

GIRL CHILD LABOUR IN RURAL AREAS

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Poverty is one of the major reasons for the child to work for wages. Child labour is a wide spread phenomenon especially in a developing country like India. In spite of the child labour act implemented by Government of India, there is hardly any improvement in the problem. Child Labour is defined as "any work by children that interfere with their full physical development, their opportunities for desirable minimum of education or their needed recreation." Poverty and inequality are the major factors and development is inversely related to the incidence of child labour.

The child labour problem is an intense socio-economic problem that requires a long-term multi-prolonged strategy to be carried out on a continuous basis. This strategy should include enforcement of child labour acts, strengthening of primary education in the rural areas, rehabilitation of the child labour and improvement of economic conditions of the parents of child labour through various poverty alleviation and employment generation programmes. The child labour problem is an evil that requires awareness and change of approach in all sections of the society. Hence this study was conducted with the following Objectives :

1. To study the socio-personal and economic background of the girl child labour.
2. To know the different kinds of work performed by the girl child labour.
3. To know the time expenditure pattern of girl child labour.

4. To know the opinion of girl child labour towards her work.

5. To study the problems faced by girl child labour.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Govankoppa and Garag villages of Dharwad district.

Definition of Girl Child Labour—A child labour is the one who is 5-14 years of age, works and adds for the income of the family.

Totally 140 girl child labourers were selected from these villages. Structured schedule was prepared to elicit the information from the respondents through personal interview method. The data was analysed using frequencies, mean and percentages.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Although the age of child labour has been specified between 5-14 years, table 1(a) shows that girl children normally start working at the age of 10 and the percentage of girls working increases with the increase in age. It is seen from the table that 42.86% of the respondents were 14 years old.

Table 1. Personal characteristics of girl child labour

(a) Age :

| S. No. | Age | No. Of Respondents (%) |
|--------|-----|------------------------|
| 1 | 10 | |
| 2 | 11 | 10 (7.14) |
| 3 | 12 | 12 (8.57) |
| 4 | 13 | 34 (24.29) |
| 5 | 14 | 24 (17.14) |
| | | 60 (42.86) |

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(b) Education :

| S. No. | Educational level | No. Of Respondents (%) |
|--------|-------------------|------------------------|
| 1. | Illiterate | 30(21.42) |
| 2. | Primary | 76(54.29) |
| 3. | Secondary | 34(24.29) |
| 4. | High school | - |

(c) Ordinal Position:

| S. No. | Ordinal Position | No. Of Respondents (%) |
|--------|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. | 1st born | 34 (24.29) |
| 2. | 2nd born | 46 (32.85) |
| 3. | 3rd born | 26 (18.57) |
| 4. | 4th born | 24 (17.14) |
| 5. | 5th born | 06 (4.29) |
| 6. | 6th born | 04 (2.86) |

Table 1(b) on education reveals that majority of the respondents (54.29%) were educated up to primary level. About 21.42 percent were illiterate, 24.29% had studied up to secondary school and none of the respondents had gone up to high school. The main reason as quoted by the respondents for dropping out from school was to work as labour due to poverty.

With regard to ordinal position Table 1 (c) most of the respondents were either 1st or 2nd born (24.29 and 32.85 % respectively). This could be because of greater family responsibilities on the older children of the family. As the ordinal position increased, there is decrease in the girl child working as labour.

Table 2 shows that majority (92.86%) of the girl child labour were from nuclear families. With regard to family size 48.57 percent were from medium sized families, 27.14 percent from large families. It is also seen from the same table that majority (75.71%) of them's family occupation was farm labour followed by petty business (11.43) and others (10.0%).

The table also reveals that 45.71 percent of the girl child labourers belonged to the family with medium education followed by low (42.86%) and high family education (11.43%). Majority (65.71%) of the girl child labourers

were from landless families and only 1.43 percent were from families having big land holding.

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of the girl child labour

| S. No. | Characteristics | No. Of Respondents (%) |
|--------|---------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) | Family Type | |
| | (i) Nuclear | 130 (92.86) |
| | (ii) Joint | 10 (7.14) |
| (b) | Family Size | |
| | (i) Small (upto 4) | 34 (24.29) |
| | (ii) Medium (5-6) | 68 (48.57) |
| | (iii) Large (7 and above) | 38(27.14) |
| (c) | Family Occupation | |
| | (i) Agriculturist | 04 (2.86) |
| | (ii) Farm Labour | 106 (75.71) |
| | (iii) Petty business | 16 (11.43) |
| | (iv) Others | 14 (10.0) |
| (d) | Family Education | |
| | (i) High | 16 (11.43) |
| | (ii) Medium | 64 (45.71) |
| | (iii) Low | 60 (42.86) |
| (e) | Land Holding | |
| | Landless | 92 (65.71) |
| | Marginal farmers | 28 (20.0) |
| | Small farmers | 18 (12.86) |
| | Big farmers | 02 (1.43) |
| (f) | Monthly Income | |
| | (i) < 1000 | 06 (4.29) |
| | (ii) 1001 to 2000 | 68 (48.57) |
| | (iii) 2001 to 3000 | 38 (27.14) |
| | (iv) 3001 to 4000 | 18 (12.86) |
| | (v) 4001 to 5000 | 10 (7.14) |

The monthly income of 48.57 percent of the families was between 1001 to 2000 followed by 2001 to 3000 (27.14%), 3001 - 4000 (12.86%) and 4001 to 5000 (7.14%).

Table 3. (a) Types of work done by the girl child labour

| S.No. | Type of work | No. of Respondents |
|-------|---|--------------------|
| 1. | Agricultural labour | 122 (87.15%) |
| 2. | House maid | 08 (5.71%) |
| 3. | Construction labour | 02 (1.43%) |
| 4. | Others (spinning, vegetable selling, hotel work.) | 08 (5.71%) |

(b) Schooling along with work

| S.No. | Schooling | No. Of Respondents |
|-------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1. | Yes | 08 (5.71%) |
| 2. | No | 132 (94.29%) |

Table 3(a) shows that 87.15% of the girl children worked as agricultural labour followed by house maid (5.71%), others (5.71%) and construction labour (1.43%). This is due to the reason that in rural areas the easily available work was agricultural labour. Table 3(b) shows that only 5.7 percent of the child labour continued their schooling with work, this is because it is very difficult for the children to manage school as well as work at that young age.

Table 4. Time Expenditure Pattern of girl child labour

| S. No. | Time Spent in minutes | No. of Respondents |
|--------|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. | Personal work | |
| | (i) 30-90 (1/2 - 1 ½ hrs.) | 120 (85.72%) |
| | (ii) 90-150 (1 ½ - 2 ½ hrs.) | 18 (12.85%) |
| | (iii) > 150 (>2 ½ hrs.) | 02 (1.43%) |
| 2. | Household work | |
| | (i) 60-120 (1-2 hrs.) | 70 (50.00%) |
| | (ii) 120-180 (2-3 hrs.) | 60 (42.85%) |
| | (iii) 180-240 (3-4 hrs.) | 10 (7.15%) |
| 3. | Work as labour | |
| | (i) 180-300 (3-5 hrs.) | 08 (5.71%) |
| | (ii) 360-480 (6-8 hrs.) | 122 (87.14%) |
| | (iii) 540-660 (9-11 hrs.) | 08 (5.71%) |
| | (iv) 720-840 (12-14 hrs.) | 02 (1.44%) |
| 4. | Play and Entertainment | |
| | (i) 60-120 (1-2hrs.) | 124 (88.57%) |
| | (ii) 120-180 (2-3 hrs.) | 16 (11.43%) |
| 5. | Sleep | |
| | (i) 360-480 (6-8 hrs.) | 78 (55.71%) |
| | (ii) 480-600 (8-10 hrs.) | 58 (41.43%) |
| | (iii) > 600 (>10 hrs.) | 04 (2.86%) |
| 6. | Miscellaneous work | |
| | (i) 30-90 (1/2 - 1 ½ hrs.) | 40 (28.57%) |
| | (ii) 90-150 (1 ½ - 2 ½) | 44 (31.43%) |
| | (iii) > 150 (>2 ½) | 28 (20%) |

Table 4 shows the time expenditure pattern of the girl child labour. Majority of the girl children (85.72%) spend ½ – 1½ hour for

personal work and 88.57 per cent of them spend 1-2 hours for play and entertainment. This shows that the children who work as labour have very little time for themselves. Whereas 87.14 per cent of them work as labour for 6-8 hours in a day, 50 per cent spend 1-2 hours in household work and 42.85 per cent spend 2-3 hours on household work. This shows that majority of their time is spent in working either as labour or in the house. Also majority of them (55.71%) sleep for 6-8 hours and 41.43 per cent sleep 8-10 hours in a day. This shows that the children have very less time for self-development.

Table 5. Opinion of girl child labour about her work

| S. No. | Statements | Yes | | No | |
|--------|--|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| | | No. | % | No. | % |
| 1. | Like the work | 98 | 70.0 | 42 | 30.0 |
| 2. | Satisfied with wages | 64 | 45.71 | 76 | 54.29 |
| 3. | Optimum hours of work | 48 | 34.29 | 92 | 65.71 |
| 4. | Convinient timings of work | 64 | 45.71 | 96 | 54.29 |
| 5. | Satisfied with the treatment by the employer | 120 | 85.71 | 20 | 14.29 |

With regard to opinion of girl child labour about her work, 70 per cent of them like the work and 85.71 per cent of them are satisfied with the treatment by the employers. But 54.29 per cent of them are not satisfied with the wages, 65.7 per cent are not satisfied with hours of work and 54.29 per cent feel that the timings of work is not convenient. This reveals that even though the girl children like their work due to low education, they are not satisfied with the work.

Table 6. Problems faced by girl child labour

| S.No. | Problems | No. of Respondents |
|-------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. | Long hours of work | 91 (65%) |
| 2. | Heavy work | 78 (55.71%) |
| 3. | Health problems | 84 (60%) |
| 4. | No food and water facilities | 98 (70%) |
| 5. | Severe heat | 35 (25%) |

Table 6 depicts the problems faced by majority of the girl child labour. The major problems faced by majority of the girl child labour were long hours of work, heavy work, health problems and no proper food and water facilities.

CONCLUSION

The study reveals that majority of girl child labour work as agricultural labourers in the

rural area. They are deprived of education due to this and also are not able to enjoy their childhood with long hours of work both at work place and at home. Hence it is necessary for the Government to take up proper action against the child labour and help the children to get good education. For this the government should take up some long term multiprolonged strategy.

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ADOPTION CONSTRAINTS OF TRADITIONAL WATER HARVESTING TECHNOLOGY

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Water is major natural resource, which is limiting factor in the development of agriculture production. Therefore, it is necessary to adopt the water management technology for utilizing the available water resources. Rajasthan is the largest state in India having about 11 percent area of the country, whereas, water availability is only 1% of the country. The formidable Thar desert spread over 61 percent area of state and covering 2 lakhs square kilometers presently. It is extremely difficult condition for its population to survive especially due to non-availability of drinking water.

In Rajasthan, the traditional method of rain water harvesting can be one of the answers of the problems of perennial water scarcity for drinking purpose. To overcome the shortage of drinking water, a traditional method of water harvesting called TANKA is a useful alternative source. TANKA is a local name given to a covered underground tank generally made of masonry or concrete for collection and storage of surface run-off.

Water is the most precious commodity in the arid regions due to prevalence of unfavourable hydrometeorological conditions. In western Rajasthan, particularly in Jodhpur district, the quantity of water available from various sources such as surface water and ground water are not sufficient even for drinking purpose. Over and above the insufficient quantity, the groundwater is moderately to highly saline over a large area. People have been depending on rainwater harvesting (RWH) in the form of small ponds

(Nadis), reservoirs, underground tanks (Tankas), Khadins etc. either for drinking purpose or for agriculture, since time immemorial.

The farming community in this region by and large, resides in scattered settlement (Dhanis) where sand dune, interdunal plains and undulating sandy plains are the dominant land forms. Under such circumstances it is inconceivable that organized water supply scheme will be a feasible proposition to fully meet the irrigation, domestic and livestock water requirements. Therefore, in this region traditional technique of rainwater harvesting by farm ponds ('Tankas' in local parlance) is the only mode of meeting daily needs of water for the desert dwellers.

Water harvesting by means of farm ponds is used to even out the variation in rainfall supply by storing water for the period when supply is limited. Farm ponds of safe economic design to harvest surplus run-off has thus assumed greater importance.

Traditional methods of rainwater harvesting ranges from domestic use to supplemental irrigation for rainfed crops to support the settled life. It has, however been always integrated within a flexible multiple option strategies of resource use. According to individual's economic condition people have evolved their own method for tanka construction. Due to research and development efforts of Central Arid Zone Research Institute, Jodhpur, practically every *dhani* in this region now has one or more improved

tankas mainly for domestic, livestock and life saving irrigation purposes. Considering the importance of Indigenous water management practices, present investigation entitled, "A study on Indigenous Water Harvesting practices of TANKA in Jodhpur district of Rajasthan" was undertaken with the objective—

- To study the constraints perceived by the respondents in using Water Harvesting Structures.

METHODOLOGY

The investigation was carried out in Jodhpur district of Rajasthan which has highest number of indigenous water harvesting structure in the state. Out of 9 Panchayat Samities in the district, two namely Balaser and Sherghar Panchayat Samities were selected for the above study having maximum number of Tanka. Further, five village from each Panchayat Samities having highest number of water harvesting structures were selected for the study. 6 respondents from each selected village were randomly selected, thus in all 60 respondents were included in the experimental group of the study. Similarly equal number of non-adopters were selected from the study area. Thus the final sample size was 120 respondents. The data regarding constraints pertaining to adoption of improved water harvesting structures were collected with the help of interview schedule develop for this purpose. The collected data were coded, tabulated and analyzed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study revealed that there were four types of constraints perceived by the respondents, the result and discussion for which are given below:

The constraints which "put stackles on" in receiving the benefits of water harvesting structure were critically analysed in this section. In present context, the term constraints means all those barriers or barricades which

came in the way of respondents in receiving the benefits of water harvesting structures. It is needless to mention that the extent of benefits to the respondents can be augmented by overcoming the perceived constraints. There may be innumerable constraints before the respondents, consequently they are not adopting the improved water harvesting practices to the extent as expected. Therefore, one of the objectives of the study was to find out the constraints being faced by the respondents in adoption of water harvesting structures. An attempt has been made to identify the economic, technical, socio-psychological and general constraints in adoption of water harvesting structures. The constraints perceived by the respondents have been presented under different headings as under:

Economic Constraints—A critical examination of data presented in table-1 reveals that "initial cost of constructing tanka is very high" was perceived as most important constraint by the adopter and non-adopter respondents by awarding first rank (M.P.S. 88.33 and 90.00) by respondents. This was followed by "loan facility is not available" and was given second rank by adopters with M.P.S. 75.00 and third rank by non-adopters with M.P.S. 80.33. The overall rank assigned to the constraint by the respondents was second with M.P.S. 79.9. Whereas, "Maintenance cost of tanka is high" was given third rank by adopters with M.P.S. 73.33 and non-adopter respondents gave fourth rank to it with M.P.S. 79.16 and when we talk of overall rank by the respondents, they rated it at third rank with M.P.S. 76.24.

Likewise, the constraint "subsidy is very less as compared to the investment" was given fourth rank by adopter with MPS 59.16 whereas, non-adopter respondents gave second rank to it with M.P.S. 82.50 and the overall ranking was fourth with M.P.S. 70.83. The least important constraints perceived by