to the information available, 80 per cent of adolescent labour in India occurs in rural areas. Karnataka, on the other hand, has revealed a discrepancy that indicates urban centres accept child labour to such a greater level. Below are the top 5 districts in Karnataka for employed girls between the ages of 5 and 14. Forty-Five per cent of working girls in the region are distributed across these 5 districts.

States	No. of working girls
Bangalore	29069
Raichur	14705
Bellary	13882
Yadgir	13812
Belgaum	13301

Table 1: The top 5 districts for working girls between 5-14 years in Karnataka

2.4 (b) FACTORS PROMOTING GIRL CHILD LABOUR

Gender specific child labour roles have created a 62.8 per cent presence of girl child workers in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sectors of the state. The arts, leisure, and recreation, home employment, undifferentiated products and services, and allied sectors round out the top five industries with the highest per centage of working girls, accounting for some more than a third (27.9 per cent) of all working girls. According to data from the Census of 2011, the number of

working children in the state has sharply increased by 56 per cent over the past ten years. Girls make up more than 45 per cent of the working-age population in the state, and Bangalore, the capital, has the most working girls overall. (CSR , 2018)

Even though 92% of children of the of 6-17 age group in Karnataka attend schools, there is a sharp drop in the 15-17 years group, especially among girls in rural areas. The number drops down to 62.7 % as compared to their male counterparts (68.6%). In urban areas, attendance of girls and boys in the same group was 77.8% and 74.8%. The attendance slightly drops in lower classes, episodically during the harvest season and local festivals. But Nagasimha G Rao, child rights activist, points out that child labour, child marriage and sibling responsibilities on older school-going girls are major contributors for dropout and decline in attendance (Rao, 2021). This, according to (Kavita &Ratna 2020), another child rights activist is because the present policies criminalize those below 14 years of age and ignore those above 15 years but below the age of 18 years. She believes that as many children in the country are breadwinners, the government should be looking at alternatives for them that would allow them to work in a regulated environment and also go to school. But the lack of evening schools is another hurdle in this race. The Apprenticeship Act in her opinion is a way out. The Child labour Project, launched in 2011, the plea “Campaign against Child labour Karnataka”, was favored by the Supreme Court in 2018 pending 11 years, against the Karnataka Power Transmission Corporation Ltd. Although there is yet to be strict enforcement of this judgement, it is a huge blow to offenders violating the Child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 and Section 24 of the Karnataka Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, 1961/Factories Act, 1948: their power supply would be disconnected altogether (Engineer, 2018).

CHAPTER 3

CHILD LABOUR AND INFORMALITIES

3.1 DEFINING 'CHILD'

Defining child and labour has been a conflict in international laws, mainly because different cultures have their own ways of defining the same. Hasnat (1995) demonstrates how different social groups have diverse definitions of childhood. In some civilizations, it may be crucial to distinguish among adults and children based on how well people fulfil their social obligations. While for others, the transition from childhood to maturity may be slow, making the distinction between the many stages of life all but impossible. Ralte and Mishra, (2019) others may see the loss of infancy as being signaled by bodily traits like puberty or reaching a particular level of strength. India too, with its diverse plurality and history in terms of religion, caste and class has norms of defining and redefining labour from time to time. For instance, in Mizoram, an ethnically cohesive culture, all sorts of employment carried out by kids are not regarded as child labour in accordance with cultural norms. Due to this society's strong ties to cultural norms and traditions, it is not a concern to children's rights when they work with seniors. There is literature that states the positives of setting a minimum working age as a basis for reducing child labour (Edmond, 2014). Family-based businesses—defined as farmlands and firms that don't frequently recruit outside labour—are typically exempt from minimum age requirements. Before a certain age, employment outside of family companies is not permitted (often 12 years of age). Until the age of 14 years or 15 years, while hiring is more widely permitted, it is only permitted in specific sectors and under restricted circumstances like during daylight hours and outside of school hours, with the exception of jobs that are listed on a country's catalogue of high-risk activities, which are forbidden until the age of 17 years (Chavan, 2001).The following is the justification for this:

- Regulation works best when it is integrated with laws requiring children to attend school, and if it is enforced, minimum age legislation can be a beneficial instrument for changing how children work.
- reductions in child labour can be accomplished with minimal impact on family living standards,

- coerced and forced child labourers, although a small share of working children, may benefit the most from minimum age of employment laws, and
- Minimum age regulation may establish new societal norms over time and may provide tools for the legal system to go after gross violators.

3.2 IDENTIFYING TYPES OF CHILD LABOUR

Murshed (2001) helps in identifying the degrees of exploitative child labour. There is bonded labour, which is considered the most exploitative situation for children. It is usually found in small undertakings in the informal or rural sectors. When the children are obligated to work for their employer as part of the family's rent, they are less likely to be able to claim for protection from parents or authorities in case of abuse or violation of rights.

Children work in cottage industries producing carpets, matches, firecrackers, bidis, brassware, diamonds, glass, hosiery, hand-loomed cloth, embroidery, bangles, and traditional handicrafts, often for wages, but also sometimes without wages alongside their parents. On tea plantations, children pluck leaves that they add to their mothers' baskets, and only when they reach the age of twelve or thirteen are they given a basket of their ownBessell,(1999). Children who tend their parents' cattle, fetch water and wood, and prepare meals are not classified as working children, although they are if they do the same work for others. Numerous research also suggest that the female kid bears the most of the home load. In fact, rural communities where children are employed in caring for siblings, cooking, cleaning, fetching, and carrying make up the majority of the population of female working children. Adults are so freed up to engage in more fruitful and lucrative work(Maurya, 2001).

The Indian state of Tamil Nadu's textile and fabric spinning factories are rife with child labour as well. Young Dalit females are either brought in as migrant workers from many other states or are recruited from rural, underdeveloped areas. The promise of a respectable salary and an end-of-contract reward entices employers to hire them on three- to five-year contracts that they can use to pay for their dowry. Subbaraman& Witzke (2016) in actuality, these girls are mistreated and live in appalling conditions, frequently in dormitories run by factories where they have very little mobility. The girls are not permitted to accept visitors or to leave the hostel alone. They frequently aren't even able to call loved ones or friends privately on the phone. According to a survey of 1,638 spinning mill employees, 18% of them were under the age of fifteen when they

first started working there. Sixty per cent of the workers began their employment between the ages of fifteen and eighteen (2012's SOMO, Maid in India, Theuws, Martje). As a result, the peak of a woman's life cycle (15 to 27 years old) is considered taken in by these mills/companies, and when the time comes for a girl to get married, the company sends her off and recruits a younger sister or a cousin in place. Most often these girls work because they want to try and pay for the education of their younger sibling(s).

A contentious form of child labour is apprenticeship (sometimes known as on-the-job training). Children frequently take on apprenticeships as a way to enter the workforce. Apprenticeship is frequently viewed by parents as a practical activity that will provide revenue for the family and teach the child skills that will be helpful for future work chances (Srivastava, 2019). Even while it may be considered a substitute for formal education, apprenticeships frequently offer little in the way of formal education, and in other instances, the overall result ties young people to an extremely exploitative system for an extended length of time. There are several layers to how this plays out, especially in the Indian context where the alternative to formal schooling is viewed with contempt and the suggestion is always to go out and work. But this does not mean that the child is receiving due nourishment and attention so he may flourish at least in the opted field of work (Ramanathan, 2014).

Waged labour, especially in labour-intensive industries and in the informal sector, is usually more exploitative than apprenticing. Although such work may be more lucrative than apprenticeships, it typically differs qualitatively from tasks carried out within domestic businesses. Children are more susceptible in the employer-employee relationship than in a home environment where they can benefit from parental protection, and employers frequently fail to take into account the child's increased vulnerability to physical damage in industrial settings (Naidu, & Ramaiah 2006).The primary method of producing cotton seeds is manual cross pollination, which involves moving pollen from one flower to another. This job frequently employs young children, often girls. Children working in the rural Andhra Pradesh cottonseed industry were reportedly exposed to chemicals often and worked an estimated 12 hours each day without any safety equipment. Even the ability to clean their arms and clothes and potable water were lacking for them. They frequently had headaches, dizziness, and skin or eye irritations after pesticide application (Feeny et al., 2021).

3.3 CHILD LABOUR ACROSS INDIA

Children are trafficked within India for the purposes of forced domestic labour and commercial sexual exploitation. Most labor trafficking occurs domestically, and studies have shown that key hubs for child trafficking are the states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, and Odisha. Children from rural areas of India move to metropolitan areas or are trafficked to work in dangerous circumstances for little to no pay in cottonseed production and spinning mills, among other sectors. In order to settle family obligations owing to lenders and employers, children are additionally put to work as bound workers in industrial facilities and stone quarries (Ghosh, 2009). Typically, children and their families enter debt bondage together, and trafficked minors are worked in cotton farms, small-scale needlework companies, roadside restaurants, and brick kilns. According to research (UNICEF East Asia and Pacific, 2020), as more children entered the labour market during the COVID-19 pandemic, the rate of child trafficking rose in India. Vehicles out from states of Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Karnataka were chartered by human traffickers to carry migrant workers, including children, from Bihar (Sen & IPS 2006). Traffickers frequently request that parents accompany youngsters to their destination in order to escape suspicion. NGOs uncovered many minors carrying fake identity papers as proof of their legal working age while intercepting multiple operations. According to media reports, railroad and transit police have boosted their patrols of major transportation hubs in an effort to find and apprehend human traffickers and their victims, especially minors. In the states of Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu, cotton seed farms were found to employ more than 400,000 minors (Sharma, 2007).More over fifty per cent of these kids were under the age of fourteen. More than 90% of India's total producing area is made up of these farms. The number of children working on cotton seed farms dropped as a result of the efforts of numerous parties, including regional and international Organizations, the Indian government, business, and international agencies like the ILO, UNICEF, and UNDP. Despite this drop in numbers, the issue is far from being remedied since in the same states, 381,500 youngsters were still discovered operating in cotton seed fields in 2009–2010. Nearly 169,900 of children were under the age of fourteen (OECD ,2007)

Nearly 259.6 million children in India are between the ages of 5 and 14 overall. Among these, 10.1 million (or 3.9% of all children) are employed, either as "primary workers" or "marginal workers." In India, well over 42.7 million kids do not attend school. 10,826 instances of Child Labour Act infractions were reported nationwide in the four years prior, according to research by Kaur and Byard (2021). Only 6032 (or 56 per cent) of these cases reached the point of prosecution. Only 25 per cent of the total of the instances where a breach of the Child labour Act was noted during 2015 and 2018 resulted in convictions, according to the authorities. An estimated million youngsters in Egypt between the ages of seven and twelve work to manually remove pests from cotton plants each year(Nagar & Roy 2016).Thelabour they do contains eleven hour shifts on each day, seven days per week, for up to 10 weeks each year. Overwork, foremen beatings, and pesticide exposure are a some of the reported abuses. There have also been numerous reports of physical and sexual mistreatment of young cotton workers.

Better enactments of child protection laws have witnessed another trend; children go to school as prescribed by law, only to come back and assist with the household income. The work may be meager in nature, sitting at a tea stall or separating the good and bad cotton seeds, but it goes on for hours (Sen & Ahuja, 2009). Thus, they're left with very little time to tend to homework or even engage in activities of their own personal interest and subsequent development. Despite corporate promises and a range of well-meaning initiatives, workers, children continue to suffer exploitative working conditions.

3.4 UNDERSTANDING THE NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET

Following the postmodern counter-revolution of the 1980s, a significant shift in international development strategies toward export-oriented industrial growth (EOI) from import substituting (IS) initiatives instituted a new advanced manufacturing model, wherein developing nations were increasingly integrated into global production systems (Hopkins and Wallerstein 1986). Openness to international trade and industry were both the means and the goal of development under the new economic paradigm. At the one hand, export-oriented policies were perceived as the only means of promoting economic growth, in line with the World Bank's partial interpretation of the "East Asian Miracle" (World Bank 1993), which claimed that neoliberal "free" trade policies were primarily to blame. On the other side, the degree of a nation's

integration into the world economy was used to measure that nation's economic success. Instead of serving as new customers and suppliers of raw materials to Western manufacturers, developing nations have evolved into manufacturing production hubs within what are now referred to as "global commodity chains" (Gereffi and Korzeniewicz 1994). These are global industrial process networks that span various nations or geographical areas and produce a certain completed good.

While labour processes appeared to have retained a significant local social embeddedness, manufacturing was "projected" into the global arena. This made it possible for workers to move from jobs in the public sector to the jobs in the corporate and entrepreneurial sectors. Here, the informal demographic widened and women became an integral and significant part of the labour force. The freedom of daily wages by the employer, minimal or no social security and flexible working hours for women with domestic constraints made this an attractive arena for not just its own growth but a good avenue of entry for women. Thus, even within the garment industry, self-employed or privately employed women in India were able to carve a niche in poor, if not lower middle-class communities and neighborhoods(Dash et al .,2018). Within the domestic sphere, the fact that ‘labour’ has been scantily defined affects not just the direct quantitative health of the economy, but the creation of gender roles significantly affects the child’s notions of work, self-worth and contribution to a society. The economic requirements of the Indian export garment industry, which both hinder and boost India's export potential, are frequently the subject of neoliberal policy agendas. The human component of worker rights is either disregarded or singled out as a potential risk to corporate maximisation. (Scrase, 2017) contend that when women entered the workforce and, the societal pressure to keep women at home loosened, the necessity for adolescents to work was partially decreased in European industrialising countries. As a result, women supplemented the home income in place of the children. Thus, it is safe to say that the social life, and not just the economic valuation of a household is a central force in giving meaning to a child’s labour, and providing impetus for a child to pursue and continue formal education.

3.5 UNDERSTANDING THE CHILD IN NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET

India faces a two-fold situation with respect to informality affecting child labor. Firstly, being a country of cheap labour, informality persists and both wages and salaries are at a minimum. There is no protection for workers in the informal sector. The formal sector also needs to improve their services in this regard, but at the minimum, salaries offered are consistent and just enough to be able to provide for a child's health and education (Tumlin, 2000). Secondly, women working in the informal sector are even worse off because they're not only earning meagerly as compared to the men, but their labour is barely recognized as contributing to the overall output. According to Kabeer (2000), "maternity pay and childcare facilities serve to offset pre-existing market distortions which do not include in the cost of women's unpaid work in providing for their families" (2005:192). She discovered, for instance, that lack of care for women who become pregnant and/or undertake caregiving duties related to loss of productivity in her research of Bangladeshi workers. (Prota, 2017) Even within the household, while they try and ensure that the child is looked after and is given adequate nourishment, the time spent caring for the child is reduced and this trade-off is rallied against them. According to studies conducted by Save the Youngsters in Sweden, most children begin working at their family's direction or at the very least as a result of a request to assist with unpaid domestic chores and/or contribute to the family's revenue. Since they frequently see themselves as an integral member of the family, most kids are willing to help out, especially in situations where the survival of the family may be at stake. This trend is deeply rampant in India where the mortality rates spur larger populations. Also, the fact that children are generally expected to be of aid to the parents especially during their old age lends to the environment of dependency of parents upon children more than that of children upon their parents. This only furthers the informality of labour of a child; when a child, adolescent or young adult is not recognized as an individual of his own, worthy and/or deserving of his own rights, his labour is bound to go unacknowledged (Rana, 2021).

When it comes to child labour, specifically girl child labour therefore, there is a clear-cut differentiation between the male and female working child both in the stereotyping of work according to gender, and in the attitudes and aspirations of parents. Adult women have for the longest time, and even now in most rural/semi-urban areas, not considered their household work as 'labour'; their self-perception was linked to the perception of the outside world and the fact that they worked for sixteen to twenty hours a day was not seen as work at all. It is therefore not surprising that the work done by girls is not seen as 'work' at all. For a complex of social and

cultural reasons, the girl child is undervalued by parents in India. Several consequences follow from this attitude. The girl child is seen as an economic burden, is exploited by her parents by being worked very hard and yet her economic contribution is never recognized. Arun Bhattacharjee argues that:

...the social belief that a female child is an economic liability can be countered by the argument that in rural India a girl works for nine hours a day and an average of 315 days in a year in the fields at home, providing the family an annual labour which at minimum wages could have cost 2200 INR to hire. By the time she ceases to be a child she has provided economic help to the family worth Rs 39,600 INR surviving on food below nutrition level and struggling against prejudice and discrimination (Bhattacharjee 1985)

The girl child thus loses out to her male counterpart in the workplace; where changing demands and consequent technological changes push boys to go to work in skill-based industries and girls are left behind in unskilled low wage work; and in the social sphere where the only acceptable and justifiable end-goal for her is to get married and continue contributing to the economic sphere of the household. Any deviation from that, whether in terms of getting a formal or informal education or focusing on her career is degraded, disrespected and nullified (Subbaraman& von 2016).

In a number of developing country businesses that rely on child workers, the involvement of multinational enterprises is finally being called into question. According to estimates from 1998, children made up about 22 per cent of the population throughout the Indian hand-knotted rugs business. Companies across industries such as automobiles, jewelry workshops, brick kilns, sandstone, beauty and fashion, alcohol factories, small restaurants and sweatshops have been employing children over a wide age range. Most of these children come from impoverished households, and finding employment in such spaces ensures marginally more food at the table at the end of the day. Large debts due to local money - lenders or mine owners, who charge up to 200 per cent yearly interest, tie many families to the mines (Chamarbagwala, 2008).None of the people who work in these little companies and mines are aware that the mica that is scraped out from the rock walls is the very first link in a web of intricate global supply networks that spans the entire planet. Such jobs are extremely expensive to leave or "escape" from. Not only is their personal debt a burgeoning burden, but added to that is often national inflation, state policies that

do not protect their rights by providing unconditional healthcare, education and subsidized rations and concerns from activists that constantly aim to release the children from exploitative and life-threatening work keeping aside the fact that these children often contribute to their own and their family's well-being by staying employed. Some of them face abuse, neglect and violence at home and so working and earning an income comes as a respite (Trinh, 2020). In such situations, going to school and studying is often the last of their concerns. The persistent condition of poverty, and the marginalization from state welfare policies and the indifference from multinational companies towards the state's inaction and to the conditions of its workers ensures that the supply of such low-wage workers is adequately met with demand orders of these various industries from across the world (Biggeri et al., 2009).

In this study, we try and find the extent of girl child labour in the garment industry specifically in the states of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu that have a deep-rooted history of the same. We conduct surveys in 400 participants in the cities of Tirupur, Coimbatore, Mysore and Bangalore each. The goal is to identify employment and work conditions of girl child labour and more importantly whether employees are being influenced by any third party like sub-brokers, company's representatives in employing girl child labour under exploitative employment schemes.

CHAPTER 4

LEGALITIES OF CHILD LABOUR AND COVID-19

There is no parallel world government that can enforce the rules created in communities, internationally. However, India has firmly stuck to the following mandate, and hence for the purpose of this study the same shall be used as in mentioned in the Constitution:

• "adolescent" describes a person who already has reached the age of fourteen but has not yet reached the age of eighteen; and,

• "child" refers to a person under the age of fourteen or the maximum age permitted under the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act of 2009, whichever is higher.

4.1 MANDATES RESTRICTING CHILD LABOUR IN INDIA

The 1973 ILO Minimum Age Convention, No. 138, requires the warranting nations to set a minimum age for employment permission and encourages the states to develop and implement a national policy aimed at effectively ending child labour. One of the nations with a free and mandatory education policy in place for all children and also a minimum age requirement for employment is India(Browne et al., 2004). These are the only two standards that can be used to protect a child's whole rights and development on moral, financial, and social grounds. Because of this, India is thought to be in a better position than other nations to set its goals for child labour. Along the same line, various laws have been enacted by the Government to prohibit child labour:

- The Minimum Wages Act of 1948
- The Factories Act of 1948
- The Mines Act of 1952
- The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) of Children Act of 2015
- The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act of 2009
- Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act of 2012
- National Policy on Child labour

- The Child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act of 1986, and
- The National Child Protection Policy

Singh et al., (2013)Attempts to alleviate child labour are hampered by policy gaps that occur despite the existence of recognised rules pertaining to child labour. This includes the absence of regional action plans for all state and local governments to end child labour. Some states have recently made attempts at comprehensive action items, like the Government of Karnataka, which in partnership with civil society organisations produced a complete SOP on human trafficking. The SOP addresses child labour, bonded labour, child begging, and sex trafficking. Additionally, by March 2021, the state planned to implement two distinct SOPs on bonded labour and using the Railway Protection Force to rescue minors from train terminals. SOPs for ending bonded labour are in place in the states of Tamil Nadu and the Union Territory of Delhi(Bajpai, 2018).

Policy	Description
National Policy on Child Labor	Describes actions for combating hazardous labor for children, including implementing legislation and providing direct assistance to children. (119) Implemented through programs operated by MOLE and the Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD), including the NCLP Scheme, Grants in Aid, the Integrated Child Development Scheme, the National Children's Fund, and the National Creche Scheme. (32,81,120,121) From April 1, 2019, to February 1, 2020, 46,198 children were removed from child labor and rehabilitated through the NCLP Scheme, established under the National Policy on Child Labor. (11)
National Plan of Action for Children	Identifies priority actions for achieving the objectives set out in the National Policy for Children (NPC). (32,122,123) Aims to establish bridge courses and age-appropriate classes for children rescued from child labor and child trafficking to meet the NPC objective to ensure that all out-of-school children have access to education. In addition, seeks to develop community-based prevention, rescue, rehabilitation, and reintegration mechanisms, and strengthen institutional mechanisms to address the worst forms of child labor to meet the NPC objective that all children are protected from exploitation. (122,123) Research was unable to determine whether activities were undertaken to implement the national action plan during the reporting period.
State Action Plans on Child Labor	Details state governments' activities and programs to eliminate child labor. Child labor action plans are in place in only 11 states: Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi, Gujarat, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Meghalaya, Orissa, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh. (92,97,124-131) Research was unable to determine whether activities were undertaken to implement state action plans during the reporting period.

Table 2: Key Policies Related to Child labour (Bureau of International Labour Affairs, US Department of labour)

The Union Government has enacted the Child labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Amendment Act, 2016 which came into force with effect from 1st September, 2016. The Child and Adolescent labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986, as amended, prohibits the employment of children under the age of 14 in all occupations and processes, ties that age to that of free and compulsory education under the Right to Education Act of 2009, forbids the full-time work of youngsters (14 to 18 years of age) in hazardous occupations or processes, and imposes strict regulations(Kolk &Tulder 2002).The statute also includes a thorough list of tasks that are categorised as dangerous vocations. In addition, the Commissions for Protection of Child Rights (CPCR) Act, 2005, an Act of Parliament, authorised the creation of the National Commission for the Protection of Child Rights (NCPCR) in March 2007 to "ensure that all laws, policies, programmes, and administrative processes are in consonance with the child rights viewpoint as contained in the Constitution of India and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child". However, there are operational flaws in enforcement agencies that could prevent the effective execution of its child labour laws.

Organization/Agency	Role
State Government Labor Inspectorates	Conduct labor inspections, including inspections for child labor. Enforce child labor laws, including assessing penalties for violations found during inspections. (92) Refer children to Child Welfare Committees for protection and rehabilitation services. (76)
State and Local Police	Enforce laws pertaining to child labor and human trafficking. (90) Submit information to District Magistrates to determine whether a case should be prosecuted in District Court. (11) Refer children to Child Welfare Committees for protection and rehabilitation services. (1,76) The Criminal Investigation Department (CID) (also referred to as "Crime Branch") is a unit of the police force in each state. There are 36 CIDs across India. (81)
Ministry of Home Affairs – Anti-Trafficking Operations Division – State and District-Level Anti-Human Trafficking Units (AHTUs)	Report to district police chiefs. (43) Investigate cases of domestic and international human trafficking. (1,43,90) Established in approximately 350 local police jurisdictions throughout India, but many AHTUs lack sufficient funding, human resources, and infrastructure—including vehicles and computers—needed to adequately perform their work. (1,43,81) During the reporting period, the national government disbursed $13.5 million in funding to expand AHTUs from 332 districts to all 732 districts and provided additional training and resources to existing AHTUs. (1,63)
Central Bureau of Investigation – Anti-Human Trafficking Unit	Investigates and prosecutes cases involving the kidnapping and trafficking of women and children by professional gangs operating across multiple states. Takes on cases by request of, or in agreement with, state governments. (1,93) Manages the 24-hour Helpline No. 011 for reporting cases of "Illegal Human Trafficking Especially Trafficking of Children & Women." (43,94)
National Investigation Agency	Investigates terror-related cases. (32) Mandate was expanded by the central government in 2019 to investigate and prosecute trafficking in persons cases that have multiple state or international ramifications. (32,43,81,95)

Table 3: Agencies Responsible for Child labour Law Enforcement (Bureau of International labour Affairs, US Department of labour)

For a long period of time, India had shown fewer efforts than many other nations to get kids out of the workforce and put into the education system. The meager efforts in this area were likewise not due to economic or demographic factors, but rather to the attitudes of powerful middle-class members, lawmakers, trade union leaders, and workers in nonprofit organizations against child labour and the requirement of primary school education (Biggeri et al., 2009). The attitudes of the officialdom itself, particularly those of the state and federal labour and education departments and ministries, are (were) of particular significance. The wishes of low-income parents to put their kids to work and earn or to hire them at home rather than divert the family's income toward an education that does not ensure suitable employment, and the desires of recruiters who desire minimum paid, pliable, nonunionized labour, are of secondary importance because, in other parts of the world, a sizable number of parents and hiring managers also have supported child labour

and disapproved compulsory education. What explains Indian policy is the absence of both a political alliance outside of the state apparatus and significant internal support for government action inside the state apparatus itself (Ahmad, 2012). Despite statements made by politicians, authorities, academics, and social activists as well as official government announcements, there is little popular support in India for compulsory education or for enforcement of laws banning the employment of children (Weiner,1998)

India made some progress in 2020 toward ending the worst types of child labour. The national government distributed $13.5 million in funds during this time to increase the number of Anti-Human Trafficking Units from 332 to 732 districts, as well as to give current units more resources and training. Together with civil society organisations, the Karnataka government released extensive standard operating procedures on human trafficking in March 2020. Sex trafficking, child begging, child labour, and bonded labour are all covered by the standard operating procedures (Parvathamma, 2015).Additionally, in September 2020, the Occupational Safety, Health and Working Conditions Code was passed, which contained occupational safety requirements for kids between the ages of 14 and 18. Tamil Nadu was the very first state to request money during this time period in order to undertake the first ever census since 1996, that spanned the 11 most exposed districts and fed data into a single database on initiatives to combat bonded labour. Additionally, the state of Telangana started a three-year initiative to map its spinning mills and cotton fields in order to track ethical labour practices; traffickers exploit forced labour in these industries.

Additionally, during the reporting year, bonded labour-related arrests were made. 25 children were used as bonded labourers in the bangle factories that the AHTUs in Jaipur rescued 900 kids from. The majority of the kids were smuggled from Bihar to Rajasthan and they all suffered physical abuse. Police rescued 403 people from brick kilns in June 2020, 97 of whom were minors and charged three brick kiln owners under the Bonded labour System Abolition Act. Local government representatives and police in Tamil Nadu also managed to free 173 kids from a for-profit spinning factory, the bulk of them were girls. The victims, who were between the ages of 13 and 18, performed 14-hour hours without any days off. However, the police chose to bring the case under less serious criminal charges rather than under the Child labour (Abolition and Regulation) Act or the Bonded labour System (Abolition) Act. Approximately 1,300 of the 9,000 government-funded and -run shelters for the weak, including children, were not even

formally registered with the state. In many group homes and orphanages, a weak criminal justice system and a lack of safeguards fostered lawlessness. Several shelters continued to operate despite claims of abuse because of political connections (Majumdar, 2001).

Overview of Labor Law Enforcement	2019	2020
Labor Inspectorate Funding	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Number of Labor Inspectors	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Inspectorate Authorized to Assess Penalties	Yes (32)	Yes (73)
Initial Training for New Labor Inspectors	Yes (32)	Yes (11)
Training on New Laws Related to Child Labor	Yes (32)	Yes (11)
Refresher Courses Provided	Yes (32)	Yes (11)
Number of Labor Inspections Conducted	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Number Conducted at Worksite	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Number of Child Labor Violations Found	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Number of Child Labor Violations for Which Penalties Were Imposed	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Number of Child Labor Penalties Imposed that Were Collected	Unknown (32)	Unknown (11)
Routine Inspections Conducted	Yes (32)	Unknown (11)
Routine Inspections Targeted	Yes (97)	Yes (11)
Unannounced Inspections Permitted	Yes (32)	Yes (73)
Unannounced Inspections Conducted	Yes (32)	Yes (11)
Complaint Mechanism Exists	Yes (32)	Yes (11)
Reciprocal Referral Mechanism Exists Between Labor Authorities and Social Services	Yes (32)	Yes (11)

Table 4: Labour Law Enforcement Efforts Related to Child labour (Bureau of International Labour Affairs, US Department of Labour)

4.2 GLOBAL MANDATES RESTRICTING CHILD LABOUR

The statistics for developing countries: India, Bhutan, Nepal, Bangladesh and so on show how child labour is more prevalent here, as opposed to developed countries. Whether it's about enforcement of the laws or just building the foundations of equal human rights and valuing children, developed countries apparently are better at it (Rammohan, 2014). Weisbrot et. al (1996) look at the GDP per capita income of developed countries as they ratified child labour and disprove the popular claim that developing countries are too poor to take necessary steps to eliminate child labour. They compare these findings with the GDP per capita income of other developing countries that are involved in trade with developed countries and have been able to minimize child labor that arises out of poverty. As a result, the evidence reveals that the generalisation that developing countries are currently (as of 1999) too poor to regulate or outlaw child labour lacks economic support. In fact, if the high-income, nations supported such a policy, developing countries might be in a better spot to regulate or outlaw child labour today than industrialised countries were in the past, given that output in these nations is backed by export growth in industrialised nations like the United States(Sharma, 2006). The use of child workers in British and American companies in the 19th and 20th centuries was motivated by the same kind of severe competition—in the home economy as opposed to the global market. A nationwide law that extended to all businesses was necessary because employers who would only recruit adults would suffer a severe competitive disadvantage (Weiner, M. (1996). We can observe when and how these industrialised countries approved of child labour:

Belgium's 1886 Child labour Law prohibits children under the age of 12 from working in industrial settings or overnight under specified situations.

Denmark's 1872 Child labour Law: This law was the first to prohibit child labour. Act of 1874 specifies an age requirement of 12 for employment in mining and factories, with educational provisions incorporated, and creates an inspectorate to execute the law.

France 1841: First child labour regulation, weakly enforced

Germany/Prussia Prussian Law of 1839: prohibits the hiring of illiterate kids under the age of sixteen as well as the employment of children younger than nine in factories and mines. Twelve is the minimum age for employment in industry, according to the Statue of 1853. Industrial Code of 1891 (enacted in "the North German Confederation") limited children under fourteen to six hours of employment per day and mandated three hours of schooling each day. The minimum

age has been updated to thirteen years old, although children older than 13 can only work if they have completed basic school.

Great Britain: The Factory Act of 1802 was passed when cotton production was still comparatively tiny; it only applies to apprentices and imposes restrictions on the number of hours worked and the employer's hygienic procedures. The Factory Act of 1833, which is rarely enforced, forbids the employment of children younger than nine in textile mills and places time restrictions on those aged nine to twelve. It is enforced by a paid inspectorate. Women are not allowed to perform subterranean work under the Mines Act of 1842. For practically all factories and workshops, the Factory Act of 1867 and the Workshops Regulation Act of 1867 were coupled. The age of employment increased from 8 to 10 years old by the 1874 Act. The 1891 Act increases the minimum age for minors to labour from 10 to 11 years old and introduces stricter safety restrictions.

The 1873 Italy Law restricts the hiring of minors in "wandering" jobs.

Japan: The First Factory Law of 1911, which went into effect in 1916, fixed the threshold of employment in industrial firms at 12. Twelve hours a day are the maximum for adolescents below 16 years old. There is a provision for factory auditors to uphold the legislation.

Before 1840, the Canton of Argovia Child labour Law in Switzerland prohibited the employment of children under the age of 14 in industries and required mill owners to provide education to the children they worked with. Zurich Canton Child labour Law, dated prior to 1840. The maximum number of hours per day that children under ten could labour in cotton spinning mills was twelve. Education must be provided half a day every week.(Horner & Leonard 1840)

United States Massachusetts law of 1842: Children under the age of twelve may only labour for 10 hours each day. A Pennsylvania statute from 1848 mandates that employees in textile manufacturers be at least 12 years old (by 1899, 28 states had some form of child labour legislation). 1903. The Fair labour Standards Act of 1938 mandates that employees in manufacturing establishments be at least twelve years old in Alabama and the Carolinas. Federal child labour laws have been successful for the first time because they prohibit hiring of children

under the age of sixteen, restrict the working of children under the age of eighteen, and incorporate minimum pay and maximum-hours restrictions for adult workers.

We can note the current situation in a few emerging nations, where child labour is widespread,

- **BANGLADESH**

Due to the compartmentalization of most Bangladeshi laws throughout the early 20th century as a result of British Imperialism, the current legal framework lacks sufficient criminal measures. According to the Children (pledging of labour) Act of 1933, parents and guardians who agree to pledge their children's labour face fines of up to 200 BDT (about $0.54 USD) and a penalty of up to 50 BDT (0.54 USD) (2.15 USD). The employer shall be punished with a fine upto 500 BDT Under the Employment of Children Act of 1938 (5.38 USD). Simple imprisonment for a few months or with a fine extendable to a mere 100 BDT (1.08 USD). The Children Act, 1974 provides a provision for penalty for exploitation of child employees with a fine which may extend to 1000 BDT (10.75 USD) (Siddiqua &Rehna, 2003).Other Acts that take cognizance of child labour practices include the following:

- The Mines Act, 1923 (Act No. IV of 1923)
- The Children (Pledging of labour) Act, 1933 (Act No. XI of 1933)
- The Employment of Children Act, 1938 (Act No. XXXVI of 1938)
- The Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961 (Act No. XXVIII of 1961)
- The Tea Plantation labour Ordinance, 1962 (Act No. XXXIX of 1962)
- The Shops and Establishments Act, 1965 (E.P. No. VII of 1965)
- The Factories Act, 1965 (E.P. Act No. IV of 1965)

- **ISRAEL**

The Youth Work Law forbids the employment of children less than 15 years old in its article 14. It states for compulsory schooling until grade tenth, during which a child is employable only as an apprentice. Children above the age of 14 are only permitted to work in non-hazardous

positions during their school's summer break. The Law also stipulates that employed youth must perform a 40-hour workweek as opposed to 45 for adults. The Apprenticeship Law of 1953 also protects the rights of all employees under the age of 18, by laying out mandates for a time period of employment, compulsory registration as a trainee, proper training, written records and supervision on the part of the employer (Grinberg, 2016).. All this work requires proper medical permissions. Article 99 of the Palestinian labour Law, which exempts minors who serve with their first relatives from the execution of these regulations, is a drawback (immediate family). Many of the children who are affected lose their rights as a result because they can only obtain employment with their parents or brothers. Laws passed by various governments, administrations, and occupations have been combined to form the legislation in various areas of the West Bank and Gaza Strip. Due to insufficient means for monitoring or prosecution in the event of non-compliance, this has made it more difficult to enforce laws (Di Maio & Nandi, 2013).

In the West Bank and Gaza, the Palestinian General Federation of Trade Unions (PGFTU) has now been tackling the issue of child labour. The PGFTU and ILO collaborated to include the aforementioned provisions in the Palestinian labour Law. A few workshops on child labour concerns were also held, particularly for parents to inform them of the drawbacks of child labour. Judge Stephen J. Adler, assisted by Adv. Ariel Avgar, National labour Law Profile: The State of Israel, International labour Organization)

- **HONG KONG**

Hong Kong has different concise guidelines for the employment of children, child entertainers and young persons in various sectors. In accordance with the EO, "children" refers to people under the age of 15. Children cannot be employed in industrial operations, according to the Employment of Children Regulations adopted under the EO. Additionally, employment in any sector of the economy is illegal for children under the age of 13. Under certain restrictions, children who are 13 years old or older may work in non-industrial settings. For instance, a child's employment must have the written consent of their parents(Lau, 2016). A current school attendance certificate must also be shown to the employer. Children, younger than 13 can work

as entertainers with the specific consent of the Commissioner for labour for the advancement of art or training. (Retrieved from www.gov.hk.com, Legislation governing the employment of young persons and children, GovHK) In 1937, no working children under the age of fourteen were reported working in their registered factories by the government. (Farmer & Hugh, 2021).

- **PAKISTAN**

The worst types of child labour, such as forced domestic work and commercial sexual exploitation, are practised on children in Pakistan, often caused by human trafficking. A minimum age for labour or hazardous work has not been set by the federal government or the province of Balochistan in accordance with international norms. Provincial labour inspectorates also lack the funding necessary to effectively police laws against child labour, and neither the federal nor provincial governments make information about their efforts to enforce labour and criminal laws public (Ray, 2000). Additionally, Pakistan's ability to handle the issue nationwide is hampered by police corruption, including the receipt of bribes from suspected offenders to ignore child labour violations and a lack of desire to conduct criminal investigations. (2020 Child labour and Forced labour Reports, Pakistan, U.S. Department of labour, Bureau of International Affairs) The ILO is providing capacity development to the Government of Pakistan, the Employers' and Workers' groups as part of the Pakistan Decent Work Country Programme (2016–20) in order to gradually eradicate the worst forms of child and bonded labour in the rural economy. The National Commission on the Rights of the Child was formally established by the Pakistani government in February 2020, and two of its members are minors (Khan et al.,2007). The cabinet of the Islamabad Capital Territory outlawed child domestic labour for those under the age of 14. Domestic labour was also included by the government to the list of professions that the Employment of Minors Act of 1991 prohibits as hazardous work for children. (Child labour in Pakistan, ILO)

- **TURKEY**

2018 has been designated as the Year of Elimination of Child labour by a Joint Declaration on the Elimination of Child labour that the government signed. Additionally, 320 teachers, 81 regional directors, and 355 labour inspectors received training on child labour. The Hazelnut

Integrated Model to End the Worst Forms of Child labour in Seasonal Agriculture in hazelnut harvesting prevented 1,022 children from working in hazelnut harvesting and was extended to 2020. (U.S. Department of labour, Bureau of International Affairs, 2020, Child labour and Forced labour Reports, Turkey)

- **SOUTH AFRICA**

Some legislations that take cognizance of the rights of children and adolescents in South Africa are as follows:

- Constitution of the RSA, 1996
- Basic Conditions of Employment Act (75 of 1997), as amended
- South African Schools Acts (84 of 1996)
- Children's Act 38 of 2005 International Reference
- International Reference
- ILO Convention 182, Worst Forms of Child labour, 1999
- ILO Convention C138 – Minimum Age Convention 1973 (No138) (WIETA Code, No child labour and the protection of young workers, Wine and Agricultural Ethical Trade Association)

The South African government boosted the Child Support Grant, giving low-income parents with children an extra $35 per month starting in 2020. However, the worst types of child labour, such as forced begging and commercial sexual exploitation, are practised on minors in South Africa, often as a result of human trafficking. Social services are short in their ability to address the magnitude of child labour, and labour authorities are not permitted to impose sanctions. Additionally, there are still obstacles to education, particularly for immigrant children who lack valid identity. (U.S. Department of labour, Bureau of International Affairs, 2020)

- **GUATEMALA**

The employment of minors under the age of 15 is prohibited by Guatemalan law, but in extraordinary circumstances, the Ministry of labour may provide permission for such

employment. It is unlawful for anyone under the age of 18 to work in establishments that provide alcoholic beverages, in hazardous or unhealthy environments, after dark, or for a longer period of time than is allowed. For those under the age of 14, the legal workday is 6 hours; for those between the ages of 14 and 17, it is 7 hours. Despite this, there is a lot of child labour in the agricultural industry, often under risky circumstances and with the parents' knowledge and approval (Dammert, 2010).

Enforcing limitations on child labour and providing education, to their families, and employers about their rights are the responsibilities of the Ministry of labour's Child Worker Protection Unit. The Protection Unit mostly operated from home during the limits put in place because of the pandemic, ineffectively upholding the law (Vásquez & Bohara, 2010). According to the non-profit Conrad Project Association of the Cross, the workforce consisted of almost one million children between the ages of five and 17, with the majority of child labour taking place in rural, indigenous communities with extreme chronic poverty. Small family businesses in the informal and rural sectors frequently employ youngsters under the age of 14. Traffickers specialised in recruiting indigenous people, particularly kids, for forced labour, such as in tortilla factories. Young men in metropolitan areas were forced to sell or transport narcotics or engage in extortion by criminal organisations, including gangs, who also used girls as sexual objects. (Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and labour, 2021).

- **BHUTAN**

The Penal Code (Amendment) Act of Bhutan 2021, passed by the Bhutanese Parliament, modified the constitutional description of human trafficking to bring it into compliance with international standards for adults while maintaining the requirement of force, fraud, or coercion in cases involving child trafficking. To encourage and safeguard children from abuse and exploitation, the National Commission for Women and Children created a dedicated Child Safeguarding and Protection Policy. However, there is documentation that children in Bhutan are exposed to the worst types of child labour, including coerced domestic labour, often as a result of human trafficking, despite the fact that research into this issue is scarce (Chhetri, 2011). Education is not required in Bhutan, and the country's minimum working age deviates from

worldwide norms. A nationwide strategy to combat child labour, along with its worst forms, has not been implemented by the government. The government withheld information about its efforts to enforce criminal and labour laws from the public. (U.S. Department of labour, Bureau of International Affairs, 2020)

Murshed (2001) discusses how until that decade, the research into child labour practices had been either theoretical or prescriptive, as opposed to a critical understanding and uncovering of the reasons behind the persistence of child labour. When all factors are not given enough credit, both direct and indirect, such prescriptions fall short of the theory in place. Data, specifically the numbers available on government records are scanty and irregular and the primary reason behind this is that child labour is illegal and prohibited (Dorji, 2005). Working children do not have the right to demand the legal and social advantages that are due, making them especially vulnerable to abuse and largely unable to defend or fight for themselves. No institution or authority feels it is vital to disclose their dependence on child labour. The wide scope of informality here that creates opportunities and also sets the stage for exploitative measures within the garment industry needs to be looked at with as many lenses as possible (Hofbauer,1996).

4.3 GLOBAL TRENDS AFFECTING CHILD LABOUR

The explicit risk factors of the Covid-19 pandemic may have accelerated the growth of child labour around the globe. Due to the fact that many parents fell into a cycle of poverty, a sizable number of underprivileged populations in Low-Middle Income Countries are suffering from terrible exploitation and starvation. For instance, 3.9 million children were food insecure at the conclusion of the first eight weeks of the curfew during the Covid-19 outbreak, making up 9.1% of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa (Jayawardana et al., 2023). Additionally, neither the media nor the most recent study show that these poor people in many LMICs are receiving adequate financial help from business or government players. Parents will be compelled by the burden of poverty to look for employment opportunities for their kids. According to Becker, one of Covid-19's consequences could lead to parental unemployment, illness or death, a decline in household revenues, or children being forced into labour to provide for their family members' fundamental necessities. As a result, the likelihood of working children is increasing, and

poverty rates are rising. Sasmal and Guilen (2015) note that when poverty persists, parents are forced to send their children to work.

According to the World Economic Forum, there has been a 10% drop in household income in the Ivory Coast, which has resulted in a 5% rise in child labour. In this unprecedented crisis, children from marginalised minority groups, the homeless, migratory refugees, the disabled, and those who live in conflict or disaster-prone regions are particularly at risk of abject poverty or famine. According to estimates from the ILO and UNICEF, child labour can increase by 0.7 per cent for every 1 per cent increase in poverty. Poverty will be the driving force behind people taking up risky jobs in demanding environments and putting in long hours. (Ahad et al., 2020)

A recurrence of the hardship of child labour was also brought on by the closing of schools during the Covid-19 pandemic. According to research, children that do not go to school have a higher likelihood of entering the job market than those that do. Experiences in the past show that this complicated sensation manifests itself in every epidemic. For instance, when schools were closed due to the Ebola epidemic crisis in 2014, child labour increased. It should be noted that youngsters without access to technology or the internet will not be able to participate in the school's online remote learning programme (Ortiz & Roser, 2016). According to Kluttz (2015), child labour is a result of limited access to schooling as well as a sign of poverty. Many parents or guardians may no longer be able to afford to keep paying for their child's education even once the schools reopen. Children who are not in school in rural areas are more vulnerable than child labourers in cities. Families may tend to push their children into labour, especially in the rural agriculture sectors, due to inadequate maintenance of lockdown rules in rural precincts, the closing of schools, and insufficient access to online education. Approximately 71% of juvenile workers are engaged in dangerous tasks in the agricultural industry. A sizable majority of them work as bonded labourers. In Africa and Asia, where the majority of child labourers are employed in agriculture, the abuse and exploitation in labour due to school closures would be particularly serious.

4.4 TRENDS ACROSS INDIA

According to research, as more children entered the labour market during the COVID-19 pandemic, the rate of child trafficking rose in India. Vehicles from the states of Andhra Pradesh,

Rajasthan, and Karnataka were chartered by human traffickers to carry migrant workers, including children, from Bihar. Traffickers frequently request that parents accompany youngsters to their destination in order to escape suspicion. NGOs uncovered many minors carrying fake identification documents as proof of their legal working age while intercepting multiple operations. In order to deter and catch offenders and victims, railroad and transit police reportedly enhanced patrols of transportation hubs. 35 kids were removed from a spinning factory in Tamil Nadu, a significant hub for garment factories, during the current period. One child rights NGO is said to have saved 1,675 kids between April and November 2020, according to research (Dash et al., 2018).

The majority of the nation's schools stayed closed from March 2020 to December 2020 as a result of the pandemic. Online learning was place during this time. Due to a lack of Internet access or accessible gadgets, research has shown that students from low-income households and those living in some rural locations are unable to attend school. The government made an effort to address this problem by delivering devices and broadcasting classes on community radio stations, government-owned television channels, and radio stations.However, research indicates that due to economic downturns brought on by the pandemic, including dropout rates among children, child slavery and child trafficking increased in India throughout the reporting period. (UNICEF, 2021)

There were 2473 interventions involving child labour in March (the national Indian lockdown went into effect on March 25, 2020), a sharp decline to 446 in April, then a gradual rise when lockdown limitations loosened, reaching 734 in May. However, this fall only includes those kids who have been identified, not necessarily the real number of kids working. The reduced figures may therefore simply reflect the pandemic’s impact on the regular reporting and case-investigation processes. In India, the Childline support line conducted 3653 interventions for child labour in various states. Out of these 3653 operations, 35% (1264) were for begging, 21% (763) were for hazardous activities, 14% (513) were for working in a restaurant, 10% (371) were for domestic workers, 8% (286) were for family units, and 4% (156) were for bonded labour. 13 juvenile labourers were rescued from two factories on August 29, 2020, by a local task force in Ludhiana, Punjab, India (Chatterjee & Ray 2019).

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS OF TAMIL NADU

The research employs a questionnaire (attached in Annex) to nearly 400 workers in the four cities each – Tirupur, Coimbatore, Mysuru and Bangalore. Based on the data generated, the findings for Tamil Nadu suggest that among the surveyed respondents of women workers in the textile mills, majority of them are in the age group of 16-18 years (51.0%) and about 28% are adults, that is, above 18 years. Only 20.7 % of the workers found to be in the age group of 14-16 years. Other the general trends include observations across caste where 33.6% belong to SC and 0.6% belong to Others, and religion where 53.8 % adhered to being a Hindu, the education level with 37.8% having attempted and finished middle school, occupations of parents/guardian where 49.4 % work as a daily wage worker, the educational qualifications of parent/guardian where 28.2% are literate but below primary levels. The highest number of family members is 4 (49.4%), and highest number of earning family members is 3 (44.9%).

Age group of respondents

	No.	per cent
14 – 16 years	149	20.7
16 – 18 years	367	51.0
18+ years	204	28.3
Total	720	100.0

The table shows indexed age of respondents.

Caste of respondents

	No.	per cent
General	214	29.7
Forward	12	1.7
SC	242	33.6
ST	71	9.9
OBC	177	24.6
Others	4	.6

Total	720	100.0

The table shows caste groups in which respondents are divided.

Correlation of Caste and Years of Employment

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Caste	General	15	7.0	46	21.5	46	21.5	43	20.1	64	29.9	214	100.0
	Forward	4	33.3	4	33.3	2	16.7			2	16.7	12	100.0
	SC	26	10.7	77	31.8	46	19.0	27	11.2	66	27.3	242	100.0
	ST	7	9.9	27	38.0	11	15.5	12	16.9	14	19.7	71	100.0
	OBC	8	4.5	42	23.7	48	27.1	37	20.9	42	23.7	177	100.0
	Others									4	100.0	4	100.0
Total		60	8.3	196	27.2	153	21.3	119	16.5	192	26.7	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	51.652	20	**

Critical value: 37.556

The caste of respondents is related to the years of employment. Caste as a socio-political institution plays an important role in maintaining networks and this pervades life at the place of work as well. Here, the calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value. There is varied correlation of different castes with years of employment, and the role and influence of these groups is a vast discussion, the scope of which is beyond this report.

Similarly, the religion of respondents is related to the years of employment, as the calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

Religion of respondents

	No.	per cent

Hindu	387	53.8
Muslim	226	31.4
Christian	106	14.7
Jain	1	.1
Total	720	100.0

Correlation of Religion with Years of Employment

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Religion	Hindu	19	4.9	102	26.4	95	24.5	66	17.1	105	27.1	387	100.0
	Muslim	37	16.4	75	33.2	35	15.5	35	15.5	44	19.5	226	100.0
	Christian	4	3.8	19	17.9	22	20.8	18	17.0	43	40.6	106	100.0
	Jain					1	100.0					1	100.0
total		60	8.3	196	27.2	153	21.3	119	16.5	192	26.7	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	53.596	12	**

Critical value: 26.217

Educational qualifications of respondents

	No.	per cent
Not literate	14	1.9
Literate but below primary	28	3.9
Primary	223	31.0
Middle	272	37.8
Secondary	183	25.4
Total	720	100.0

The table above shows indexed educational qualifications of the respondents.

Educational qualifications of parent/guardian

	No.	per cent
Not literate	167	23.2
Literate without formal training	102	14.2
Literate but below primary	203	28.2
Primary	125	17.4
Middle	34	4.7
Secondary	89	12.4
Total	720	100.0

The table shows indexed educational qualifications of parent/guardian.

Occupation of parent(s)/guardian

	No.	per cent
Agriculture	284	39.4
Daily wage worker	356	49.4
Private sector job	1	.1
Government job	79	11.0
Total	720	100.0

The table shows indexed occupations of parent/guardian.

Total members in a family

	No.	per cent
1	26	3.6
2	313	43.5

3	323	44.9
4	53	7.4
5	5	.7
Total	720	100.0

The table shows total number of members in a family for the respondents.

Total number of earning members in a family

	No.	per cent
2	27	3.8
3	239	33.2
4	356	49.4
5	89	12.4
6	9	1.3
Total	720	100.0

The table shows total earning members in a family.

Name of company you work for

	No.	per cent
Amaravathy Spinning Mills	75	10.4
Arul Nandhi Spinning Mills	25	3.5
B.M.C.Textiles	53	7.4
Bharat Spinning Mills	35	4.9
Brindavan Cotton Mills Pvt Ltd	60	8.3
Chandra Textiles	80	11.1
Everest Spinning Mills	30	4.2
G.P.R. Textiles Private Limited	60	8.3
PongalurPoineer Textiles Pvt Ltd	51	7.1
Rajalakshmi Spinners P Ltd	46	6.4
Shri Vasantharaj Textiles P.Ltd	30	4.2
Shri Vishnu Perumal Spin Yarn Ltd.	50	6.9

Sowmiya Textiles P.Ltd	20	2.8
Sre Senthil Murugan Mills	30	4.2
Sri Priyalakshmi Spinners (P) Ltd	75	10.4
Total	720	100.0

Based on previous years of employment and time spent employed in the present mill, it is seen that most of the workers were employed 1 to 2 years before, that is most of them are working in the current job for one or two years. Another 35 per cent of them workers are employed for 2-3 years followed by 22.1% of them being employed for 3-5 years. The two tables below show both their present years of working and years of work in previous place(s) of work. The total years of working can be arrived at by adding current employment and past employment in years.

Number of years worked in previous employment

	No.	per cent
1-2 years	309	42.9
2-3 years	252	35.0
3-5 years	159	22.1
Total	720	100.0

Number of years in present employment

	No.	per cent
Up to 1 year	77	10.7
1-2 years	289	40.1
2-3 years	188	26.1
3-4 years	99	13.8
5 years and above	67	9.3
Total	720	100.0

From the table below it is seen that workers have been in employment from a minimum of 1 year to maximum of 5 years. The average number of years the respondent working is 2.79 years with a standard deviation of 0.94 years.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
How long have you worked here for?	720	1.00	5.00	2.7889	.94377

The total years of employment thus, show how 27.2 per cent of the works have been in employment for an average of 3-4 years. Not considering their exact age at the time of first employment, the workers in present employment cannot be child labourers (as their present age is majorly in between 16-18 years). The same can be said for those employed for 2 – 3 years. However, for those who have been working for more than 5 years it is difficult to exactly note whether they were children or adolescents at the time of their first employment. There are a number of factors that can conceal the actual age of such workers, for instance, the notable difference in the age as mentioned on the certificates submitted to the employer at the time of present (and past) employment and the actual age. Here, 91.4 per cent of workers mention their actual age is different (lower) from that mentioned in their certificates. The exact figures for such a question remain beyond the scope of the present study.

Total years of employment

	No.	per cent
2-3 years	60	8.3
3-4 years	196	27.2
4-5 years	153	21.3
5-6 years	119	16.5
6+ years	192	26.7
Total	720	100.0

However, a Chi-square test is done to verify that no significant relationship exists between age and years of employment (Null hypothesis). In the table below, it is seen that among the children

age 14-16 years (149 of them) 7.4 per cent have been working for the past 6+ years, that is, those workers possibly started working as child labourers. Similarly, about 21% of them are working for the past 5-6 years. It could be noted that among the age group of 14-16 years many have started working before 14 years of age, as can be seen from their past employment.

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	174.342	8	**

Critical value: 20.090

Ns – Not significant * - Significant at 5% level ** - Significant at 1% level

The calculated value of chi-square is 174.342 which is greater than the critical value of 20.090 at 1% level of significance. Since the calculated value is greater than the critical value, the hypothesis is rejected. It is inferred that there is significant relationship between age and years of employment. There is no strictly visible preference of child labourers in the companies surveyed in the present study. Even those in the age group of 14-16 years of age is a small figure (20.7 per cent) as compared to other age groups. Nearly 62 per cent of these workers also reported not seeing young girls/boys of ages 14 and below working on the factory premises. It is also seen that the biggest majority across all age groups is the "not literate" group (42.9 per cent), which has been in employment for 4-5 years. "Literate but below primary" comes a close second (39.3 per cent) with 4-5 years of employment as well. For those with a secondary level education the years of work have increased. This shows that not only have there been less girl child workers in this industry for the past few years as they have been engaged in schools, but also that a large proportion has been engaged in primary and middle school instead of working in this particular industry. The table below gives exact figures.

Correlation of Educational Qualification and Years of Employment

Education		Years of Employment										Total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
	Not literate	1	7.1	4	28.6	6	42.9	3	21.4			14	100.0
	Literate but below	5	17.9	10	35.7	11	39.3	2	7.1			28	100.0

	primary												
	Primary	23	10.3	72	32.3	38	17.0	32	14.3	58	26.0	223	100.0
	Middle	21	7.7	70	25.7	53	19.5	60	22.1	68	25.0	272	100.0
	Secondary	10	5.5	40	21.9	45	24.6	22	12.0	66	36.1	183	100.0
Total		60	8.3	196	27.2	153	21.3	119	16.5	192	26.7	720	100.0

There is a significant relationship between daily income and years of employment as the calculated chi-square value are greater than the critical value. The income increases with an increase in years of employment, signifying a preference on the part of employers for experienced workers

Correlation of Salaries/Wages and Years of Employment

		Daily Income i (Rs.)						Total	
		400.00		450.00		500.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Years of employment	2-3 years	7	13.5	3	5.8	42	80.8	52	100.0
	3-4 years	43	28.3	13	8.6	96	63.2	152	100.0
	4-5 years	43	31.9	11	8.1	81	60.0	135	100.0
	5-6 years	42	39.3	13	12.1	52	48.6	107	100.0
	6+years	40	21.6	10	5.4	135	73.0	185	100.0
total		175	27.7	50	7.9	406	64.3	631	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	25.427	8	**

Critical value: 20.090

Correlation of years of employment with daily income to find possible preference of experienced workers.

Another trend observed is that majority of the workers (44.4 per cent) took up present employment through their own efforts. Only a small per cent was influenced, assisted or forced by external factors (parents (4.3 per cent), relatives (3.5 per cent), third party members (2.6 per cent) and others (19.6 per cent)). The easy availability of short term and quick employment could have propelled this incidence. 61.3 per cent of the companies offer wages, and these are largely the small and medium sized mills where it is easier to find menial employment, especially for workers from the lowest and most marginalized social groups. The remaining offer salaries, and longer-term contracts: nearly 54 per cent sign contracts of employment with their current employers which lends a higher sense of security and permanence. Another reason could be the assistance with marriage expenditures, as that is a significant part of a woman's life here. The figure is significantly minute.However, only 0.6 per cent of the companies offer employment on the grounds of assisting with marriage expenditures. However, nearly 12 per cent of the companies do offer help in getting married; they offer cash (83 per cent), increase wages during the time frame of the marriage or offer gold. 0.6 per cent of the companies assist with educational expenditures, while 0.8 per cent assist with medical expenses of self or a member of the family.

Another trend which is noticeable is that nearly 79.3 per cent of workers are not local residents. They are immigrants from all parts of the country, with a large part from Bihar (26.6 per cent), Manipur (17.3 per cent), Aurangabad (10.3 per cent), Cuttack (5.3 per cent), Aizwal (4.4 per cent) and other cities with a range of 2 to 3 per cent each. Up until recently, the trend showed only local residents finding employment in these factories. The reasons for such a shift can be explored further, although the main reasons that the employers provide is adeptness, consistent hard work and severe need of work for such immigrants. However, none of the workers across all age groups reported paying a commission for taking up the particular job.

On an average, the workers work for 5 days a week (50.6 per cent), for 5 – 8 hours per day (47.4 per cent). However, nearly 77.2 per cent in the age group of 14 – 16 years of age work for 8 – 10

hours; this figure decreases with age. Those above 18 years of age work mostly for 5 – 8 hours only (57.8 per cent). Those who are literate only up till primary education work for 10 – 12 hours, and this figure again decreases with increasing literacy. Thus, more literate workers are clearly made to work less hours, or they are part of other industries that demand more technical and/or intellectual skillset. The workers engage in several activities at the mills, ranging from embroidery/stone pasting/Zari work (27.2 per cent), thread cutting (13.8 per cent), hand/machine stitching (31.5 per cent), bag/button stitching (37.1 per cent), packaging (9.9 per cent) and other tasks (7.9 per cent). Those in the 14-16 years group are mostly employed in bag/button stitching (57.7 per cent), while those in 18+ years group are employed most for hand/machine stitching (38.7 per cent). Thus, there is clear consideration on the part of employers for the wellbeing of younger workers by employing them in less menial and less dangerous tasks. The workers are entitled to up to 30 days of leave in a year (73.6 per cent), and are allowed to go to the native places once in six months (60.6 per cent). The wages range from 400 INR (24.3 per cent) in small and medium companies to 500 INR (56.4 per cent) in large companies. 9.7 per cent of workers have a PF component in their salaries, while 22.2 per cent receive an annual increment. There is almost no discrepancy in the wage and salary amount across all the listed companies.

Multi-activity response

		Embroidery/ stone pasting/ Zari work		Thread cutting		Hand/machine stitching		Bag/button stitching		Packaging		Others		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Age	14 – 16	29	19.5	4	2.7	39	26.2	86	57.7			2	1.3	149	100.0
	16 – 18	136	37.1	22	6.0	109	29.7	133	36.2	36	9.8	6	1.6	367	100.0
	18+	31	15.2	73	35.8	79	38.7	48	23.5	35	17.2	49	24.0	204	100.0
Total		196	27.2	99	13.8	227	31.5	267	37.1	71	9.9	57	7.9	720	100.0

About 55 per cent of workers stay at the factory premises, with their employers arranging their accommodation (67.9 per cent), even though for 49.5 per cent it is not compulsory to stay at the

factory premise. The remaining 45 per cent have arranged their own accommodations and use the public transport system (68.5 per cent), travel on foot (25.9 per cent) and use their own vehicles (0.9 per cent) to commute to their respective workplaces. A certain amount of agency can be seen here with regards to choosing one's own accommodation in a new city and at a new place of work. Nearly the entire sample survey responded positively to availability of safety and hygiene provisions at the workplaces and places of accommodation. With regard to spending time in the evenings after work, it was found out that 'Going outside' was the maximum response given by the respondents (88.8%). The response rate for 'Meeting friends' is 31.8%. Watching movie or 'Don't get enough time received low responses.

Other variables have been correlated to test for employment and work conditions. The number of hours worked, for example, has a significant relationship with the age brackets given in the questionnaire, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value. There could be possible discrimination on the basis of age for the number of hours worked for the workers.

Correlation of age with hours worked in a day

		No. of hours you work per day						total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	Correlation %		
Age	14 – 16 years	34	22.8	115	77.2			149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	189	51.5	133	36.2	45	12.3	367	100.0
	18+ years	118	57.8	56	27.5	30	14.7	204	100.0
Total		341	47.4	304	42.2	75	10.4	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	102.113	4	**

Critical value: 13.277

Correlation between age and number of hours worked per day to find presence of 'over work' among respondents.

Correlation of age with salary/wages paid

		Do you get the same salary as shown in the salary slip?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	149	100.0	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	367	100.0	367	100.0
	18+ years	204	100.0	204	100.0
Total		720	100.0	720	100.0

A 100 per cent response for receiving the same salary as shown in the official slip shows no deviations or outliers. Hence, no discrimination is observed here.

Correlation of age with choice of residential address

		Do you stay at the factory premises?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	72	48.3	77	51.7	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	195	53.1	172	46.9	367	100.0
	18+ years	129	63.2	75	36.8	204	100.0
total		396	55.0	324	45.0	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	8.791	2	*

Critical value: 5.9910

For those staying at the factory premises, age is a significant determinant, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value, thereby rejecting our null hypothesis that there is no relationship between staying at the factory premise and age.

Correlation of age with opportunity of going home

	How often do you go to your native place?				total	
	Once in four months	Once in six months	Once in a year	Once in two years	No.	%

		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	21	14.1	126	84.6	2	1.3			149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	63	17.2	186	50.7	117	31.9	1	.3	367	100.0
	18+ years	31	15.2	124	60.8	49	24.0			204	100.0
Total		115	16.0	436	60.6	168	23.3	1	.1	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	64.201	6	**

Critical value: 16.812

The calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value, which rejects our hypothesis that workers are allowed to go back home according to the contracts or a need-to basis without discriminating for age. Thus, there is some discrimination on freedom of movement on the basis of age.

Correlation of age with availability of safety provisions at workplace

		Are there provisions for safety and hygiene provided at your workplace?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	149	100.0	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	367	100.0	367	100.0
	18+ years	204	100.0	204	100.0
Total		720	100.0	720	100.0

There are safety and hygiene provisions for the workers at the workplace across all companies. No deviation from standard rules of safety is observed here.

Correlation of educational qualification with number of hours worked

		No. of hours you work per day						total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate	8	57.1			6	42.9	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	10	35.7	1	3.6	17	60.7	28	100.0
	Primary	105	47.1	103	46.2	15	6.7	223	100.0
	Middle	118	43.4	136	50.0	18	6.6	272	100.0
	Secondary	100	54.6	64	35.0	19	10.4	183	100.0
Total		341	47.4	304	42.2	75	10.4	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	115.702	8	**

Critical value: 20.090

The number of hours worked has a significant relationship with the educational qualifications of the workers. The maximum number of hours worked (10-12 hours) is observed for those that are literate but below primary level. Thus, some form of preference or bias is observed for workers with an average level of education.

Correlation of daily hours worked with residential address

		No. of hours you work per day						total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Do you stay at the factory premises?	Yes	159	40.2	184	46.5	53	13.4	396	100.0
	No	182	56.2	120	37.0	22	6.8	324	100.0

Total	341	47.4	304	42.2	75	10.4	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	20.847	2	**

Critical value: 9.210

The number of hours worked is also related to whether the respondent works at the factory. Those who do stay at the factory work more hours (8 – 10 hours, 46.5%) whereas those who don't work for less (5 – 8 hours, 56.2 %).

Correlation of salary/wage paid with educational qualification

		Do you get the same salary as shown in the salary slip?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
Education	Not literate	14	100.0	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	28	100.0	28	100.0
	Primary	223	100.0	223	100.0
	Middle	272	100.0	272	100.0
	Secondary	183	100.0	183	100.0
Total		720	100.0	720	100.0

A 100 per cent response was obtained with regard to receiving the same salary as shown in the official slip, along with the educational levels. Thus, no discrimination with regard to payment of wages was observed here.

Correlation of educational qualification with residential address

	Do you stay at the factory premises?	total

		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate	3	21.4	11	78.6	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	15	53.6	13	46.4	28	100.0
	Primary	122	54.7	101	45.3	223	100.0
	Middle	155	57.0	117	43.0	272	100.0
	Secondary	101	55.2	82	44.8	183	100.0
Total		396	55.0	324	45.0	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	6.842	4	Ns

Critical value: 9.488

No relationship was observed between the educational qualifications of the workers and whether they were staying at the factory premises, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

Correlation of educational qualification with opportunity to go to native place

		How often do you go to your native place?								total	
		Once in four months		Once in six months		Once in a year		Once in two years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate			8	57.1	6	42.9			14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	3	10.7	8	28.6	17	60.7			28	100.0
	Primary	35	15.	15	67.	37	16.			223	100.0

			7	1	7		6				
	Middle	34	12.5	187	68.8	50	18.4	1	.4	272	100.0
	Secondary	43	23.5	82	44.8	58	31.7			183	100.0
Total		115	16.0	436	60.6	168	23.3	1	.1	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	61.811	12	**

Critical value: 26.217

There is a significant relationship between the educational qualifications and the permission granted to visit the native place. Those, who are literate but below primary level are allowed to go back the most (60.7%) at least once a year. Those who get permission to go back home once in four months are those with a secondary level of education (23.5 %) The bias against those with just a primary level of education is evident here.

Correlation of educational qualification with availability of safety provisions

		Are there provisions for safety and hygiene provided at your workplace?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
Education	Not literate	14	100.0	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	28	100.0	28	100.0
	Primary	223	100.0	223	100.0
	Middle	272	100.0	272	100.0
	Secondary	183	100.0	183	100.0

Total	720	100.0	720	100.0

There are provisions for safety and hygiene for all workers at all companies across all educational levels. No significant relationship is observed here.

Correlation of hours worked with ways of entering employment

		No. of hours you work per day						total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	163	50.9	123	38.4	34	10.6	320	100.0
	Through parents	14	45.2	13	41.9	4	12.9	31	100.0
	Through relatives	14	56.0	7	28.0	4	16.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	61	33.2	94	51.1	29	15.8	184	100.0
	Third party	13	68.4	4	21.1	2	10.5	19	100.0
	Others	76	53.9	63	44.7	2	1.4	141	100.0
Total		341	47.4	304	42.2	75	10.4	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	37.063	10	**

Critical value: 23.209

Those who have taken up employment through their own efforts have a 5 – 8-hour workday (50.9%), while those who have been employed by other means have a reduced work day. There is no standard measure of working hours across the companies surveyed, and clearly some bias is evident from the greater Chi-square value calculated.

Correlation of ways of entering employment with salary paid

		Do you get the same salary as shown in the salary slip?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	320	100.0	320	100.0
	Through parents	31	100.0	31	100.0
	Through relatives	25	100.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	184	100.0	184	100.0
	Third party	19	100.0	19	100.0
	Others	141	100.0	141	100.0
Total		720	100.0	720	100.0

Again, there is no relationship between fair payment of wages and means of employment and no discriminatory bias is observed here.

Correlation of ways of entering employment with residential address

		Do you stay at the factory premises?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	171	53.4	149	46.6	320	100.0
	Through parents	8	25.8	23	74.2	31	100.0
	Through relatives	10	40.0	15	60.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	110	59.8	74	40.2	184	100.0
	Third party	15	78.9	4	21.1	19	100.0
	Others	82	58.2	59	41.8	141	100.0
Total		396	55.0	324	45.0	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	19.934	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

At least 54% per cent of workers who have taken up employment on their own stay at the factory premises, while the remaining have taken residence on their own in the city. Those who were assisted by their parents (74.2 %) and relatives (60 %) have a high per centage for finding accommodation on their own, away from the factory premises, showing some assistance with the moving out process. There is a significant relationship between the ways of entering in employment and staying independently outside the factory premises.

Correlation of ways of entering employment with opportunity to go to native place

		How often do you go to your native place?								total	
		Once in four months		Once in six months		Once in a year		Once in two years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	35	10.9	221	69.1	63	19.7	1	.3	320	100.0
	Through parents	2	6.5	14	45.2	15	48.4			31	100.0
	Through relatives	2	8.0	12	48.0	11	44.0			25	100.0
	Advertisements	43	23.4	88	47.8	53	28.8			184	100.0
	Third party			15	78.9	4	21.1			19	100.0
	Others	33	23.4	86	61.0	22	15.6			141	100.0
Total		115	16.0	436	60.6	168	23.3	1	.1	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	55.727	15	**

Critical value: 30.578

There is also a significant relationship between the ins of the employment and being granted permission to return to native place(s), the calculated Chi-square value being higher than the

critical value. Those employed through their own efforts have a significantly high representation of going back at least once in six months (69.1 %), second only to those workers where a third-party involvement is present (78.9 %). Thus, there is evidence of an active versus a passive level of agency observed here with respect to agency of movement.

Correlation of availability of safety provisions with ways of entering employment

		Are there provisions for safety and hygiene provided at your workplace?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	320	100.0	320	100.0
	Through parents	31	100.0	31	100.0
	Through relatives	25	100.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	184	100.0	184	100.0
	Third party	19	100.0	19	100.0
	Others	141	100.0	141	100.0
Total		720	100.0	720	100.0

There are no discriminatory biases for providing safety and hygiene measures at the workplace against the ins for the employment, thereby showing complete adherence to standardized safety protocols at workplaces.

To find out whether there was any third-party involvement like sub-brokers, and/or company's representatives in employing girl child labour under exploitative employment schemes, a null hypothesis was employed finding the correlation between age of the workers and Question _ of the questionnaire: "you have taken up this employment by choice or by force". Those who responded by Choice are distributed within 96.3 per cent of the total sample. The table given shows the exact figures.

Correlation between age and agency of employment

		You have taken up this employment by?				Total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	136	91.3	13	8.7	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	357	97.3	10	2.7	367	100.0
	18+ years	200	98.0	4	2.0	204	100.0
Total		693	96.3	27	3.8	720	100.0

A Chi-square test finding the correlation between age and agency in opting this employment was done, where the null hypothesis states that there is no correlation between these two variables. As the calculated value (13.09) is higher than the critical value (9.21), the hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is some correlation between the age of workers and whether they were employed by their choice or by force. The extent of this relationship is not fully examined, even though the figures show how a large majority of the workers from all age groups were employed by their own choice. One variable that likely affected this relationship is the influence of immediate family, friends and relatives in pushing for the individual to opt for the job and assisting with accessibility. This can be understood as a passive choice, and often due to both dire circumstances of poverty and the desire for a financially independent living urges these workers to take up this form of employment. This is especially visible in the case of local workers as opposed to immigrant workers, where only 19.7 per cent of local residents took up employment through their own efforts. Whereas, nearly 80.3 per cent of immigrant workers were employed through their own efforts. As immigrant workers are present in larger numbers too, their employment figures are visibly easier to deduce. There is significant help from other sources, advertisements, relatives and third-party members too. But for this demographic, the role of third-party members, which can be company representatives itself, is pertinent. They assure safety at the workplace and at place of residence, fulfillment of a contract (if any) and fair and timely payment of wages. For the local residents, the role of third-party members in influencing their decision is unclear, as company representatives at the most have offered

incentives (covering expenses for marriage, education, healthcare) in order to get more workers. Other explicit forms of coercion are either not made visible or they don't take place at all.

Correlation between nativity and factors influencing employment

		Are you a local resident?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	63	19.7	257	80.3	320	100.0
	Through parents	3	9.7	28	90.3	31	100.0
	Through relatives	13	52.0	12	48.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	37	20.1	147	79.9	184	100.0
	Third party	8	42.1	11	57.9	19	100.0
	Others	25	17.7	116	82.3	141	100.0
Total		149	20.7	571	79.3	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	23.520	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

The higher calculated value (23.52) than the critical value (15.08) shows the rejection of our null hypothesis and a positive correlative relationship between the nativity and factors influencing employment.

Correlation of age with choice of entering employment

		You have taken up this employment by?				Total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	136	91.3	13	8.7	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	357	97.3	10	2.7	367	100.0

	18+ years	200	98.0	4	2.0	204	100.0
total		693	96.3	27	3.8	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	13.095	2	**

Critical value: 9.210

There is a significant relationship between age of respondents and taking employment by force or by choice. 98 % of those above 18 years of age have taken the employment by choice, so have those between 16-18 years (97.3 %), and those between 14 – 16 years (91.3 %). There is a small number only for those who took employment by force, and these reasons are also explored as varied.

Correlation of age with number of leaves entitles in a year

		No of leaves entitled for in a year?						total	
		Up to 30 days		31-45 days		46-60 days		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	134	89.9			15	10.1	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	260	70.8	72	19.6	35	9.5	367	100.0
	18+ years	136	66.7	18	8.8	50	24.5	204	100.0
total		530	73.6	90	12.5	100	13.9	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	65.959	4	**

Critical value: 13.277

The hypothesis that age and number of leaves entitled in a year are not related is rejected as is evident in the larger Chi-square value calculated. Those in between 14 - 16 years of age are granted the highest number of leaves (89.9 %) and the number of leaves granted decreases gradually. For instance, 46 – 60 days of leave are granted to only 10.1 % of workers in between 14 – 16 years of age, to 9.5 % of workers in between 16 – 18 years of age, and 24.5 % to those above 18 years of age. Thus, both linear and vertical discrimination is observed here with regard to granting leave, the reasons of which are not explored here.

Correlation of age with frequency of payment of salary

		How often do you get your salary?						Total	
		Once in 45 days		Once in 2 months		Highly irregular		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	104	69.8	15	10.1	30	20.1	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	350	95.4	17	4.6			367	100.0
	18+ years	204	100.0					204	100.0
total		658	91.4	32	4.4	30	4.2	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	144.552	4	**

Critical value: 13.277

A significant relationship is observed between age of respondents and timely receiving the salary/wages. For those above 18 years of age, the wages are given once every 45 days. Whereas for 20.1 % of those between 14 – 16 years of age, receiving timely wages/salary is highly irregular.

Correlation of caste with daily income

		Income daily in Rs.						total	
		400.00		450.00		500.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Caste	General	65	31.9	9	4.4	130	63.7	204	100.0
	Forward			1	8.3	11	91.7	12	100.0
	SC	62	31.5	23	11.7	112	56.9	197	100.0
	ST	8	14.0	13	22.8	36	63.2	57	100.0
	OBC	36	22.9	4	2.5	117	74.5	157	100.0
	Others	4	100.0					4	100.0

total	175	27.7	50	7.9	406	64.3	631	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	55.161	10	**

Critical value: 23.209

A significant relationship is also observed between caste and daily income, as the calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value. Those of the general and forward caste groups have a higher daily income than the others.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D
No. of hours you work per day	790	7.00	13.00	9.8684	1.39177

It is seen that on average in TN sample, the workers work for about 9.87 hours per day with a standard deviation of 1.39. The minimum hours of work are 7 hours and the maximum hours of work is 13 hours per day.

		No. of hours you work per day		
		Mean	S.D	No.
Caste	General	9.77	1.28	210
	Forward	9.95	1.31	237
	SC	9.82	1.22	110
	ST	10.28	1.96	64
	OBC	9.75	1.46	169
Total		9.87	1.39	790

ANOVA for No. of hours worked per day

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.431	4	4.358	2.264	Ns
Within Groups	1510.878	785	1.925		
Total	1528.309	789			

Critical value: 2.383, Ns – Not significant

The mean and standard deviation values of number of hours worked in possible correlation with the caste of the respondent are also calculated. The greatest deviation is found for workers belonging to ST group, followed by OBC group. However, lowest deviation is seen for those of the SC group, and a slightly higher value for those of General group. This shows ambiguous terms of discrimination with respect to caste groups.

		No. of hours you work per day		
		Mean	S.D	No.
Education	Literate but below primary	9.75	1.63	53
	Primary	9.98	1.31	296
	Middle	9.78	1.45	278
	Secondary	9.86	1.35	163
Total		9.87	1.39	790

ANOVA for No. of hours worked per day

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.692	3	2.231	1.152	Ns
Within Groups	1521.617	786	1.936		
Total	1528.309	789			

Critical value: 2.616

Similarly, preference or discrimination on the basis of educational levels are also checked by calculating standard deviations from average working hours. The greatest deviation is found for those who have achieved an education below the primary level. Still, the deviation is not very significant and the number of hours worked are reasonably in line with the total average number of hours worked.

		No. of hours you work per day		
		Mean	S.D	No.
Critical value: 2.616 How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	9.88	1.35	247
	Through parents	10.06	1.30	164
	Through relatives	10.24	1.38	158

	Advertisements	9.40	1.45	170
	Third party	9.95	1.03	19
	Others	9.38	1.29	32
Total		9.87	1.39	790

ANOVA for No. of hours you work per day

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	73.215	5	14.643	7.890	**
Within Groups	1455.094	784	1.856		
Total	1528.309	789			

Critical value: 3.041

The analysis here shows that the workers who took up employment through advertisements and self-initiatives are working for slightly more hours than others. A greater sense of agency for being actively involved in one's work and life are observed here, thereby mitigating the odds of forced and/or child labour practice.

		No. of hours you work per day		
		Mean	S.D	No.
Are you a local resident?	Yes	9.91	1.35	462
	No	9.81	1.45	328
Total		9.87	1.39	790

t-test for Equality of Means

t	df	Sig.
.976	788	Ns

Critical value: 1.963

The above shown is an important observation: those who are local residents are made to work fewer hours than the average than those who are migrating. This shows the reduction of local child and forced labour and also the preference and demand for migrant labour.

Correlation of religion with daily income

	Income daily in Rs.	total

		400.00		450.00		500.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Religion	Hindu	99	31.0	25	7.8	195	61.1	319	100.0
	Muslim	46	22.4	25	12.2	134	65.4	205	100.0
	Christian	30	28.3			76	71.7	106	100.0
	Jain					1	100.0	1	100.0
total		175	27.7	50	7.9	406	64.3	631	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	18.451	6	**

Critical value: 16.812

Similarly, religion also has an influence on the daily income of the respondent. The calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

Correlation of age with annual increment

		Are you given annual increment?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	14 – 16 years	8	5.4	141	94.6	149	100.0
	16 – 18 years	75	20.4	292	79.6	367	100.0
	18+ years	77	37.7	127	62.3	204	100.0
Total		160	22.2	560	77.8	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	53.603	2	**

Critical value: 9.2100

The hypothesis that age and annual increment are not related is rejected as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value. Annual increment increases with the age of the respondents as only 5.4 % of those between 14 – 16 years of age receive an increment, 20.4 % of 16 – 18 years receive it, and 37.7 % of those 18 years and above receive the increment.

Correlation of educational qualification with choice of entering employment

		You have taken up this employment by?				total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate	13	92.9	1	7.1	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	27	96.4	1	3.6	28	100.0
	Primary	214	96.0	9	4.0	223	100.0
	Middle	264	97.1	8	2.9	272	100.0
	Secondary	175	95.6	8	4.4	183	100.0
total		693	96.3	27	3.8	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	1.188	4	Ns

Critical value: 9.488

There is no relationship observed between the educational qualifications and being employed by choice or by force, as the calculated Chi-square value is smaller than the critical value. The results vary across the qualifications and no specific pattern can be deduced from the observations.

Correlation of educational qualifications with number of entitled leaves per year

		No of leaves entitled for in a year?						total	
		Up to 30 days		31-45 days		46-60 days		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate	14	100.0					14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	28	100.0					28	100.0

	Primary	168	75.3	25	11.2	30	13.5	223	100.0
	Middle	182	66.9	65	23.9	25	9.2	272	100.0
	Secondary	138	75.4			45	24.6	183	100.0
Total		530	73.6	90	12.5	100	13.9	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	87.763	8	**

Critical value: 20.090

The educational qualifications and number of leaves entitled in a year are related, however, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

Correlation of frequency of payment of salary with educational qualification

		How often do you get your salary?						total	
		Once in 45 days		Once in 2 months		Highly irregular		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate	14	100.0					14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	28	100.0					28	100.0
	Primary	175	78.5	30	13.5	18	8.1	223	100.0
	Middle	260	95.6			12	4.4	272	100.0
	Secondary	181	98.9	2	1.1			183	100.0
total		658	91.4	32	4.4	30	4.2	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	82.941	8	**

Critical value: 20.090

Educational qualifications are also related with the regularities of salaries/wages received, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value. Workers who are ‘not literate’ and those who are ‘literate but below primary level’ receive their wages once in 45 days. For workers at other levels of education, this number varies. For those who have finished middle school, the

per centage is 95.6 %, while for those who have finished secondary school, it is 98.9 %. These numbers decrease as the measure of receiving wage increases, i.e., for more than 2 months and 'highly irregular', the per centages are small across all education levels.

Correlation of annual increment with educational qualification

		Are you given annual increment?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Not literate			14	100.0	14	100.0
	Literate but below primary	1	3.6	27	96.4	28	100.0
	Primary	30	13.5	193	86.5	223	100.0
	Middle	72	26.5	200	73.5	272	100.0
	Secondary	57	31.1	126	68.9	183	100.0
Total		160	22.2	560	77.8	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	30.832	4	**

Critical value: 13.277

There is also a significant relationship between educational qualifications and being given annual increments. Those who are not literate receive no increments at all. The per centages in the affirmative are small for other educational levels as well.

Correlation of choice of entering employment with ways of entering employment

		You have taken up this employment by?				total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	317	99.1	3	.9	320	100.0
	Through parents	19	61.3	12	38.7	31	100.0
	Through relatives	21	84.0	4	16.0	25	100.0

	Advertisements	182	98.9	2	1.1	184	100.0
	Third party	19	100.0			19	100.0
	Others	135	95.7	6	4.3	141	100.0
Total		693	96.3	27	3.8	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	126.832	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

There is a significant relationship between the various means by which workers entered the employment and whether respondents have taken the employment by force or by choice. For instance, 99.1 % of those who have taken it up by choice got it through their own efforts, while for 61.3 %, their parents assisted. Those who have taken it by force, 38.7 % of them were forced by their parents, 16 % by their relatives, and only 0.9% got in through their own efforts.

Correlation of the number of leaves entitled per year with ways of entering employment

		No of leaves entitled for in a year?						total	
		Up to 30 days		31-45 days		46-60 days		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	224	70.0	41	12.8	55	17.2	320	100.0
	Through parents	30	96.8	1	3.2			31	100.0
	Through relatives	24	96.0	1	4.0			25	100.0
	Advertisements	144	78.3	22	12.0	18	9.8	184	100.0
	Third-party	4	21.1	8	42.1	7	36.8	19	100.0
	Others	104	73.8	17	12.1	20	14.2	141	100.0
total		530	73.6	90	12.5	100	13.9	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	48.926	10	**

Critical value: 23.209

There is also a significant relationship between the ins of the employment and the number of leaves entitled in a year, as the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the critical value. Those who got in through their own efforts are granted 30 days of leave in a year, and for those who were assisted by their parents, relatives, and others the percentage is 96.8%, 96.0% and 73.8% respectively. This number decreases as the number of leaves granted increases.

Correlation of frequency of payment of wages with ways of entering employment

		How often do you get your salary?						total	
		Once in 45 days		Once in 2 months		Highly irregular		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	288	90.0	13	4.1	19	5.9	320	100.0
	Through parents	31	100.0					31	100.0
	Through relatives	24	96.0			1	4.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	170	92.4	11	6.0	3	1.6	184	100.0
	Third party	15	78.9	4	21.1			19	100.0
	Others	130	92.2	4	2.8	7	5.0	141	100.0
total		658	91.4	32	4.4	30	4.2	720	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	24.458	10	**

Critical value: 23.209

The ways of entering employment are also positively related to timely receiving of wages; those who got in through their own efforts receive their salaries once in 45 days 90% of the time, and it

is irregular only 5.9 % of the time. Similar is the relationship with receiving employment via help by parents, relatives and others, the once in 45 days is the general trend for these all.

Correlation of annual increment with ways of entering employment

		Are you given annual increment?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	79	24.7	241	75.3	320	100.0
	Through parents	1	3.2	30	96.8	31	100.0
	Through relatives	3	12.0	22	88.0	25	100.0
	Advertisements	44	23.9	140	76.1	184	100.0
	Third party	11	57.9	8	42.1	19	100.0
	Others	22	15.6	119	84.4	141	100.0
Total		160	22.2	560	77.8	720	100.0

0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	26.977	5	**

Critical value: 15.806

Annual increments are also positively related with the ins of the employment. There's a general negation of receiving the increments in the higher numbers, however, except for those where third-party members were involved in procuring the employment (57.9% of them receive their increment, as opposed to all the other options).

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS OF KARNATAKA

The surveyed data for Karnataka shows a larger share of workers in the 16 -18 years of age category, yet still lower than the respective in Tamil Nadu. This number is distributed over to the 14 -16 years of age and finally to the 18+ years of age. According to the premise mentioned earlier, companies in Tamil Nadu are less likely to engage in child labour practices. The next highest workers were of age bracket was 14 – 16 years, followed by 18+ years. However, the question as to when exactly these workers of 16 – 18 years began working is unclear, as is the case with Tamil Nadu, and it extends beyond the scope of the study.

Age of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
12 – 14 years	87	11.0
14 – 16 years	229	29.0
16 – 18 years	314	39.7
18+ years	160	20.3
Total	790	100.0

The table shows the average ages of the respondents.

Years of employment

	Frequency	per cent
2-3 years	25	3.2
3-4 years	40	5.1
4-5 years	58	7.3
5-6 years	74	9.4
6+ years	593	75.1
Total	790	100.0

The table shows average years of employment of the respondents along with their frequency.

Correlation of years of employment with age of respondents

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	6	6.9	11	12.6	9	10.3	12	13.8	49	56.3	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	12	5.2	18	7.9	29	12.7	32	14.0	138	60.3	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	7	2.2	10	3.2	18	5.7	21	6.7	258	82.2	314	100.0
	18+ years			1	.6	2	1.3	9	5.6	148	92.5	160	100.0
total		25	3.2	40	5.1	58	7.3	74	9.4	593	75.1	790	100.0

The table shows the correlation of years of employment with age of respondents.

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	84.952	12	**

Critical value: 26.217

A Chi-square test was done to compare years of employment and age. The calculated value being bigger than the critical value shows a significant relationship between the two.

As previously understood, the years of present employment and previous employment can also give a close estimate of the age of the workers, so as to identify whether they were children when they began working. About 37 % have been working in present employment for 5 years or more. About 26 % have been working in their previous employment for 5 years or more. But this figure is fairly distributed across the number of years worked previously. There is no significant proof that a large portion of the workers or a majority started working as children.

The table shows the number of years (s) respondent has worked in present employment.

Number of years of present employment

	Frequenc y	per cent
1-2 years	95	12.0
2-3 years	106	13.4
3-5 years	296	37.5
Above 5 years	293	37.1
Total	790	100.0

Other variables were correlated with the age of respondents to note for discriminatory behaviour on the basis of age. Some of these were payment of timely wages, payment of a commission for employment, the agency of employment, permission required to visit the native place, activities are undertaken at the company, and so on. These calculated values are shown below.

Correlation of age with salary/wages receives

		Do you get salary or wages?				total	
		Salary		Wages		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years			87	100.0	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	144	62.9	85	37.1	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	282	89.8	32	10.2	314	100.0
	18+ years	139	86.9	21	13.1	160	100.0
Total		565	71.5	225	28.5	790	100.0

The table shows correlation of age with receiving salary versus wages for respondents.

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	296.943	3	**

Critical value:11.345

A significant relationship is observed between receiving salary or wages and the age of respondents. Those in the age group of 12 – 14 years receive only wages, whereas 89.8% of those in 14 – 16 years receive a salary. Thus, granting financial independence is commensurate with the age of the workers, irrespective of the amount of work, or the kind of work done.

Correlation of age with payment of a commission

		Did you pay any commission for taking up the job?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	25	28.7	62	71.3	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	32	14.0	197	86.0	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	12	3.8	302	96.2	314	100.0
	18+ years	13	8.1	147	91.9	160	100.0
total		82	10.4	708	89.6	790	100.0

The table shows correlation figures of age with payment of a commission for taking up present employment.

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	50.084	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

A small per cent of respondents across all age groups paid some amount of commission to take up the employment. Whether these were paid to a third party related to the company or via relatives and family is unclear.

Correlation of age with different wage/salary brackets across companies surveyed

		If yes, how much?								total	
		500.00		600.00		700.00		1000.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years			5	20.0	2	8.0	18	72.0	25	100.0
	14 – 16 years	3	9.4			9	28.1	20	62.5	32	100.0
	16 – 18 years	3	25.0	8	66.7	1	8.3			12	100.0
	18+ years	1	7.7	12	92.3					13	100.0
total		7	8.5	25	30.5	12	14.6	38	46.3	82	100.0

The table shows the correlation of age with the nativity of respondents.

		Are you a local resident?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	35	40.2	52	59.8	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	141	61.6	88	38.4	229	100.0
	16 – 18	17	57.	13	43.	31	100.

	years	9	0	5	0	4	0
	18+ years	107	66.9	53	33.1	160	100.0
Total		462	58.5	328	41.5	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is 36.12.			

Across different age groups, the greater number of workers are local residents. Even with an increase in age, the number of local residents increases, thus showing that child labourers are not employed from within the city or state, but from other states.

The table shows the correlation of age with the accommodation arrangements of respondents.

		Who arranged your accommodation?				total	
		On my own		By my employer		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	27	31.0	60	69.0	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	129	56.3	100	43.7	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	182	58.0	132	42.0	314	100.0
	18+ years	77	48.1	83	51.9	160	100.0
total		415	52.5	375	47.5	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	22.409	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

The chi-square value is greater than the critical value between age and agency of accommodation. However, there is not a significant difference in between those who booked a residence on their own vis-à-vis those who were provided for by their employer, except for those in the youngest age group, 12-14 years. For those between 14 – 16 years, the ratio is 56.3: 43.7, for 16 – 18 years, its 58:42 and for those above 18 years of age, it is 48:51.

The table shows correlation of age with ease of agency of movement.

		How easy it is to get permission to visit your house from the employees?						total	
		Easy		Not so easy		Difficult		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	28	32.2	33	37.9	26	29.9	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	71	31.0	123	53.7	35	15.3	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	106	33.8	149	47.5	59	18.8	314	100.0
	18+ years	24	15.0	99	61.9	37	23.1	160	100.0
total		229	29.0	404	51.1	157	19.9	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	29.449	6	**

Critical value: 16.812

There is a significant relationship between age and permission required to visit home, the chi-square value being greater than the critical value. The most common trend is that it is not so easy to visit home, irrespective of age.

Activity undertaken-Multiple Response

		Embroidery stone pasting/ Zari work		Thread cutting		Hand/machine stitching		Bag/button stitching		Packaging		Others		total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Age	12 – 14 years	27	31.0	24	27.6	1	1.1	19	21.8	16	18.4			87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	30	13.1	85	37.1	7	3.1	26	11.4	68	29.7	13	5.7	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	57	18.2	113	36.0	30	9.6	38	12.1	70	22.3	6	1.9	314	100.0
	18+ years	54	33.8	30	18.8	35	21.9	24	15.0	15	9.4	2	1.3	160	100.0
total		168	21.3	252	31.9	73	9.2	107	13.5	169	21.4	21	2.7	790	100.0

A multiple-response cannot be aggregated and hence a chi-square relationship could not be observed between the age of respondents and the activity undertaken.

Correlation of age with contract-based employment terms of respondents.

	Did you sign a contract of employment with your current employer?				total	
	Yes		No		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		

Age	12 – 14 years	14	16.1	73	83.9	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	177	77.3	52	22.7	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	294	93.6	20	6.4	314	100.0
	18+ years	140	87.5	20	12.5	160	100.0
Total		625	79.1	165	20.9	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	256.434	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

A significant relationship was also observed between age and signing a contract with the employer. Nearly 84 % of those in 12 – 14 years did not sign it, whereas 93.6% of those between 16 – 18 years did sign one. This shows the professional significance attached to age.

The caste, religion, educational qualifications, occupation of parent(s)/guardian, number of family members, and number of earning family members are shown below. These statistics find their relevance mainly with regard to other measures of working conditions, or employment practices, as we shall see in the upcoming sections.

Caste groups of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
General	210	26.6
Forward	237	30.0
SC	110	13.9
ST	64	8.1

OBC	169	21.4
Total	790	100.0

Correlation of caste with years of employment

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Caste	General	9	4.3	10	4.8	27	12.9	21	10.0	143	68.1	210	100.0
	Forward	3	1.3	5	2.1	10	4.2	14	5.9	205	86.5	237	100.0
	SC	4	3.6	8	7.3	7	6.4	16	14.5	75	68.2	110	100.0
	ST	3	4.7	7	10.9	5	7.8	8	12.5	41	64.1	64	100.0
	OBC	6	3.6	10	5.9	9	5.3	15	8.9	129	76.3	169	100.0
total		25	3.2	40	5.1	58	7.3	74	9.4	593	75.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	41.124	16	**

Critical value: 32.000

Caste of respondents is related to the years of employment of the respondents. Those who have worked for more than 6 years belong to the general or forward caste.

Religion of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
Hindu	335	42.4
Muslim	326	41.3
Christian	69	8.7
Jain	35	4.4
Others	25	3.2
Total	790	100.0

Correlation of religion with years of employment

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Religion	Hindu	8	2.4	17	5.1	37	11.0	30	9.0	243	72.5	335	100.0
	Muslim	14	4.3	16	4.9	10	3.1	36	11.0	250	76.7	326	100.0
	Christian	2	2.9	5	7.2	8	11.6	2	2.9	52	75.4	69	100.0
	Jain	1	2.9	2	5.7	3	8.6	3	8.6	26	74.3	35	100.0
	Others							3	12.0	22	88.0	25	100.0
total		25	3.2	40	5.1	58	7.3	74	9.4	593	75.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	27.996	16	*

Critical value: 26.296

Religion of respondents is also related to the years of employment. Other religions than the ones explicitly mentioned have been working for the highest number of years.

The table shows the education level of respondents.

	Frequency	per cent
Literate but below primary	53	6.7
Primary	296	37.5
Middle	278	35.2
Secondary	163	20.6
Total	790	100.0

The table shows occupations of parent/guardian

	Frequency	per cent
Agriculture	196	24.8
Daily wage worker	278	35.2
Private sector job	134	17.0
Government job	182	23.0
Total	790	100.0

The table shows educational qualifications of parent/guardian of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
Not literate	48	6.1
Literate without formal training	42	5.3

Literate but below primary	147	18.6
Primary	229	29.0
Middle	177	22.4
Secondary	147	18.6
Total	790	100.0

Number of family members of respondents.

	Frequency	per cent
1	2	.3
2	98	12.4
3	239	30.3
4	305	38.6
5	119	15.1
6	27	3.4
Total	790	100.0

Number of earning members in the family

	Frequency	per cent
1	62	7.8
2	335	42.4
3	304	38.5
4	78	9.9
5	11	1.4
Total	790	100.0

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Companies the respondents work in/have worked in

	Frequenc y	per cent
Abhidev Exports	10	1.3

Aishwarya Uniforms and Fashion	10	1.3
AJ Polymers Private Limited	50	6.3
Annamalai Apparels Private Limited	40	5.1
Aquachem India Private Limited	25	3.2
AZ Firdouse Collection	10	1.3
Bells India	10	1.3
Dress Code	10	1.3
Federal Brands Limited	10	1.3
Indian Designs	20	2.5
Kareems Silk International Limited	25	3.2
Karnataka Saree Center	25	3.2
Lunnar Exports	25	3.2
Maa Bhavani Silks	10	1.3
MAF Clothing	50	6.3
Mannars Silk	25	3.2
Mantra Apparels	10	1.3
MB Clothings	10	1.3
Mereena Creations	26	3.3
Modenik Lifestyle Private Limited	25	3.2
Multi Sales Corporation	10	1.3
Mysore Jain Garments	10	1.3
N Ranga Rao and Sons Private Limited	50	6.3
Natural Textiles Private Limited	10	1.3
NKJ Enterprises	25	3.2
Page Industries	50	6.3
Prannural Fabs	25	3.2
Prateek Apparels Private Limited	25	3.2
Ravikaran Sports	10	1.3
Shell Apparels Private Limited	25	3.2
Smirath Apparels	10	1.3

Sri Devi Garments	10	1.3
Srivara Industries	25	3.2
Sunrise Wears	10	1.3
Texport Industries Private Limited	49	6.2
Trimax Apparels	10	1.3
Turquoise and Gold Apparels Private Limited	10	1.3
Total	790	100.0

The table above shows the list of companies surveyed for the project. It includes small, medium and large companies.

Occupations respondents were employed in before joining present employment

	Frequency	per cent
worked an grocery store	2	.3
worked as house help	176	22.3
worked as tuition teacher	81	10.3
worked at another mill	14	1.8
worked at farm	14	1.8
worked at grocery store	46	5.8
worked at local boutique	24	3.0
worked in another mill	191	24.2
worked in grocery store	31	3.9
worked in local boutique	49	6.2
worked on another mill	7	.9
worked on farm	150	19.0
worked ri grocery store	2	.3

worked vi grocery store	3	.4
Total	790	100.0

Number of year(s) the respondents worked in their previous employment

	Frequency	per cent
Up to 1 year	41	5.2
1-2 years	165	20.9
2-3 years	204	25.8
3-4 years	176	22.3
5 Years and above	204	25.8
Total	790	100.0

For the first objective, i.e., finding employment practices of labour in the textile and garment industries of Karnataka (Bangalore, Mysore), we look at whether workers submitted the proof of citizenship, proof of age, and an adolescent certificate obtained from a certified medical professional. For the first, the results showed a 100 % positive rate. For the second, 86.7 % of workers responded positively. For the third question, only 63.4 % responded positively, which means 36.6 % did not obtain a certified proof of age from a certified medical professional. This could mean that either there was difficulty in obtaining the certificate due to reasons of accessibility, or there was lackadaisical behavior on part of both employer and employee during the time of submission.

Nearly 80 % of the workers took up present employment by choice, and there was minimal involvement in terms of incentives provided by the companies. 5.2 % promised to take care of marriage expenditures, 16.3 % promised to take care of educational expenses, and 8.6 % promised to assist with medical expenses of family or self. That being said, it was a majority of parents (45 %) who forced the workers (20.1 %) into employment, using one reason or another and the company provided further help. This is also visible in how 21.9 % of workers were assisted with wedding expenditures in terms of being paid cash by the employers (91.3 %).

The various means by which respondents took up present employment

	Frequency	per cent
Through own efforts	247	31.3
Through parents	164	20.8
Through relatives	158	20.0
Advertisements	170	21.5
Third party	19	2.4
Others	32	4.1
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of employment by choice versus by force

	Frequency	per cent
By choice	631	79.9
By force	159	20.1
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of forced employment

	Frequency	per cent
Parents	72	45.3
Others	59	37.1
NA	28	17.6
Total	159	100.0

The table shows how the respondents were forced to take up employment

	Frequenc	per

	y	cent
Company promised to take care of marriage expenditure	41	5.2
Company promised to take care of educational expenses	129	16.3
Company promised to take care of medical expenses of self or family	68	8.6
NA	552	69.9
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of those who agreed to take help with marriage expenditures

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	173	21.9
No	617	78.1
Total	790	100.0

Incentives provided by company to join employment

	Frequenc y	per cent
Company takes care of entire marriage expenditure	1	.6
Company pays cash	158	91.3
Company provides gold	10	5.8
NA	4	2.3
Total	173	100.0

About 60 % of the workers are paid their salaries/wages once in 45 days, commensurate with 4 – 6 working days in a week and anywhere between 5 – 12+ hours of work in a day. Standard leave periods of 30 days in a year are entitled to all workers. 87.5 % are granted the same salary as shown in the salary slips, and the remaining 12.5 % are not paid the same salary. The difference is between INR100 – 1000 but the reasons behind this deduction are often not given. About 59.6

% are not given an annual increment, and 63.8 % of all workers have a PF component in their salary.

Frequency of salary versus wages

	Frequency	per cent
Salary	565	71.5
Wages	225	28.5
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of payment of salary

	Frequency	per cent
Weekly	225	28.5
Monthly	565	71.5
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of receiving salary/wages

	Frequenc y	per cent
Once in 45 days	476	60.3
Once in 2 months	106	13.4
Highly irregular	208	26.3
Total	790	100.0

Wage brackets

	Frequency	per cent
500.00	7	8.5

600.00	25	30.5
700.00	12	14.6
1000.00	38	46.3
Total	82	100.0

Working days of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
4.00	19	2.4
5.00	420	53.2
6.00	351	44.4
Total	790	100.0

The table above shows number of working days of respondents. This data is collected across small, medium and large companies.

Working hours of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
5 – 8 hours	67	8.5
8 – 10 hours	340	43.0
10 – 12 hours	356	45.1
12 + hours	27	3.4
Total	790	100.0

The table above shows the number of hours the respondents work in a day.

Frequency of leaves allotted

	Frequency	per cent
Up to 30 days	790	100.0

Payment of correct salary versus wages

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	691	87.5
No	99	12.5
Total	790	100.0

The table above shows whether the respondents receive the same salary as is shown in their salary slip.

	Frequency	per cent
NA	691	87.5
100.00	10	1.3
500.00	28	3.5
600.00	12	1.5
700.00	32	4.1
1000.00	17	2.2
Total	790	100.0

The table above shows the average difference in wages received on salary slip.

	Frequency	per cent
NA	691	87.5
1.00	50	6.3
2.00	49	6.2
Total	790	100.0

The table shows the reason for the deduction of wages. The highest frequency is for ‘NA’ which shows that respondents don’t know why their salaries are being deducted.

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	319	40.4
No	471	59.6
Total	790	100.0

The table shows whether respondents are given annual increment as part of salaries.

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	504	63.8
No	286	36.2
Total	790	100.0

The table shows whether the respondents have a PF component in their salaries or not.

There are not much significant divergences for the first objective from the trends observed in Tamil Nadu, especially with regards to demographic trends. Major differences, howsoever minute, are observed with regards to industry practices itself.

As previously understood, the years of present employment and previous employment can also give a close estimate of the age of the workers, so to identify whether they were children when they began working. About 37 % have been working in present employment for 5 years or more. About 26 % have been working in their previous employment for 5 years or more. But this figure is fairly distributed across number of years worked previously. There is no significant proof that a large portion of the workers or a majority started working as children.

	Frequency	per cent
1-2 years	95	12.0
2-3 years	106	13.4

3-5 years	296	37.5
Above 5 years	293	37.1
Total	790	100.0

The table shows the number of years and the respective frequency of present employment.

		Years of employment										total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary							4	7.5	49	92.5	53	100.0
	Primary	9	3.0	20	6.8	21	7.1	28	9.5	218	73.6	296	100.0
	Middle	11	4.0	16	5.8	22	7.9	34	12.2	195	70.1	278	100.0
	Secondary	5	3.1	4	2.5	15	9.2	8	4.9	131	80.4	163	100.0
total		25	3.2	40	5.1	58	7.3	74	9.4	593	75.1	790	100.0

We also looked at years of employment and education level, to look whether age determines employability.

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	23.675	12	*

Critical value: 21.026

As the calculated chi-square value is higher than a critical value, it shows the presence of a significant relationship.

Similarly, other variables were compared with the education levels that could signify the effect of literacy levels and corresponding age with employability conditions at the workplace. Some of them are shown below.

		Do you get salary or wages?				Total	
		Salary		Wages		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	31	58.5	22	41.5	53	100.0
	Primary	192	64.9	104	35.1	296	100.0
	Middle	216	77.7	62	22.3	278	100.0
	Secondary	126	77.3	37	22.7	163	100.0
Total		565	71.5	225	28.5	790	100.0

The table shows the correlation of education with payment of salary versus wages.

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	18.736	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

A significant relationship is observed between literacy levels and payment of salary versus wages. The calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

		Did you pay any commission for taking up the job?				Total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below	6	11.3	47	88.7	53	100.

	primary						0
	Primary	53	17.9	243	82.1	296	100.0
	Middle	16	5.8	262	94.2	278	100.0
	Secondary	7	4.3	156	95.7	163	100.0
total		82	10.4	708	89.6	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	30.951	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

		If yes, how much?								Total	
		500.00		600.00		700.00		1000.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary			6	100.0					6	100.0
	Primary	1	1.9	12	22.6	11	20.8	29	54.7	53	100.0
	Middle	5	31.3	1	6.3	1	6.3	9	56.3	16	100.0
	Secondary	1	14.3	6	85.7					7	100.0
Total		7	8.5	25	30.5	12	14.6	38	46.3	82	100.0

Even though the education levels of respondents are also related to the payment of commission for employment, as can be seen in the data, a large portion have not paid any commission, irrespective of age.

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	45.057	9	**

Critical value: 21.666

		Are you a local resident?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	20	37.7	33	62.3	53	100.0
	Primary	168	56.8	128	43.2	296	100.0
	Middle	162	58.3	116	41.7	278	100.0
	Secondary	112	68.7	51	31.3	163	100.0
Total		462	58.5	328	41.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	16.788	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

The nativity of the workers is also related with their education levels, although to a small extent. This is why the per centages do not have a wide difference, except for the ratios of literate but primary to being a native (37.7:62.3). Ratios of primary education and nativity, middle school education and nativity and secondary school education and nativity are 56.8:43.2, 58.3:41.7 and 68.7:31.3 respectively.

		Who arranged your accommodation?				total	
		On my own		By my employer		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	23	43.4	30	56.6	53	100.0
	Primary	159	53.7	137	46.3	296	100.0
	Middle	143	51.4	135	48.6	278	100.0
	Secondary	90	55.2	73	44.8	163	100.0
total		415	52.5	375	47.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	2.544	3	Ns

Critical value: 7.815

Here, no significant relationship is observed between education levels and agency of accommodation, as the calculated chi-square value is smaller than the critical value.

		How easy it is to get permission to visit your house from the employees?						total	
		Easy		Not so easy		Difficult		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	23	43.4	15	28.3	15	28.3	53	100.0
	Primary	78	26.4	171	57.8	47	15.9	29	100.

								6	0
	Middle	64	23.0	146	52.5	68	24.5	278	100.0
	Secondary	64	39.3	72	44.2	27	16.6	163	100.0
Total		229	29.0	404	51.1	157	19.9	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	31.571	6	**

Critical value: 16.812

A significant relationship is also observed between education levels and permission required to go back home.

Activity undertaken-Multiple Response

		Embroidery stone pasting/ Zari work		Thread cutting		Hand or machine stitching		Bag/button stitching		Packaging		Others		total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Education	Literate but below primary	1	1.9	30	56.6			5	9.4	10	18.9	7	13.2	53	100.0
	Primary	64	21.6	97	32.8	16	5.4	48	16.2	57	19.3	14	4.7	296	100.0
	Middle	56	20.1	77	27.	29	10.4	33	11.9	83	29.9			278	100.0

					7										
	Secondary	47	28.8	48	29.4	28	17.2	21	12.9	19	11.7			163	100.0
Total		168	21.3	252	31.9	73	9.2	107	13.5	169	21.4	21	2.7	790	100.0

As mentioned earlier, a correlation test is not possible for a multi-response question. However, more variables as shown below point to a significant relationship to show the working conditions of workers.

		Did you sign a contract of employment with your current employer?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	34	64.2	19	35.8	53	100.0
	Primary	206	69.6	90	30.4	296	100.0
	Middle	241	86.7	37	13.3	278	100.0
	Secondary	144	88.3	19	11.7	163	100.0
total		625	79.1	165	20.9	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	41.476	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

The table shows the correlation of education with contract-based employment of respondents. As the chi-square value is greater than the critical value, there is a significant relationship between the two variables.

		Years of employment										Total	
		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5-6 years		6+years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	11	4.5	12	4.9	21	8.5	19	7.7	184	74.5	247	100.0
	Through parents	6	3.7	16	9.8	15	9.1	23	14.0	104	63.4	164	100.0
	Through relatives	5	3.2	8	5.1	9	5.7	13	8.2	123	77.8	158	100.0
	Advertisements	3	1.8	4	2.4	13	7.6	19	11.2	131	77.1	170	100.0
	Third party									19	100.0	19	100.0
	Others									32	100.0	32	100.0
Total		25	3.2	40	5.1	58	7.3	74	9.4	593	75.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	39.402	20	**

Critical value: 37.566

The table above shows the correlation of the ways of entering present employment with the number of years of employment. This shows the motivation levels and agency of choice of work of the respondents. The chi-square value is greater than the critical value and hence, there is a strong relationship between the two variables.

		Do you get salary or wages?				Total	
		Salary		Wages		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	191	77.3	56	22.7	247	100.0
	Through parents	110	67.1	54	32.9	164	100.0
	Through relatives	94	59.5	64	40.5	158	100.0
	Advertisements	138	81.2	32	18.8	170	100.0
	Third party	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
	Others	19	59.4	13	40.6	32	100.0
Total		565	71.5	225	28.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	27.090	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

The table shows various ways of entering employment and receiving salary or wages. This shows the agency of financial independence of workers. Again, as the chi-square value is greater than the critical value, there is a relationship between the two variables.

	Did you pay any commission for taking up the job?	total

		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	18	7.3	229	92.7	247	100.0
	Through parents	10	6.1	154	93.9	164	100.0
	Through relatives	29	18.4	129	81.6	158	100.0
	Advertisements	12	7.1	158	92.9	170	100.0
	Third party	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
	Others	7	21.9	25	78.1	32	100.0
Total		82	10.4	708	89.6	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	32.314	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

The table shows ins of present employment and payment of a commission for present employment. There is a strong correlation between the two variables.

		If yes, how much?								total	
		500.00		600.00		700.00		1000.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	6	33.3					12	66.7	18	100.0
	Through	1	10.	7	70.			2	20.	10	100.

	parents		0		0				0		0
	Through relatives			13	44.8			16	55.2	29	100.0
	Advertisements					4	33.3	8	66.7	12	100.0
	Third party			5	83.3	1	16.7			6	100.0
	Others					7	100.0			7	100.0
total		7	8.5	25	30.5	12	14.6	38	46.3	82	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	98.221	15	**

Critical value: 30.578

The table above shows ways of entering present employment and amount of commission paid for present employment.

		Are you a local resident?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	148	59.9	99	40.1	247	100.0
	Through parents	101	61.6	63	38.4	164	100.0
	Through relatives	81	51.3	77	48.7	158	100.0
	Advertisements	11	66.	57	33.	17	100.

		3	5		5	0	0
	Third party	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
	Others	12	37.5	20	62.5	32	100.0
total		462	58.5	328	41.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.89.			

		Who arranged your accommodation?				total	
		On my own		By my employer		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	131	53.0	116	47.0	247	100.0
	Through parents	87	53.0	77	47.0	164	100.0
	Through relatives	64	40.5	94	59.5	158	100.0
	Advertisements	101	59.4	69	40.6	170	100.0
	Third party	12	63.2	7	36.8	19	100.0
	Others	20	62.	12	37.	32	100.

			5		5		0
Total		415	52.5	375	47.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	14.568	5	*

Critical value: 11.070

The table shows the ways of entering present employment and accommodation arrangements of respondents. There is a correlation between the two as it shows the agency of choice with respect to residence and lifestyle.

		How easy it is to get permission to visit your house from the employees?						total	
		Easy		Not so easy		Difficult		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	75	30.4	132	53.4	40	16.2	247	100.0
	Through parents	55	33.5	82	50.0	27	16.5	164	100.0
	Through relatives	25	15.8	69	43.7	64	40.5	158	100.0
	Advertisements	52	30.6	95	55.9	23	13.5	170	100.0
	Third party	6	31.6	11	57.9	2	10.5	19	100.0
	Others	16	50.0	15	46.9	1	3.1	32	100.0

Total	229	29.0	404	51.1	157	19.9	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	64.182	10	**

Critical value: 23.209

The table shows the correlation of ins of present employment with permission required to visit home. A strong correlation is observed here.

Activity undertaken-Multiple Response

		Embroidery stone pasting/ Zari work		Thread cutting		Hand/machine stitching		Bag/button stitching		Packaging		Others		total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	49	19.8	101	40.9	9	3.6	31	12.6	51	20.6	6	2.4	247	100.0
	Through parents	37	22.6	54	32.9	11	6.7	18	11.0	38	23.2	6	3.7	164	100.0
	Through relatives	35	22.2	36	22.8	16	10.1	26	16.5	45	28.5			158	100.0
	Advertisements	37	21.8	53	31.2	30	17.6	8	4.7	33	19.4	9	5.3	170	100.0

	Third party	3	15.8	1	5.3	3	15.8	10	52.6	2	10.5			19	100.0
	Others	7	21.9	7	21.9	4	12.5	14	43.8					32	100.0
Total		168	21.3	252	31.9	73	9.2	107	13.5	169	21.4	21	2.7	790	100.0

The table shows the variety of activities undertaken at companies by respondents.

Correlation of contract-based employment with the ways of entering employment

		Did you sign a contract of employment with your current employer?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	207	83.8	40	16.2	247	100.0
	Through parents	126	76.8	38	23.2	164	100.0
	Through relatives	106	67.1	52	32.9	158	100.0
	Advertisements	149	87.6	21	12.4	170	100.0
	Third party	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
	Others	24	75.0	8	25.0	32	100.0
Total		625	79.1	165	20.9	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	26.770	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

The table shows correlation of ins of employment with contract-based employment. A strong correlation is observed between the two variables.

For the second objective; to identify employment and work conditions of girl child labour in the industry; we observe firstly whether the workplace of the workers was on the company factory itself or away from the factory premises. 56.3 % worked away from the factory premises, and 43.7 % worked on the company factory. Only 39.7 % lived on the factory premises, with nearly 60.3 % finding accommodation on their own, outside of the factory premises, as for 16.9 % of the workers it was compulsory to stay on the premises.

Location of work of respondents

	Frequency	per cent
Company factory	345	43.7
Away from factory premises	445	56.3
Total	790	100.0

Accommodation arrangements of respondents

	Frequenc y	per cent
On my own	415	52.5
By my employer	375	47.5
Total	790	100.0

Accommodation at place of work or elsewhere

	Frequency	per cent

Yes	314	39.7
No	476	60.3
Total	790	100.0

Frequency of compulsory living at the factory

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	261	83.1
No	53	16.9
Total	314	100.0

The workers are allowed to go to their native places once every six months, and this number is the highest (57.2 %), followed by once in a year (23 %), and then once in every four months (15.2 %). However, for 51.1 % of the workers, it is not so easy to get the necessary permission to visit their household. For nearly all of the respondents, there are adequate safety and hygiene provisions at the workplace. 79.1 % of the workers signed a contract of employment with their current employer, and 86.2 % of them will be able to leave this employment if the situation so arises. This signifies adequate financial independence of the worker and agency of employment that allows them to opt for a different, better opportunity.

Frequency of visiting native places

	Frequency	per cent
Once a month	28	3.5
Once in four months	120	15.2
Once in six months	452	57.2
Once in a year	182	23.0
Once in two years	8	1.0
Total	790	100.0

Ease of visiting native places

	Frequency	per cent
Easy	229	29.0
Not so easy	404	51.1
Difficult	157	19.9
Total	790	100.0

Various responses of spending time post work

	No.	%
Go outside	241	30.5
Meet friends	271	34.3
Watch a movie	202	25.6
Don't get enough time	76	9.6

Availability of safety and hygiene provisions at the workplace

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	790	100.0

Frequency of contract-based employment

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	625	79.1
No	165	20.9
Total	790	100.0

Ease of leaving employment if need be

	Frequency	per cent
Yes	681	86.2
No	109	13.8
Total	790	100.0

The range of activities of the workers differs variously, as shown in the table.

Activity undertaken-Multiple Response

	No.	%
Embroidery stone pasting/Zari work	168	21.3
Thread cutting	252	31.9
Hand/machine stitching	73	9.2
Bag/button stitching	107	13.5
Packaging	169	21.4
Others	21	2.7

We also looked at variables such as the number of hours worked, caste, religion, receiving the same salary as shown in the slip, agency of accommodation, permission required to go back home, hygiene and safety provisions and with the age of respondents, to look for discriminatory conditions at the workplace. Similar variables were also tested with education levels to look for discrimination on the basis of literacy levels.

		No. of hours you work per day								total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		12 + hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14			25	28.	53	60.	9	10.		100.

	years				7		9		3		0		
	14 – 16 years	26	11.4	104	45.4	91	39.7	8	3.5		100.0		
	16 – 18 years	35	11.1	130	41.4	148	47.1	1	.3	314	100.0		
	18+ years	6	3.8	81	50.6	64	40.0	9	5.6	160	100.0	87	
Total		67	8.5	340	43.0	356	45.1	27	3.4	790	100.0		229

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	54.059	9	**

Critical value:21.666

The number of hours worked is related to the age group of respondents. The most common and maximum hours worked here is 10 – 12 hours, although the age does not create a significant difference in that figure.

		No. of hours you work per day								total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		12 + hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Do you stay at the factory premises?	Yes			132	42.0	176	56.1	6	1.9	314	100.0
	No	67	14.1	208	43.7	180	37.8	21	4.4	476	100.0
Total		67	8.5	340	43.0	356	45.1	27	3.4	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	61.743	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

The number of hours worked also depends on whether the respondent stays at the factory premises. The highest number of hours worked is 10 – 12 hours, and this number is obtained for both who stay in the factory and those who don't.

		Income daily in Rs.												total	
		300.00		350.00		400.00		450.00		500.00		550.00		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Caste	General	11	5.2	12	5.7	50	23.8	14	6.7	74	35.2	49	23.3	210	100.0
	Forward	12	5.1	31	13.1	52	21.9	15	6.3	87	36.7	40	16.9	237	100.0
	SC	16	14.5	15	13.6	17	15.5	24	21.8	38	34.5			110	100.0
	ST	20	31.3	16	25.0	16	25.0	12	18.8					64	100.0
	OBC	17	10.1	35	20.7	30	17.8	35	20.7	51	30.2	1	.6	169	100.0
total		76	9.6	109	13.8	165	20.9	100	12.7	250	31.6	90	11.4	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	193.188	20	**

Critical value: 37.566

The caste of respondents is related to the daily income they obtain.

	Income daily in Rs.						total	
	300.00	350.00	400.00	450.00	500.00	550.00	No.	%

		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Religion	Hindu	28	8.4	35	10.4	69	20.6	50	14.9	103	30.7	50	14.9	335	100.0
	Muslim	43	13.2	48	14.7	59	18.1	43	13.2	93	28.5	40	12.3	326	100.0
	Christian	5	7.2	22	31.9	17	24.6	7	10.1	18	26.1			69	100.0
	Jain			4	11.4	8	22.9			23	65.7			35	100.0
	Others					12	48.0			13	52.0			25	100.0
total		76	9.6	109	13.8	165	20.9	100	12.7	250	31.6	90	11.4	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	90.314	20	**

Critical value: 37.566

The religion of respondents is also related to the daily income of respondents, as the chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

	Do you get the same salary as shown in	total

		the salary slip?					
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	44	83.0	9	17.0	53	100.0
	Primary	257	86.8	39	13.2	296	100.0
	Middle	241	86.7	37	13.3	278	100.0
	Secondary	149	91.4	14	8.6	163	100.0
Total		691	87.5	99	12.5	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	3.534	3	Ns

Critical value:7.815

No relationship was observed here between the variables as the calculated chi-square value is smaller than the critical value.

		Do you stay at the factory premises?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	28	52.8	25	47.2	53	100.0
	Primary	123	41.6	173	58.4	296	100.0
	Middle	91	32.7	187	67.3	27	100.

						8	0
	Secondary	72	44.2	91	55.8	163	100.0
total		314	39.7	476	60.3	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	11.234	3	*

Critical value:7.815

Literacy levels are related to the agency of accommodation, although to not at a significant level. The ratios, therefore, do not show a wide difference.

		How often do you go to your native place?										total	
		Once a month		Once in four months		Once in six months		Once in a year		Once in two years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	6	11.3	12	22.6	26	49.1	9	17.0			53	100.0
	Primary	14	4.7	50	16.9	170	57.4	61	20.6	1	.3	296	100.0
	Middle	3	1.1	28	10.1	172	61.9	71	25.5	4	1.4	278	100.0

	Secondary	5	3.1	30	18.4	84	51.5	41	25.2	3	1.8	163	100.0
total		28	3.5	120	15.2	452	57.2	182	23.0	8	1.0	790	100.0

N of Valid Cases	790		
a. 5 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .54.			

		Are there provisions for safety and hygiene provided at your workplace?		Total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	53	100.0	53	100.0
	Primary	296	100.0	296	100.0
	Middle	278	100.0	278	100.0
	Secondary	163	100.0	163	100.0
Total		790	100.0	790	100.0

	Value
Chi-Square	.

Other variables that can explain the working conditions of respondents are also looked at.

		No. of hours you work per day								total	
		5 – 8 hours		8 – 10 hours		10 – 12 hours		12 + hours		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	22	8.9	98	39.7	123	49.8	4	1.6	247	100.0
	Through parents	9	5.5	64	39.0	86	52.4	5	3.0	164	100.0
	Through relatives	7	4.4	58	36.7	81	51.3	12	7.6	158	100.0
	Advertisements	25	14.7	92	54.1	47	27.6	6	3.5	170	100.0
	Third party			10	52.6	9	47.4			19	100.0
	Others	4	12.5	18	56.3	10	31.3			32	100.0
Total		67	8.5	340	43.0	356	45.1	27	3.4	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	53.712	15	**

Critical value:30.578

Number of hours worked in a day is correlated to the ways of entering present employment.

	Do you get the same salary as shown in the salary slip?		total	
	Yes	No	No	%

		No.	%	No.	%	.	
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	209	84.6	38	15.4	247	100.0
	Through parents	136	82.9	28	17.1	164	100.0
	Through relatives	146	92.4	12	7.6	158	100.0
	Advertisements	158	92.9	12	7.1	170	100.0
	Third party	18	94.7	1	5.3	19	100.0
	Others	24	75.0	8	25.0	32	100.0
Total		691	87.5	99	12.5	790	100.0

	Value	Df	Sig.
Chi-Square	18.533	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

The ways of entering present employment are related to whether the same salary is received as shown in the salary slip. A strong correlation is observed.

		Do you stay at the factory premises?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	94	38.1	153	61.9	247	100.0
	Through parents	70	42.7	94	57.3	16	100.

						4	0
	Through relatives	77	48.7	81	51.3	158	100.0
	Advertisements	51	30.0	119	70.0	170	100.0
	Third party	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
	Others	12	37.5	20	62.5	32	100.0
Total		314	39.7	476	60.3	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	14.342	5	*

Critical value: 11.070

A strong correlation is observed between ins of present employment and agency of residence and lifestyle.

		How often do you go to your native place?										total	
		Once a month		Once in four months		Once in six months		Once in a year		Once in two years		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	5	2.0	27	10.9	154	62.3	61	24.7			247	100.0
	Through parents	9	5.5	26	15.9	72	43.9	51	31.1	6	3.7	164	100.0
	Through	11	7.0	26	16.	87	55.	32	20.	2	1.3	158	100.

	relatives				5		1		3				0
	Advertisements	3	1.8	34	20.0	107	62.9	26	15.3			170	100.0
	Third party					14	73.7	5	26.3			19	100.0
	Others			7	21.9	18	56.3	7	21.9			32	100.0
Total		28	3.5	120	15.2	452	57.2	182	23.0	8	1.0	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	55.858	20	**

Critical value: 37.566

A strong correlation is observed between ins of present employment and visit to native place.

		Are there provisions for safety and hygiene provided at your workplace?		total	
		Yes		No.	%
		No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	247	100.0	247	100.0
	Through parents	164	100.0	16	100.

				4	0
	Through relatives	158	100.0	158	100.0
	Advertisements	170	100.0	170	100.0
	Third party	19	100.0	19	100.0
	Others	32	100.0	32	100.0
Total		790	100.0	790	100.0

For the third objective, to show the involvement of any third-party members in the employment of workers, we look at age group and whether employment was taken by choice or by force.

		You have taken up this employment by?				total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	55	63.2	32	36.8	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	179	78.2	50	21.8	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	257	81.8	57	18.2	314	100.0
	18+ years	140	87.5	20	12.5	160	100.0
total		631	79.9	159	20.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	21.977	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

A relationship is observed, where in between age groups, a larger portion have taken up employment by choice. Also, across the age groups, the per centage of respondents who have taken up employment by choice also increases. Thus, reducing the likelihood of involvement of a third-party member.

Similarly, the relationship of age with the number of leaves entitled in a year is noted.

		No of leaves entitled for in a year?		Total	
		Up to 30 days		No.	%
		No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	87	100.0	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	229	100.0	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	314	100.0	314	100.0
	18+ years	160	100.0	160	100.0
Total		790	100.0	790	100.0

The relationship between age group and timely payment of salary is observed, and a significant relationship is shown as the calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value.

	How often do you get your salary?			Total	
	Once in 45 days	Once in 2 months	Highly irregular	No.	%

		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years	17	19.5	8	9.2	62	71.3	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	107	46.7	32	14.0	90	39.3	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	219	69.7	43	13.7	52	16.6	314	100.0
	18+ years	133	83.1	23	14.4	4	2.5	160	100.0
Total		476	60.3	106	13.4	208	26.3	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	178.055	6	**

Critical value: 16.812

Other variables are tested for correlation that can show the involvement or explicit or implicit influence of a third-party member to any extent.

		Are you given annual increment?				Total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Age	12 – 14 years			87	100.0	87	100.0
	14 – 16 years	55	24.0	174	76.0	229	100.0
	16 – 18 years	165	52.5	149	47.5	314	100.0
	18+ years	99	61.9	61	38.1	160	100.0
total		319	40.4	471	59.6	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 35.13.			

		You have taken up this employment by?				total	
		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	41	77.4	12	22.6	53	100.0
	Primary	223	75.3	73	24.7	296	100.0
	Middle	231	83.1	47	16.9	278	100.0
	Secondary	136	83.4	27	16.6	163	100.0
total		631	79.9	159	20.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	7.076	3	Ns

Critical value: 7.815

A not-so-significant relationship is observed between literacy levels and agency of employment, whether the employee has been taken by force or by choice.

		No of leaves entitled for in a year?		total	
		Up to 30 days		No.	%
		No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	53	100.0	53	100.0
	Primary	296	100.0	29	100.

				6	0
	Middle	278	100.0	278	100.0
	Secondary	163	100.0	163	100.0
total		790	100.0	790	100.0

	Value
Chi-Square	.

		How often do you get your salary?						total	
		Once in 45 days		Once in 2 months		Highly irregular		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	26	49.1	2	3.8	25	47.2	53	100.0
	Primary	157	53.0	50	16.9	89	30.1	296	100.0
	Middle	179	64.4	37	13.3	62	22.3	278	100.0
	Secondary	114	69.9	17	10.4	32	19.6	163	100.0
total		476	60.3	106	13.4	208	26.3	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	29.212	6	**

Critical value:16.812

A significant relationship is observed between literacy levels and timely payment of wages. The involvement of a third-party member not at the time of employment but during the period of employment is likely to affect this relationship. However, the most common trend is that workers are paid their salaries once every 45 days irrespective of all age groups.

		Are you given annual increment?				total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Education	Literate but below primary	16	30.2	37	69.8	53	100.0
	Primary	126	42.6	170	57.4	296	100.0
	Middle	95	34.2	183	65.8	278	100.0
	Secondary	82	50.3	81	49.7	163	100.0
Total		319	40.4	471	59.6	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	13.996	3	**

Critical value: 11.345

A significant relationship is observed between literacy levels and payment of annual increment, and as mentioned above the involvement of third-party members is likely to influence the numbers here, although the difference between the calculated chi-square value is not very greater than the critical value.

	You have taken up this employment by?	total

		By choice		By force		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	197	79.8	50	20.2	247	100.0
	Through parents	135	82.3	29	17.7	164	100.0
	Through relatives	118	74.7	40	25.3	158	100.0
	Advertisements	145	85.3	25	14.7	170	100.0
	Third party	12	63.2	7	36.8	19	100.0
	Others	24	75.0	8	25.0	32	100.0
Total		631	79.9	159	20.1	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	10.141	5	Ns

Critical value: 11.070

Employment by force or by choice does not have a significant relationship with the parties involved at the time of employment, i.e., whether the respondent was influenced by their parents, relatives, advertisements or others. The involvement of a third-party member, however, is evident but can be seen only as a separate relationship and not as part of the given correlation.

	No of leaves entitled for in a year?	total	
	Up to 30 days	No	%

		No.	%	.	
How did you take-up employment?	Through own efforts	247	100.0	247	100.0
	Through parents	164	100.0	164	100.0
	Through relatives	158	100.0	158	100.0
	Advertisements	170	100.0	170	100.0
	Third party	19	100.0	19	100.0
	Others	32	100.0	32	100.0
Total		790	100.0	790	100.0

Correlation between ways of entering employment and frequency of receiving salary/wages.

		How often do you get your salary?						Total	
		Once in 45 days		Once in 2 months		Highly irregular		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	152	61.5	23	9.3	72	29.1	247	100.0
	Through parents	89	54.3	17	10.4	58	35.4	164	100.0
	Through relatives	78	49.4	41	25.9	39	24.7	158	100.0
	Advertisements	126	74.1	14	8.2	30	17.6	170	100.0

	Third party	12	63.2	6	31.6	1	5.3	19	100.0
	Others	19	59.4	5	15.6	8	25.0	32	100.0
Total		476	60.3	106	13.4	208	26.3	790	100.0

Value	df	Sig.
a. 2 cells (11.1%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.55.		

		Are you given annual increment?				Total	
		Yes		No		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
How did you take up employment?	Through own efforts	85	34.4	162	65.6	247	100.0
	Through parents	48	29.3	116	70.7	164	100.0
	Through relatives	64	40.5	94	59.5	158	100.0
	Advertisements	95	55.9	75	44.1	170	100.0
	Third party	8	42.1	11	57.9	19	100.0
	Others	19	59.4	13	40.6	32	100.0
Total		319	40.4	471	59.6	790	100.0

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-Square	33.855	5	**

Critical value: 15.086

No relationship was observed between the involvement of parties at the time of employment and the payment of an annual increment during the period of employment.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Major Findings/ Observations:

The researcher has found the following observations during the field visits.

From the study, it is evident that there is no child labour below the age of 14 in the organised textile sector. However, the employment of adolescent labour is quite rampant. Children below the age of 14 were not found in companies which are registered and have the provision of CC TV cameras on the factory premises, but children from the age of 14 are employed and a good number of them stay in accommodation provided by the employer.

The employer has strict restrictions in place about the movements of such adolescent labour. Girl children under the age of 18 cannot be reached by any outsider other than their parents.

These children are given a weekly off on Sundays and they are permitted to meet their parents / relatives only at a stipulated time. These children are also taken outside twice a month for shopping by the company under the strict supervision of company officials, in their own vehicle.

It is observed that the children employed by the company are properly trained to answer questions pertaining to age and employment practices.

Child labour is found in cottage industries which cater to these textile firms. This trend is found in both states. The local authorities have periodical checks on child labour in the organized sector however there is no supervision of cottage industries which are run in a remote part of the town.

With the help of a broker the research team visited a few sheds where child labour was engaged in work in Tirupur. Children as young as 8-year-old were found working in those sheds.

In all the four cities i.e. Coimbatore, Tirupur, Bangalore and Mysore, the employment practices are reasonably good, and there is no incidence of sweatshop work culture, which is highly prevalent in countries such as China and Bangladesh.

In conclusion, the report aims to bring to attention the various factors that enable the persistence of child labour and girl child labour in particular. The first chapter covers both global and national patterns behind this persistence. The globally accepted definition of child labour coincides with basic human rights and as is mandated by international organizations such as the United Nations, International labour Organization, UNICEF etc., is the first thing the report looks at. There is a long history of industrial labour that the West usually goes to when attempting to locate the origins of child labour. However, in India, the trend is not too far either. Although when the country set out on the path of modernization, the phenomenon grew manifold, and the inequalities of national poverty and illiteracy are fairly understood to be the main reasons behind this, there are historical, mythological and traditional evidence that dictate and show that child labour was as an equal reality in ancient times as it is now. The question of child labour being exploitative and harmful therefore is what needs to be looked at and continuously and consistently revised and checked. It exists in varying degrees and in several industries, mostly at the lowest level o,f a production process and this ensures minimal rights, freedoms and agency in asking for said rights. National statistics are evident of unfair understanding and treatment of child rights.

The second chapter of the report highlights the textile industry in India and its various strengths. There is an abundance of untapped potential in the industry, the primary root of which is the availability of various raw materials. The fact that there is so much of raw material available shows that it is not just an externally developed industry but is a natural way of living for several communities. So, this can be expanded in terms of output and exports, but also with regard to local styles, techniques, and strategies based on indigenous methods and technologies that can set global standards for the clothing industry. The existence of entire value chains, competitive manufacturing costs, a sizable and expanding domestic economy, rising per capita income and higher disposable incomes, an organized retail environment and e-commerce sector, and a

greater emphasis on textile materials due to the growing of end-user industries such as automotive, healthcare, infrastructure, oil and petroleum, and Production-Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme in Man-Made Fiber and Tech are some other drivers of growth of the industry. This chapter also looks at literature from experts such as Hirway, Murshed, and Muralidharan, who note the potential in labour, its skillset and entrepreneurship capacities and government support in the form of schemes and subsidies in propelling the industry forward. The support of the Tamil Nadu government, for instance, stands out in terms of both innovative solutions and welfare-enhancing measures for expanding the industry, in spite of it creating the space for an increased demand for low-wage labour, which inevitably takes the form of child and girl child labour. Although the industry in both Karnataka and Tamil Nadu was singularly focused on expansion during the colonial period, Tamil Nadu was better able to realize the value that cotton and silk production could bring to the state. This rush to development came with its negative outcomes; poverty, mindless consumerism, income inequality, unfair wage and treatment at places of employment, and discrimination on the basis of caste, gender, class and religion as a greater number of opportunities opened for high-skilled or skilled workers where those from marginalized communities were barred from entering. Civil society organizations and government orders did only so much at addressing, creating awareness and resolving these issues as they failed at identifying the crux of the problem of child labour – deep rooted ideologies that determined an individual's worth and place in society. The absence of proper objective research that addressed only the economic or sometimes social factors evident on the surface instead of the deeply personal and yet communal factors fueled insufficient policies on the part of the state. Girl children being on the lowermost rung of the social hierarchy within these states beget them almost no right to agency or self-empowerment and further financial sustenance. These issues aren't merely economic that policymakers can hope to 'resolve'; they're the realities of millions of people in India and across the world, and so evidently, some alternatives that are more creative, engage with the communities on wider and deeper levels and are sustainable are required.

In the third chapter the report covers the severities of child and girl child labour in India along with the place of this form of labour in the market. The Indian workforce creates a haphazard heterogenous mixture, owing to the magnificent diversity in preferences, skills, nativity and so

on. This is coupled, however, with lent-down ideologies, which create only a passive movement towards modernization and development. The country is beset in patriarchy and a thirst for economic empowerment, and a large majority ignores the social, personal and political implications of turning a blind eye to the unfair practices of the past. It is important for the nation as a collective to revisit its ideals of fairness, equality, rights and duties in order for it to confront the malpractice of child labour. Weiner puts it rightly that "*economic factors such as low incomes are not nearly as relevant in explaining child servitude in India as the belief system of the state bureaucracy, as well as educators, social activists, and members of the middle and lower classes...".* The fact that child trafficking is a normalized reality in not just one but several states here, something that increased during a global pandemic and that parents are bystanders to this should be enough to make us rethink what development looks like and means to us.

The fourth chapter covers the legalities that exist to confront and tackle the practice of child labour in India and other developing and developed countries. It was interesting to note the rise of child labour during the COVID-19 pandemic and the inabilities and inadequacies of states all over the world to deal with this. It is said that decisions are best made when made by people most affected by them. In the case of children's rights however, states fall a step back. There are both solid national and state policies in place that aim to eradicate child labour and empower them, yet the issue persists. Both developing and developed nations have taken measures at acknowledging the need for eradicating child labour. Yet again it persists. Other than proper enforcement of said policies and regulations, a major factor that comes out is how under reported the practice is, whether in factory work, agriculture, household based work or other worse forms. The idea that 'the issue can be easily hushed because children can be coerced into doing anything' prevails large and shrivels up any social or moral progress that a nation can make.

Keeping this in mind, the following two chapters cover the analysis of surveys conducted across small, medium and large-scale factories in the states of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

7.2 Findings from the Survey

The trends are not very dissimilar across all the three objectives of finding the employment practices, employment and work conditions, and whether employees were being influenced by any third party like sub-brokers, company's representatives in employing girl child labour under exploitative employment schemes. The survey considered caste, religion, income, education levels, the various means by which the worker gets the employment, family income, working hours, wage/salary paid, among other factors to further understand the extent of differential preferences and treatment on the part of the employer.

- There were several cases where these factors affected the employability and agency of movement of the child workers, particularly younger ones.
- However, nearly all factories employed fair standards of living and working conditions for the workers.
- There has been a general significant decrease in the employment of local girls in the textile and garment factories of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.
- It is found that smaller firms outsource work to houses where children are deployed.
- Large, medium and small textile firms that are registered and belong to the organized sector do not employ child labour.
- There is a major shift in the workforce demographic: the local labour is largely replaced by labour from the North East and Northern states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.
- Workers of all age groups understand and express a greater need for an agency of movement, choice of occupation, financial independence, and equal participation in the household, even in patriarchal settings.

Some observations for both states are separately shown below. It is extremely important that this trend continues and does not degrade back, and for that, the employers need to continue hiring elder girls and indexing the numbers of those who would be better adept at working efficiently in the factories. The role of local law enforcement is paramount, and so is that of civil society organizations that can locate such practices and call upon the state machinery for rescue and rehabilitation. The role of caregivers, parents and guardians is not amiss as they provide a firm

foundation for the young workers to believe in their agency and work towards their own empowerment without falling prey to abusive practices and phenomena.

Some important findings for Tamil Nadu:

- 96.3 per cent of workers took up employment by choice and with their own efforts (44.4 per cent). The influence and involvement of third-party members were lowest here (2.6 per cent). Less than 1 per cent of workers were influenced by promises of educational and medical expenses being covered by the company too. A small per cent, however, (11.5 per cent) receives help with marriage expenses, and almost no worker paid a commission to take up the employment.

- Workers receive a monthly (58.2 per cent) salary (38.8 per cent). 61.3 per cent of workers receive wages, for an average of 6 working days in a week and a maximum of 30 days of leave in a year. This shows the requirement of short-term, immediate yet respectfully professional work that workers demand in this region.

- Those who have taken up employment through their own efforts and/or advertisements have a 5 – 8-hour workday (50.9%). This figure is also higher than the total average working hours. Whereas, those who have been employed by other means have a reduced work day. This shows a greater sense of involvement and agency on the part of workers' self-motivation to work and earn, as opposed to lesser initiatives taken by those who have been influenced by other factors (not necessarily forced). A greater sense of empowerment with regard to socio-psychological development is thus felt here.

- With regard to the educational qualifications of parent(s)/guardian, the highest frequency if of a literate but below primary level (28.2 per cent), and the lowest is of middle level education (4.7 per cent). The maximum number of earning members in a family averaged to 4 (49.4 per cent), which shows the dependence on unskilled/semi-skilled and low-wage work.

- Educational qualifications are also related with the regularities of salaries/wages received, as the calculated Chi-square value (82.94) is greater than the critical value (20.090).

- There is also a significant relationship between educational qualifications and being given annual increments. Those who are not literate receive no increments at all. The per centages in the affirmative are small for other educational levels as well. (Chi-square: 30.83, Critical value: 13.27)

- There is a significant relationship between the means of entry of the employment and whether respondents have taken the employment by force or by choice. For instance, 99.1 % of those who have taken it up by choice got it through their own efforts, while for 61.3 %, their parents assisted. (Chi-square value: 126.83, Critical value: 15.08)

- The higher Chi-square value (23.52) than the critical value (15.08) shows a positive correlative relationship between the nativity of respondents and factors influencing employment.

- Some correlation is also observed between number of working hours and nativity of workers. Local residents are made to work less than the average number of hours as opposed to those who have migrated from other areas or states. (Page 84)

Some important findings for Karnataka are as follows:

- With regard to the educational qualifications of the parent(s)/guardian of respondents in Karnataka, maximum frequency pointed to a primary level education (29.6 per cent), and the least was a literate but without formal training (5.3 per cent). In spite of this, the maximum number of earning members in a family was 3 (42.4 per cent) which shows the prevalence and dependence on unskilled or semi-skilled low-wage jobs.

- Workers receive a monthly (71.5 per cent) salary (71.5 per cent) as opposed to wages (28.5 per cent) for an average of 5 working days per week (53.2 per cent).

- A Chi-square test was done to compare years of employment and age. The Chi-square value (84.95) being bigger than the critical value (26.21) shows a significant relationship between the two.
- A significant relationship is observed between receiving salary or wages and the age of respondents. Those in the age group of 12 – 14 years receive only wages, whereas 89.8% of those in 14 – 16 years receive a salary. Thus, granting financial independence is commensurate with the age of the workers, irrespective of the amount of work, or the kind of work done. (Chi-square value: 296.94, Critical value: 11.34)

- The caste of respondents is related to the daily income they obtain. (Chi-square value: 193.18, Critical value: 37.56)

- A relationship is observed, where in between age groups, a larger portion have taken up employment by choice. Also, across the age groups, the percentage of respondents who have taken up employment by choice also increases. Thus, reducing the likelihood of involvement of a third-party member. (Chi-square value: 21.97, Critical value: 11.34) Further, a majority of workers took up employment by choice (79.9 per cent) as opposed to by force (20.1 per cent) and with the help of advertisements (21.5 per cent). Those who were coerced, however, received the promise of educational expenses being covered by the company (16.3 per cent), and only a small number were offered help with marriage (21.9 per cent). Only a small per cent (10.4) paid a commission for taking up respective employment.

- The relationship between age group and timely payment of salary is observed, and a significant relationship is shown as the calculated chi-square value (178.05) is greater than the critical value (16.81).
- **7.3 Suggestions for Policy Interventions**

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For the Ministry (GOI):

- It is observed during the interaction that the migrant labour manages to obtain Aadhar card with a false age. Some, on anonymity mentioned that brokers manage to get age proof which is required for employment. Hence, to eradicate child labour, the Government must work on the loopholes in the issuance of Aadhar cards and other identity cards.
- It is observed that in all the four cities, the employee attrition rate is very high, and employees prefer to shift from one company to another for better pay. These garment and textile companies work with strict timelines to fulfil the export order. Hence, as a stop-gap arrangement, child labor is used in some cases. The children are sourced from sources known to their current employees. Hence, educational sessions for parents and adult workers need to be organized where the evils of child labour can be explained to them. The imparting of such counseling sessions can be organized by the local academic institutions.
- SEBI (Securities and Exchange Board of India) has tie ups with academicians across the country to spread investor awareness and to safeguard the investors from the clutches of unscrupulous investment companies. A similar tie-up is suggested between the academia and the Government to spread awareness on the child labour issue. The collaboration with the academia can happen with institutions which are engaged in social science research.
- Together(Government and academia) can setup a task forceand have coordinated efforts to make surprise visits to commercial establishments in the organised and the unorganised sectors. This should be in addition to the visits of the local labour inspectors. For any policy to be successful the collaborative effort of the state, academia and the industry is required to bring out a change which is effective and long lasting

Suggestions for the State Government:

- The labour inspector has a check on the factories and companies which are registered, but there is no check on cottage industries and households which are a part of the

production network. Hence, a vigilant check on the entire value chain is important to abolish child labour.

- It is difficult to constantly monitor engagement of child labor in smaller factories and by the business committee. Hence, the Government may consider a helpline to prevent child labor exclusively. The public can be encouraged to inform the help line anonymously in case they find engagement of child labor in any work which is not permitted. The state Government can implement this at each district with a special focus on districts which come under industrial clusters and are more prone to such employment tactics.
- Though the respondents don't reveal the role of brokers in getting employment, it is observed during interaction, that brokers play a major role in getting the workforce to the textile companies. Hence, it is imperative that the Government introduces stringent measures to regulate brokers' involvement in recruiting the work force.
- The Government should also enact laws to ensure legal action against brokers if they are found involved in recruiting children below the prescribed age limit.

Suggestions for the NHRC

- Companies bypass the existing labour laws and operate in a manner which will yield them better profits. Hence, NHRC may collaborate more with academic institutions and encourage them to undertake more of such research in future.

- Based on the filed experience, we understand that such studies are extremely important in understanding various finer aspects of the theme. NHRC may encourage qualitative research methods for conducting such studies over quantitative methods. Qualitative research will bring deeper insights in understanding the perspectives of the job seeker and job provider.

7.4 Conclusion

Textile sector is one of the largest employment providers in India. It is growing at a remarkable pace, and women contribute to a substantial part of the workforce. The study was conducted to understand the prevalence of girl child labour, especially in the backdrop of a lot of media reports alleging textile companies engaging in child labour. There were reports that girls are kept as bonded labour by forceby their employer. There were reports about the various exploitative schemes deployed by the employers to lure them in to the job, such as the Sumangali scheme in the Tirupur and Coimbatore area, where brokers/agents are engaged by large scale companies to lure young girls at the age of 14-15, and they are kept as bonded labours till the age of 21, and when they leave the job the employer takes care of the wedding expenditure of the girl.

Based on the study, we conclude that there is no child labour below the age of 14 in the organised sector, but child labour is involved in other areas of the value chain, which needs to be addressed. It is suggested that the industries be discouraged in employing adolescent labour, because when an adolescent labour is employed, it deprives them of the opportunity to even complete high school, which in the long run affect the prospects of them getting employed in better roles. The textile companies in India face stiff competition, and a few companies resort to such practices to remain price competitive in the global market. Countries such as China and Bangladesh have sweatshop culture, which gives them an edge over India to be more competitive. Hence, a collaborative effort of the private companies and the Government are required to identify other prudent ways of reducing the manufacturing costs, so that there is no pressure on the textile companies to resort to labour-related cost-cutting measures. Children who work in factories, work because of family compulsions. Poverty is the primary reason for parents sending their wards for employment. With Government interventions and policy changes, child labour in the organised sector has come to an end; however, more stringent laws and frequent visits are required to control child labour in the unorganized sector. The real challenge is to abolish child labour in the unorganized sector. Flying squads at district levelsshould be set up, and constant monitoring in remote areas will have a tangible impact on the eradication of child labour. A collaborative effort of academia, Government and industry is required to achieve this.

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9. Appendices

Appendix 1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: RESEARCH PROJECT

PREVALANCE OF GIRL CHILD LABOUR IN THE INDIAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY – A STUDY ON THE TEXTILE & GARMENT CLUSTERS IN TAMIIL NADU AND KARNATAKA

1.	Name	
2.	Age	a) 5 - 8 years b) 9 – 11 years c) 12 – 14 years d) 14 – 16 years e) 16 – 18 years f) 18+ years
3.	Caste	a) General b) Forward c) SC d) ST e) OBC f) Others
4.	Religion	a) Hindu b) Muslim c) Christian d) Jain e) Sikh f) Others

5.	Education	a) Not literate b) Literate without formal training c) Literate but below primary d) Primary e) Middle f) Secondary
6.	Occupation of Parent/Guardian	a) Agriculture b) Daily wage worker c) Private sector job d) Government job
7.	Educational qualifications of Parent/Guardian	a) Not literate b) Literate without formal training c) Literate but below primary d) Primary e) Middle f) Secondary
8.	Number of family members	a) 1 b) 2 c) 3 d) 4 e) 5
9.	Number of earning members (including self)	a) 1 b) 2 c) 3 d) 4 e) 5
10.	Name of company you work for	

11.	How long have you worked here for?	
12.	Did you submit the proof of citizenship to your employer?	a) Yes b) No
13.	Did you submit proof of age to your employer?	a) Yes b) No
14.	Did you submit the adolescent certificate obtained from a certified medical professional?	a) Yes b) No
15.	What were your previous employment roles like?	
16.	How long did you work there?	
17.	How did you take up this employment?	a) Through own efforts b) Through parents c) Through relatives d) Advertisements e) Third party f) Others
18.	You have taken up this employment by?	a) By choice b) By force
19.	If by force, who forced you?	a) Company representatives b) Parents c) Others d) NA
20.	How did they convince you to	a) Company assured they'll take care of marriage

	take the job?	expenditure b) Company assured they'll take care of educational expenditure c) Company assured they'll take care of medicinal expenditure of self or family member(s) d) NA
21.	Does the company offer you any help to get married?	a) Yes b) No
22.	If yes, what kind of help?	a) Company takes care of entire marriage expenditure b) Company pays cash c) Company provides gold d) NA
23.	Do you get a salary or wages?	a) Salary b) Wages
24.	How do you receive your salary/wages?	a) Daily b) Weekly c) Monthly d) Bonded against lump-sum
25.	Income, daily, if	
26.	Bonded against lump-sum	
27.	How often do you receive your salary/wages?	a) Once in 45 days b) Once in 2 months c) Highly irregular
28.	Did you pay any commission for taking this job?	a) Yes b) No

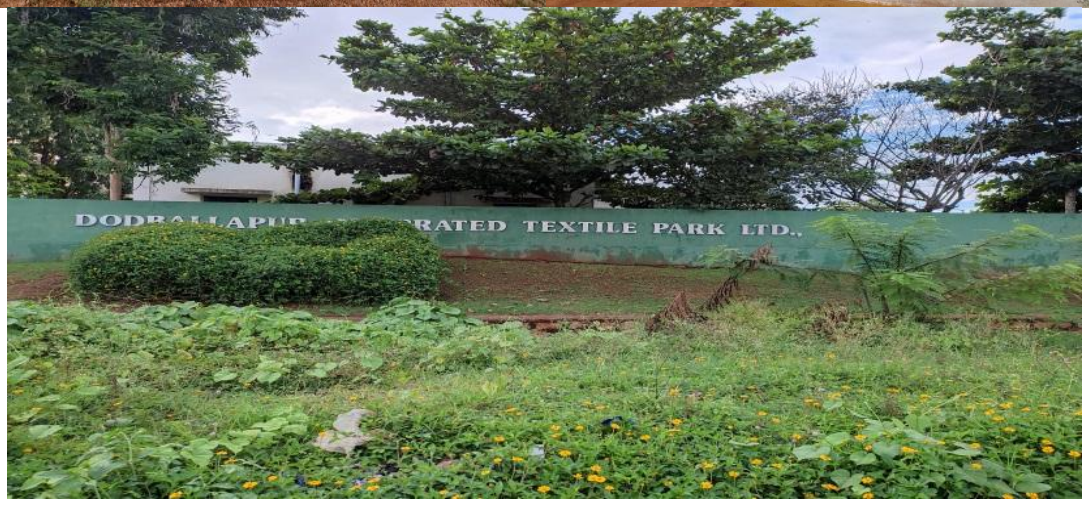
29.	If yes, how much?	
30.	Number of working days in a week?	a) 7 days b) 6 days c) 5 days
31.	Number of working hours	a) 3 – 5 hours b) 5 – 8 hours c) 8 – 10 hours d) 10 – 12 hours e) 12 + hours
32.	Number of leaves entitled for in a year?	
33.	Are you a local resident? If not, where are you from?	
34.	Do you get the same salary as shown in the salary slip?	a) Yes b) No
35.	If not, how much is the difference?	
36.	Reason for the deduction?	
37.	Are you given annual increment?	a) Yes b) No
38.	Do you have a PF component in your salary?	a) Yes b) No
39.	Location of workplace?	a) Company factory b) Away from factory premises

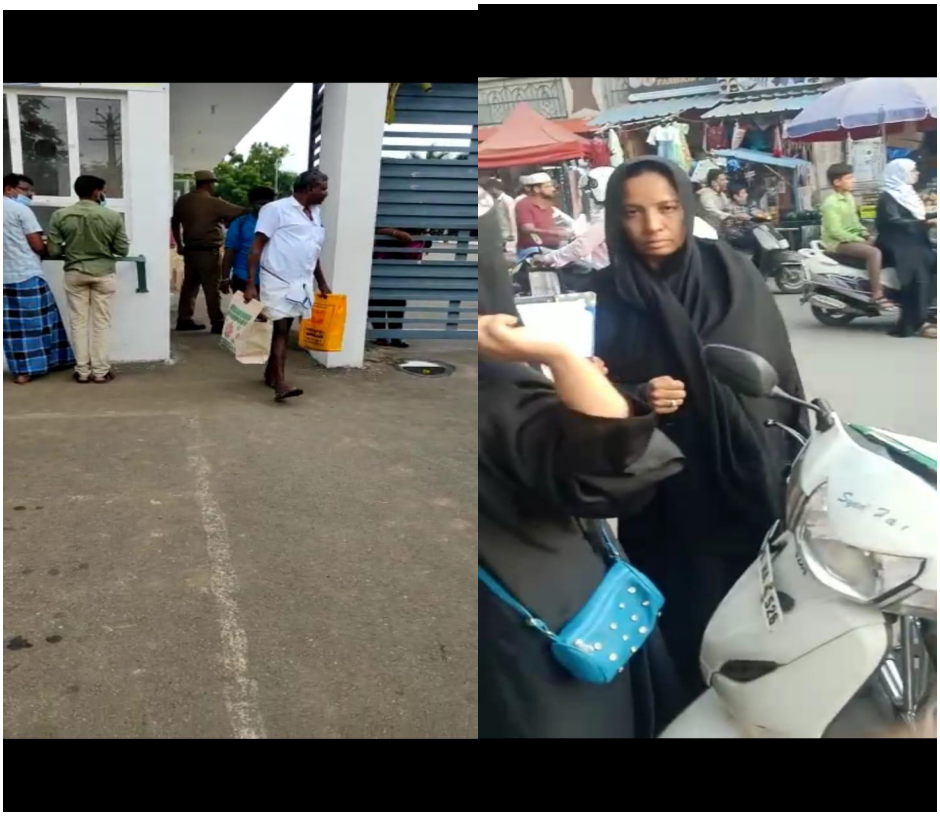
40.	Who arranged your accommodation?	a) On my own b) By my employer
41.	Do you stay at the factory premises?	a) Yes b) No
42.	If yes, is it compulsory to stay at the factory premises?	a) Yes b) No
43.	If no, how do you commute to the workplace?	a) Public transport b) Own vehicle c) Company transport d) On foot e) NA
44.	How often do you go to your native place?	a) Once a month b) Once in four months c) Once in six months d) Once in a year e) Once in two years
45.	How easy it is to get permission to visit your house from the employees?	a) Very easy b) Easy c) Not so easy d) Difficult e) Very difficult
46.	How do you spend time in the evenings/after work?	a) Go outside b) Meet friends c) Watch a movie d) Don't get enough time
47.	Have you seen young girls/boys working around here?	a) Yes b) No

48.	Which type of activity do you undertake?	a) Embroidery stone pasting/Zari work b) Thread cutting c) Hand/machine stitching d) Bag/button stitching e) Packaging f) Others
49.	Is your certificate age different from your actual age?	a) Yes b) No
50.	If higher, what is the difference?	
51.	If lower, what is the difference?	
52.	Are there provisions for safety and hygiene at your workplace? (And at the place of residence if provided by the company)	a) Yes b) No
53.	Did you sign a contract with your current employer?	a) Yes b) No
54.	Will you be able to leave this employment according to your will, if need be? If no, why? If yes, will your employer help with the transition process?	a) Yes b) No

Appendix – 2

IMAGES OF COMPANIES/LOCATIONS SURVEYED



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