

**Situation and Forms of Child Labour in Khijidemba Rural
Municipality, Okhaldhunga**

By

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Executive Summary

Article 32 of the CRC defines child labour as any work done by children if harms their physical, social and mental development, involves economic exploitation and compromises against right to education. Child labour is defined from two perspectives as "all non-school and non-leisure activities of children constitute child labour" and "those economic activities that deny a child the possibility of normal development into a responsible adulthood". Accordingly, ILO, through its two conventions (convention No. 138 and 182)¹ bans employment of any person under age 16 even in light works at the cost of schooling and any person under 18 in harmful/hazardous forms of work.

Nepal government promulgated the Children's Act in 1992, the Children's Rules, 1995; the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regularization) Act in 2000 and created National Child Policy in 2012. The Interim Constitution of the country (2007) calls to protect the interests of children. Despite the more than two decades efforts of both policy and legislative reform and enforcement and civil society activism child labour is one that has not declined. The supply and demand of child labour is constant or increasing. Rural area continues to supply to satisfy the demand made of child labour by urban. The Khijidemba R.M. is child labour demanding one for various forms of work.

In order to make the Khijidemba R.M. child labour free, the Khijidemba R.M.. Child Welfare Board Khijidemba R.M., in collaboration with Save the Children Nepal is implementing a five years (2078/79-2080/81 BS) strategic plan to declare Khijidemba R.M. as child labour free. Objective is "creating community/social and institutional mechanisms for the task of protecting children from hazardous forms of work, and offering safeguards to children at risk with ensured opportunities to increase their skills and life prospects. The specific objective of the survey is to establish baseline indicator or database of the different forms of working children in Khijidemba R.M.

The scope of the baseline study is delimited within the framework of ILO/UNICEF "rapid assessment methodology in researching invisible forms of child labour i.e. use of capture and re-capture approach and snowball sampling approach. The methodologies suggest for using non-probability technique as the universe of the study population is unknown, mobile and invisible. The used research tools include review of documents, child questionnaire for individual interview, FGD, KIIs guidelines and the like.

Target population of the study is children of either sex under 18 working for others at the cost of schooling within the 9 wards of Khijidemba R.M. The one week long field operation by 5 field investigators successfully identified and interviewed 308 child labourers. Child employing industries/establishment and households also have been observed, interviewed and estimated.

Study indicated that extent of child labour is high in wards no 1 and 2. Its extent is bit weak in 98 and 9 wards.

The survey mapped the two wards as more child labour prone areas. Child labour is demanded for child domestic, for work in hotel restaurants, in transportation sector and in

¹ Both conventions are ratified by Government of Nepal.

workshops/garage. Demand of child labour in rural areas is seen from agriculture farm, in child domestics and in workshops/garages.

Lesson learned of the survey is that child labour in the Khijidemba R.M. is migrants from outside of Khijidemba, majority from hill side of Khijidemba R.M. Child domestics are common phenomenon to migrant residents mostly employed as government officials and professional job holders. Access to education is relatively better to child domestics than children working in other sectors. Children in agriculture farm are second to child domestic.

Major findings:

- The survey successfully captured and interviewed 308 child labourers working in different nine forms of work employment. Of the interviewed child, 74 per cent are boys and 26 per cent girls.
- The sector child domestic employs highest (35%) proportion of children in the Khijidemba R.M., followed by children in agriculture farm (17%) and in transport sector (14%). Higher proportion of girl over boy child is employed in domestic work. Involvement of girls in transportation sector, construction and in poultry/furniture works is none.
- Based on the tracer information given by interviewed child labour, idea derived from field survey, use of capture-re-capture approach, including in all forms, the survey estimated 1,479 child labourers currently working in Khijidemba R.M. Of the estimated children, 607 are in domestic work, 312 in agriculture farm and the like. It was expected to capture, interview and yield highest estimates of children from agriculture farm.

Socio-demographic Characteristics:

- Nearly 50 per cent of the 308 child labourers are from hill Janajati communities (Magar, Tamang, Newar, Rai, Gurung, Bhujel, Sunuwar Sherpa), followed by 31 per cent children from hill caste communities (Chhetri/ Thakuri, Brahman) and 7 per cent from Terai Caste groups (Terai Brahman, Yadav, Teli, Hajam/Thakur, Baniya/Gupta). Children from Dalits communities (Kami, Sarki/Jairu, Musahar, Paswan) consists nearly six per cent, 5 per cent that of Terai Ethnic (Tharu, Jhangad, Tajpuria, Rajbanshi) and four and half per cent of Muslim communities.
- There appears substantial variation in caste/ethnic belonging and gender of child labour. Highest proportion of girl child labour are from hill caste groups (35%) followed by Hill ethnics (27%) and Dalits (24%). It is none for the children of Muslim communities and less than five per cent for Terai caste groups.
- Over 51 per cent child labourers in Khijidemba R.M. are of under age 15 (74% of girls and 43% of boys) indicating young age composition of girl child. By single year age distribution, over 18 per cent (18.5%) children are from the age 17 (22.4% boys and 7.5% girls).
- Khijidemba R.M., of birth of 88 per cent of the 308 child labour is other than Khijidemba R.M., about five per cent said to have born in India. This implied that 93 per cent of the child labourers working in Khijidemba R.M. are Migrants from other Khijidemba R.M. of Nepal and from India.
- Extent of migrant children is high (above 95%) in case of child domestic, children in agriculture farm and in construction work.
- The survey found 39 Khijidemba R.M. of the country to supply child labour in Khijidemba R.M. based on the Khijidemba R.M. of the birth of the interviewed child labour. Khijidemba R.M. are categorised as high stream if found 10 and more

children, medium stream if found 5 to 9 children and as low stream if found four and less children. Children from the high stream seven Khijidemba R.M.s (Ramechhap, Sindhupalchowk, Kavrepalanchowk, Dolakha, Siraha, Sarlahi and Makawanpur) consists nearly 50 per cent of the total.

- Above 85 per cent of the child labourers are living away from their family, since family of 92 per cent children are still living in the place where she/he was born.
- Child labourers are from bigger families compared to national average. The average family size of these child labours consists of 6.3 members. The average family size of Dalits is smaller (5.5 member) and bigger for Terai Ethnic (7 member). About 41 per cent of the child labours are from 6 to 7 member family.
- Both father and mother of 88 per cent child labourers are living together at home, parents of 12 per cent children are either separated or in unknown status. Nearly 96 per cent children have siblings at home; families of 21 per cent children have their grandparents. Nearly six per cent children (5.5%) reported to have step parents and step siblings in the family.
- In relation to the marital status, four child labourers (1.3% of 308) were married and three reported to have had children.
- Own siblings of 19 per cent child labourers also work as child labour. Higher proportion of younger age children, girls, children of Terai caste, Dalits and Muslims said their siblings also working as child labour.

Schooling and Literacy:

- Of the 308 child labour about 46 per cent were school droppers, 42 per cent currently enrolled and attending to school and the rest 13 per cent were never been to school. Young age children, girls, and children of hill caste groups are more in current schooling status. School dropping tendency is high for upper age children, boys and children from Terai caste, Dalits and Hill Ethnic communities. Never schooling is highly pronounced for Muslims.
- By sector of work employment, 96 per cent child domestics are currently enrolled to school, followed by 27 per cent of child porters and 23 per cent in brick kiln. Except in child domestics, overwhelming majority of child labourers working in other sectors is of school droppers.
- Majority (54%) of the currently school enrolled children are attending to classes of lower secondary level (6-8 grades). On the contrary, over half of the school droppers (50.4%) left the school after completion of any grade of primary level (1 to 5 grades).
- About 94 per cent of the currently school going children are attending school during day time and work in the morning and evening.
- Combining both, ability to read and write, the survey found 82 per cent children as literate and 18 per cent illiterate. More upper age children, girls, children of hill caste groups, Terai ethnics and Dalits are literate compared others.
- Poverty followed by regularly failing in exams, not interested to reading, friend's/peers influence, starting of earning money are the major reasons for school dropping and or never enrollment. Other reasons include not sending by parents, distance of school for higher education, discrimination and abuses, because of education expenses and marriage and over workload.
- Over four-fifth of the school droppers or never enrolled children do not have further interest of re-joining to school and reading. This is well reflected in interview. Most of the interviewed children other than child domestics were of the view that they can accept any advice if field workers offer other than schooling. Whereas some nine per cent showed interest of re-schooling and reading and other 8 per cent to take skill oriented training if available.

- The found that there is a primary school in the village of 86 per cent children; at least a lower secondary and secondary schools respectively of 72 and 70 per cent children and a higher secondary and a technical school respectively at the home village of 29 and less than five per cent children.

Family's Economic Situation

- Families of 76 per cent child labour operate some agriculture land for livelihoods and 24 per cent children reported to come from land less families. Families of 69 per cent child labour have their own agricultural land, some 12 per cent have taken agriculture land in rent for cultivation and families of some six per cent have rented out their agriculture land to others. The extent of landlessness is high for Dalits and Muslims.
- Of the children families doing some of the agriculture operations, 44 per cent meet their annual food security from own production, however, 42 per cent could meet it for six months or less period in a year.
- Involvement in daily wage labour, hiring out children in child labourers, doing small business and taking loan are family's strategies to mitigate the food insecure periods of the families afflicted of food shortage.
- Both father and mother of the majority of child labourers are engaged in own agriculture occupation followed by casual labour and domestic workers. Own account work in non-agriculture, foreign employment, government or non-government offices jobs and caste based occupation are further work employment of the parents of child labourers.

Working Conditions and Hazards

- The current work is the first work of 84 per cent of child labourers (of 85% boys and 83% girls). The average age at taking first job of the child labourers is 12 year (12.5 years for boys and 10.2 years for girls).
- Nearly 51 per cent child labourers are doing the current job for less than or about a year. The maximum duration of children doing current job is five years and more (for 6%).
- The daily working hours of these children resembles characteristically hazardous condition of work specifically for boy child labourers. On average a child has to work for 9 hours in a day (9.4 hours for boys and 6.2 hours for girls). Four-fifth of the child labourers (75% of girls) said to get time for taking rest and allowed to stay on leave. One third of them can get leave during festival period and bit above one fourth can take it whenever they needed.
- 42 per cent of the child labourers work for monthly or periodic basis of payment, 32 per cent work for food, living and for education (70% of girls against 19% of boys) and another 15 per cent on piece basis of work.

Employer's Child labour Relation

- 49 per cent child labourers have experience of their employers scolding them. Its extent is quite high (63%) for girls; one third regularly faces the charge of not doing the work on time.
- Almost daily and weekly are the frequencies a child faces abuses from employers like scolding, beating, accusation of not doing work on time and so forth.
- Employers are the major (65%) perpetrator of abusing child labourers followed by clients (26%) and senior workers (22%).

Social security and Future aim

- About one-fourth of child labourers (40% of girls and 18% of boys) are familiar with organizations working for child's rights. Higher level of girl's awareness is associated to their status of current schooling, 66 per cent of girl and 48 per cent of boy labourers also received some kind of help such as orientation on the issues of child rights,

affiliation in child clubs and some stationeries and reading materials from such organizations. This indicated that girl child labourers are more knowledgeable than boys about social security systems.

- Children's desire to gain skill training varies by their sex. All girl child want to be trained in embroidery and cutting/sewing, whereas 30 and 24 per cent boys respectively wanted to be trained in mechanical or workshop and driving sector.
- 64 per cent of the children (75% of girls) opined that they were to be in schooling than working and combining schooling and work.

Health Hazards at work:

- Fever, cuts/wounds, cold and cough and tiredness, body ache and swellings are the major health hazards child labourers ever experienced while in work. Of the children faced health problem 37 per cent were visited to private medical store for treatment, followed by 29 per cent in government hospital and 24 per cent received medicine from employer. In majority of the cases, expense incurred in treatment was made by employers.

Living, food and family attachment:

- Nearly 44 per cent of total, 80 per cent of girls and 31 per cent of boys live in employer's house; 29 per cent of total and 35 per cent of boys live in working place and 21 per cent (26% of boys) live in rented room. On average 6 persons live in a room (6.4 persons in case of boys and 3.4 in case of girls).
- Over 82 per cent children get food three times or more in a day. The food they get to eat is either better or similar to their home for 84 per cent child labourers.
- Parents of 89 per cent child labour know about their working place and the work they are doing.
- Over 85 per cent of the total, 88 per cent of boys and 79 per cent of girl child labour want to continue the current work. Above one half of the children (40% of girls) are in a position to leave the current job at any time and 42 per cent are unable to do so until they get better alternative.
- 56 per cent of the child labours do not want to return home against 26 per cent wanting to return back. Enjoying in current work, family poverty, and lack of educational opportunities at home village are the major reasons for no desire to return home.
- To the sense of child labour, meaning of child rights are fulfilments of children's essential needs, free education for children, children to be free from labour and freedom to work, walk, staying with family and entertainment.

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Acronyms and Abbreviation

CDPS	: Central Department of Population Studies
CL	: Child Labour
CRC	: Convention on the Rights of Child
RMCWB	: Khijidemba Rural Municipality Child Welfare Board
FGD	: Focus Group Discussion
GO	: Government Organization
ILO	: International Labour Organization
IPEC	: International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour
KII	: Key Informant Interview
NA	: Not Applicable
NGO	: Non-Government Organization
SC	: Save the Children
TU	: Tribhuvan University
UN	: United Nations
UNCRC	: United Nations Convention on the Rights of Child
UNICEF	: United Nations Children's Fund
RMCP	: Rural Municipality Child Protection Committee
R.M.	: Rural Municipality

Chapter I: Background and Rationale of the Study

1.1 The Context

‘Child labour’ a developmental issue received considerable attention politically, intellectually and in the media. Meanwhile there is a growing body of related literature on it. A common assumption is that the best way of protecting children from 'harmful work' is to keep them out of employment below a certain age. Most of the definition of child labour used by major UN and international organisations adopted ‘harmful concept’ of child work. If any work done by children harms their physical, mental, social, emotional and on the whole future development is child labour. This concept is biased towards economic exploitation of children. Some child right organisations including Save the Children Alliance viewed that child labour should be defined on the basis of harms to children’s right to education according to Article 32 of Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC). Two opposite definitions of child labour are:

- *All non-school and non-leisure activities of children constitute child labour. Child labour would also include light works in household enterprises after school or even help with domestic chores such as home cleaning, or looking after younger siblings.*
- *Child labour includes only those economic activities that deny a child the possibility of normal development into a responsible adulthood. This view includes child labour for strenuous or hazardous employment in economic activities by younger children, as well as children working in the worst form (ILO/IPEC, 2004).*

Child labour is about universal phenomenon in both rural and urban areas of Nepal. According to the Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC) 1989, any person of age under 18 if bound to work that hampers her/his education opportunity and opportunity of mental, physical and social development is child labour. Likewise, the ILO convention on minimum age of employment (No. 138) bans employment of any person under age 16 even in light works at the cost of schooling and any person under 18 in harmful/hazardous forms of work. The ILO Convention on the Elimination of Worst/Hazardous forms of child labour (No. 182) strictly prohibits any person under 18 to take any employment that is harmful for their physical, mental and social development. Showing its firm commitments the Government of Nepal has ratified the CRC (1989), ILO Conventions 138 and 182², as well as other relevant conventions that set age standards for children’s admissions to work on the basis of occupation.

Right after ratification of CRC, the government promulgated the Act Relating to Children in 1992 and the Children's Rules, 1995; the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regularization) Act in 2000 after ratification of the ILO convention No. 138; created National Child Policy in 2012. The interim Constitution of the country (2007) seeks to protect the interests of children by conferring on them certain fundamental rights and imposing for their benefit certain directive principles and State policies. Likewise, numbers of laws contain important provisions for the protection of the interests of children and child labourers. The children's act, child rules and the national child policy at first asked for the protection of children from any forms of physical and

² Nepal Ratified CRC on January, 1990, and Accepted its ratification on September, 1990; ratified ILO Convention 138 on May, 1997 and 182 on January 2002.

mental harassment, neglect, economic exploitation and sexual abuses. The Child Labour Act 1992 imposes a sanction of up to three months in prison for employing an underage child. Employing children in dangerous work or against their will is punishable by up to one year in prison. The Child Labour Act was amended in 1999 to make it more abuse-specific, especially in relation to sexual abuse. The law prohibits children from involvement in the sale, distribution, or trafficking of alcohols or drugs.

But these legislations alone are not seem to be sufficient to address the complex problem of employing child labour, their exploitation and abuses at the family, community and at the working places of children in difficult circumstances in Nepal. Despite the efforts of more than two decades of both policy and legislative reform and their enforcement and civil society activism to abolish it, still child labour is a widespread phenomenon in Nepal. Child labour is one that has not declined despite the existence of laws that prohibit burdensome forms of child labour and the constant efforts of many governmental, non-governmental and international organisations to protect children's rights. Major concern of child labour has been the hazardous environment in which they work and the widening and changing dimensions of their work. The Khijidemba R.M.. Khijidemba R.M. is one believed to containing various forms of visible and invisible child labour.

In close coordination with UN agencies (ILO, UNICEF) and other national and international development partners (Save the Children, Plan Nepal) Government of Nepal identified children working in different sectors as worst/hazardous forms of child labour. Among others those sectors include:

- Children in hotel/restaurants and tea shops/ local shops,
- Child domestics,
- Child rag-pickers,
- Children in transport sector (*khalasi*),
- Child porters,
- Children in brick kilns
- Children in mining and quarrying,
- Children in carpet/garments and embroidery industries, and
- Children in workshops/repair shops
- Manufacturing sector (industries)

Many more other forms of child labour are expected to observe in Khijidemba RM. Some of these sectors employ child labour in regular and some in seasonal basis. Child porters and quarrying sector have seasonal nature of employment. Child in hotel/tea shops, in domestic, rag-pickers, transport helping and in carpet/garment and embroidery industries are believed to employ in regular basis. In most of the rural areas of Khijidemba R.M., the forms of child labour are believed to co-exist.

1.2 Objectives and Rationale of the Project and Baseline Study

The research has following objectives

- To contribute to creation of community/social and institutional mechanisms for the improvement in the task of protection of children from hazardous work, and
- Children and young people at risk are safer with greater opportunities to increase their skills and life prospects.

1.2.1 Rationale of the Baseline Study

R.M. Child Welfare Board Khijidemba R.M. has developed 3 years (2078/79 to 2080/81 B.S.) strategic plan to declare R.M. as a child labour free with the aim of eradicating all hazardous forms of child labour from the R.M. One expected outcome of the strategy is to establish child labour data at RMCWB (R.M. Child Welfare Board). The collected data of working children will be supportive to plan child focused programming and interventions. Additionally, the collected data will be useful for government officials, civil society and other stakeholder those who are working in Khijidemba R.M. to eradicate child labourers. Exploring and identifying the initial situation of the working children is expected to be helpful to implement the strategy effectively so that the impact can be assessed by the end of the project period. The baseline study will use mixed method approach: both the rapid assessment method as well as the snowball sampling technique in investigating and exploring (as there may be some unknown forms of labour too) child labour in the Khijidemba R.M...

The objective of the baseline study is to provide baseline information on project related indicators against which to assess the situation and establish benchmarks. The specific objective of the study is to assess/establish a pre-intervention snap shot against key project indicators for monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment in the future. Moreover the baseline is also provides the present socio economic status of the families and communities, so that we could compare the changes in certain indicators on the basis of socio economic condition. Moreover the base line will be established by using different data collection methods such as focus group discussion, key informant interview, daily routine mapping, observation etc. and both qualitative and quantitative data will be collected through the baseline.

The specific objective of the baseline study is:

- To establish baseline indicator or database of the different forms of working children in Khijidemba R.M.

1.2.3 Scope of the Study

Two-pronged scopes of the baseline study are review work of relevant documents and collection of primary data through field study. The review work and the approaches of collecting primary data have been summarized as following:

Scope of study	Process/methods to follow
Review work	Review of: Literature on hazardous forms of child labour, policy and national and international instruments to ban worst/hazardous forms of child labour (labour Act, rapid assessment in child labour by GOs, and INGOs),

	Documents like project proposal; grant start up form; log frame of the project; annual plan and so forth.
Finalization of methodology and sample size	<p>Triangulation of quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approach,</p> <p>A survey of major child labour prone localities and market centres of the Khijidemba R.M. according to forms of child labour and individual interview with children working there, parents of those children, (The sample size will be determined in close collaboration with Save the Children's team),</p> <p>In-depth interview/discussion with officials of Khijidemba R.M. corporation, RM offices, RMCWB, and child right based civil societies or NGOs,</p> <p>Consultative meeting/interview with representatives of trade unions in the Khijidemba R.M,</p> <p>Interview with labour contractors/employers of children and factory owners.</p>

Data collection instruments	Structured survey schedule/questionnaire to interview children working in different forms of work and FGD guideline, Checklist for the interview of the parents/guardians of children, Checklist to interview officials from R.M. corporation, Wards, RMCWBs and NGOs, Checklist to interview representatives of trade unions, contractor/employers and factory owners,
Data collection and management	Data will be collected by qualified and well-trained field personals under strict supervision/guidance of the lead consultant and his/her associates, The R.M. child protection committee members or their representative will be trained and deployed to collect primary data from the field, The collected data will be well edited before machine entry, Consistency check will be performed to eliminate both recording and entry errors, The qualitative survey, in-depth interview and consultative meetings with government officials and others will be carried out by the consultant or his/her associates, The qualitative data will be de-coded, encoded and transcribed and presented in case studies, narratives and as appropriate,
Data analysis and presentation	The quantitative data will be entered in SPSS data editor format. Data have been analysed using cross tables, pictorial presentation, and in case studies and narratives in case of qualitative data.

1.3 Analytical Framework

There is no universally accepted definition of child labour though it is generally agreed that child labour is work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity and that is harmful to their physical and mental development. It includes work that 1) is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous for and harmful to children; and 2) interferes with their schooling by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school, obliging them to leave school prematurely, or requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work (ILO/IPEC, 2004).

Most definitions of child labour used by major UN and international organisations adopt the concept of ‘harmful work,’ as laid out in Article 32 of the UNCRC (see Box 1). Any work done by children which harms their physical, mental, social, emotional or overall future development is defined as child labour. In this view, child labour includes only those economic activities that deny a child the possibility of developing normally into a responsible adult. It includes strenuous or hazardous employment in economic activities by young children (under the age of 15) as well as work by children of all ages in the worst forms of child labour (ILO/IPEC, 2004).

There are, however, contesting definitions. One defines child labour much more broadly as all non-school and non-leisure activities. In this view, child labour also includes light work in household enterprises after school and even helping with domestic chores such as cleaning the home and looking after younger siblings. This is not the definition of child labour adopted in

this study. Other views suggest that instead of distinguishing between child labour and child work on the basis of harmful and non-harmful forms of work that the term “child work” be used to refer to all forms of child work and that different degrees of harm be identified where necessary by the age of children.

Box 1: Article 32 of the UNCRC prohibiting children from doing harmful/hazardous work

1. States Parties recognise the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.
2. States Parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the implementation of the present article. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of other international instruments, States Parties shall in particular:
 - (a) Provide for a minimum age or minimum wages for admission to employment.
 - (b) Provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment.
 - (c) Provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present article.

UN agencies like the ILO and UNICEF define work that hampers children's right to education as child labour but exclude light work in the home before and after school, supervised skill development and internship training, helping on the family farm or in a family business, and other work that does not hamper children's rights. Similarly, child rights organisations define child labour as work which denies children schooling opportunities by virtue of the need for their household or outside work for household or personal survival.

More particularly, in defining child labour by condition of work UNICEF does not object to children's work (in contradistinction to exploitative and oppressive child labour). Of children's work it writes:

Children's work needs to be seen as happening along a continuum, with destructive or exploitative work at one end and beneficial work—promoting or enhancing children's development without interfering with their schooling, recreation and rest—at the other. And between these two poles are vast areas of work that need not negatively affect a child's development" (UNICEF, 1997).

Children not in school and not in the labour force are idle or inactive (Suwal et al., 1997; Central Bureau of Statistics, 2004), a classification which makes good economic sense, but which, for various reasons, sees such children denied the right to education and serving as a reserve pool for the supply of child labour. Therefore, a number of movements and organisations³ have suggested that non-working out-of-school children be incorporated under a broad definition of child labour to draw the attention of all stakeholders, including the government, UN agencies, donors, NGO/INGOs, communities, schoolteachers, and parents, toward promoting universal education as a means to end child labour. Their reasoning lies with the observation that children who are not obliged to attend school until compulsory education laws or who genuinely do not have

³ MV Foundation, www.schoolistherightplacetowork.org, Save the Children Japan and its partner organisations.

access to education have little alternative other than to work, beg, or turn to delinquency or worse (ILO, 1996: 35). If such a child enters the labour market, it is likely he or she will end up in the worst forms of labour, including porting, which is one of the worst forms of labour both by definition and by condition⁴.

To sum up the discussion, major child rights organisations seem to have accepted that the term “children’s work” means non-objectionable, light work which does not hamper the right to education or future development and that “child labour” refers to exploitative and harmful work. This understanding is captured in Article 32 of the UNCRC (see Box 1), the most widely accepted definition of child labour. Once a country ratifies the UNCRC, as Nepal has, it becomes a legal document of the nation, and the nation is obliged to implement it by creating a domestic legal framework to “provide appropriate penalties and other sanctions in order to protect children from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to interfere with the child’s education.”

International conventions adopted by the UN and the ILO define a child as anyone under the age of 18 and child labour as work performed by children under the age of 18. ILO Convention No. 138, Minimum Age of Work, defines the appropriate minimum age of work as 15 in developed and 14 in developing nations). For the worst forms of work, however, the minimum age of work is 18, or adulthood, as is laid out in ILO Convention No. 182 and ILO Recommendation No. 190, which were adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1999. Convention No. 182 prohibits all children under 18 years of age from working in the unconditional worst forms of child labour, which it defines as slavery, forced labour, the sale and trafficking of children, and the forced recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; the use of children in prostitution, pornography, and illicit activities. In addition, children are banned from performing “hazardous work,” which is determined by the nature of the work and the hazards associated with it (see Box 2).

By definition under ILO Convention No. 182, labouring of children qualifies as hazardous on multiple grounds: it exposes children to psychological abuse, forces children to transport heavy loads, and to work long hours. In addition, it is harmful by condition. Since it results in children’s attending school irregularly and, ultimately, dropping out, it is, as defined in the UNCRC, harmful to children’s physical, mental and social development. Finally, under ILO Convention No. 138, no individual under 18 should engage in hazardous work. Thus, from many perspectives, children being away from home and natural guardians, working at the cost of schooling are “child labour” and not “children’s work” and must be eliminated.

Table 1.1: Minimum ages of work according to ILO Convention No. 138

Type of work	In all countries alike, developed and developing	Developing countries where the economy and educational facilities are poorly developed
Work excluded from	Any age	Any age

⁴ By definition according to the Minimum Age Convention and by condition since porting harms the physical, mental and future development of the children who do it and is exploitative in nature.

minimum age legislation*		
Light work	13 years	12 years
Non-hazardous work	Not less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling, and in no case less than 15 years**	Not less than 14 years (for a limited period)
Hazardous Work	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)
Unconditional worst forms of child labour	18 years (only adults may do, if at all)	18 years (only adults may do, if at all)

Source: ILO/IPEC, 2004.

* Household chores, work in family undertakings, and work undertaken as part of education.

** The minimum age for admission to employment or work is determined by national legislation and can be set at 14 (in developing countries), 15 or 16 years (in developed countries).

At the same time, however, these ILO conventions nos. 182 and 138 and Recommendation No. 190 allow for a child to become an apprentice or undergo vocational training at the age of 14 and for children aged 13 and above (12 in developing countries) to engage in light work if it does not harm their development and education and is beneficial for their learning (Table 1.1). The basic premise is that children should not be employed in any type of work before completing compulsory education.

Box 2: The worst forms of work and hazardous work according to ILO Convention No. 182 and Recommendation No. 190 respectively

Worst forms of work(Convention No. 182)	Hazardous forms of work(Recommendation No. 190)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slavery or similar practices, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage, and forced or compulsory labour (including the forced recruitment of children for the use in armed conflict); • Using or offering a child for prostitution or pornography, • Using or offering a child for illicit activities, such as for the production and trafficking of drugs; • Work by whose nature or because of the circumstances in which it is carried out is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of the child, i.e. 'hazardous work'. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse; • Work underground, underwater, at dangerous heights, and in confined spaces; • Work with dangerous machinery, equipment, and/or tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads; • Work in an unhealthy environment exposing children to hazardous substances, agents, or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health; and • Work under particularly difficult conditions including long hours, work at night, and work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employment.

1.4 Research Methodology

Khijidemba R.M. is the location of this study and children under 18 years of age (those who have completed age 17 but not age 18 are included) working for others for cash or kind or for living, food and education is taken as subject of study as 'child labour'. The survey used rapid assessment methodology in researching child labour of the ILO and UNICEF and Snowball sampling technique to identify, contact and interview of the child labour. Both methodologies suggest to use non-probability technique when the universe of the study subject is unknown, is mobile and invisible. The rapid assessment methodology prescribes for the use of fish-catch approach and the snowball for locate and re-locate⁵ approach.

1.4.1 Rationale for Using Rapid Assessment and Snowball Approaches

In conducting a study on child labour working in different forms that could be termed as worst form of work and the subject of the study is mobile population, using just a single research method would not be suffice. Such a study requires both quantitative approaches to estimate the populations involved in each type of work in the Khijidemba R.M. as well as qualitative approaches to validate those estimates and to understand working conditions, how children get involved, and the socio-economic, cultural and psycho-social hazards associated with the occupation. To get the fullest picture possible, quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to investigate and analyse the context of child labour in the Khijidemba R.M. Thinking that the nature of child labour is mobile, the 'capture-recapture'⁶ method was used to conduct structured interview with them. Formal FGDs as well as informal discussions (with child and adults, and other stakeholders), KIIs, and observation of activities as well as other approaches immediately arising in the field were adopted in line with the ILO/UNICEF "Guidelines for Rapid Assessment: Investigating Child Labour" (2005), a document which recommends using both quantitative and qualitative information as tools for in-depth research.

Rapid assessment is an innovative methodology that employs several research strategies simultaneously for the relatively rapid understanding of a specific problem or issue and for use in comparison with the research methodologies of large-scale surveys. Though it is done within a short time frame with limited resources, its findings and interpretations of those findings provide a basis for formulating action-oriented strategies and implementing intervention policies or, alternatively, for conducting further research. A rapid assessment can also be used to launch effective awareness-raising and public information campaigns (ILO/UNICEF, 2005).

Rapid assessment is regarded primarily as qualitative methodology because it emphasises the research tools of observation and interviewing without long-term participant engagement in anthropological fieldwork or systematic probabilistic survey methodology and tools. Nevertheless, it frequently integrates quantitative data and also produces results that can be compared. The method offers great potential for uncovering rich veins of previously unknown information about a relatively limited issue or population and leads to new and insightful

⁵ Researchers request the few members of the target population s/he can locate to provide information to locate other members of that population whom they know.

⁶ This is a technique that has been used in biological sciences to quantify the size of wild animal or insect populations and, more recently, to quantify groups of people who are highly mobile like street children or children working in mobile sectors.

understanding of a particular reality (ILO/UNICEF, 2005). For this reason, it is an appropriate tool for researching child labourers, whose exact population in local and regional contexts and even rural areas is not known though involvement of child labour in different sectors of work/employment is a phenomenon found in the Khijidemba R.M.. of observation.

The rapid assessment methodology is also appropriate for research into child labour for its replicability: it can target similar or related groups and populations by identifying the extent of an issue and/or amplifying or verifying the findings of earlier research. Rapid assessment offers the possibility of looking at, among other things:

- the causes of and the pathways into child labour in different sectors of work/employment;
- the actual work that male and female child labour, both those under 14 and those 14 and above do;
- the living and working conditions of child labourers; and
- child labourer's own perceptions of their situations.

Extensive testing of the rapid assessment methodology in the investigation of child labour has shown that even in difficult research circumstances it generates an impressive array of findings and interpretations that generate policy recommendations on a local and regional level and provide inputs for national policy-making (ILO/UNICEF, 2005). Since it includes the experiences and insights of both boy and girl labourers, it is instrumental in addressing child labour issues in a gender-sensitive manner. It also encourages children to participate in the research endeavour, thus approaching the ideal of child-centred research, and allows for the internal validation of the information collected through observations and interviews.

Snowball sample is a [non-probability sampling technique](#) that is appropriate to use in research when the members of a population are difficult to locate. This sampling procedure is hardly likely to lead a representative sample, but taken as a best method available to researching child labour. Since, it was not likely to find a list of different forms of child labour in the Khijidemba R.M... With the help of the first identified children as labourers and participated in the study, they were used as informant, it is likely that they know other child labourer like them, to locate other children. As snowball sampling is non-representative for the larger population, therefore is used as a method for exploratory.

1.4.2 Research Design and Sample Size

Fish-catch approach and snowball sampling are the guiding principle of the research design. Children of either sex under age 18 if working to support for their own or family's survival at the cost of schooling and education in any sector of work are considered as child labour, as subject of the study. All 16 VDCs and 2 Municipalities of the Khijidemba R.M. Khijidemba R.M.. is taken as geographical location of the study. From within the survey domain, the survey initially aimed to capture and interview over 250 corking in different sectors. In reality, the field survey successfully identified and interviewed 308 child labourers. Child employing industries, establishment and households also have been observed, interviewed and estimated.

Table 1.2: Distribution of interviewed child labourer by VDC/municipality of survey and age and sex of children

Wards	Age		Sex		Total*
	<15 years	15-17 years	Male	Female	
1	28	41	60	9	69
2	30	31	33	28	61
3	36	19	45	10	55
4	7	16	18	5	23
5	16	8	20	4	24
6	6	12	15	3	18
7	4	13	13	4	17
8	20	6	17	9	26
9	11	4	7	8	15
Total	158	150	228	80	308

* Wards have been arranged according to the extent of child labour captured and interviewed

1.4.4 Estimation of the Number of Child Labourers

The capture-recapture technique is used to estimate the size of mobile populations like child labours. An initial sample of child labour is "captured," interviewed individually, asked if she/he knows other working children in the neighbouring areas, number she/he knows by sex of child. The child then marked and released onto the job market to become randomly dispersed in the population as a whole. Then a second sample has been taken, and its total size and the number of marked (recaptured) individuals noted. Under the capture-recapture principle, it was assumed that the size of previously marked individuals and new catch in the second attempt and the number of known subject by the interviewed subjects in both first and second capture equalled the size of study subject in the survey locality. An adjustment factor then is determined to estimate the extent of under-reporting to re-adjust the estimated size.

1.4.5 Research Tools and Data Collection

The following research tools and approaches to collecting data were used.

Literature Review: The team reviewed the existing surveys, rapid assessment reports, and policy documents of the government, the UN and other bilateral and multilateral aid agencies, development partners, and child rights-based organisations before developing an analytical framework and designing the structured interviews and checklists for KIIs and FGDs. Particular documents reviewed include the publications of ILO/IPEC, UNICEF, Save the Children, and the Ministry of Labour and Transport Management. The team also reviewed published research reports and articles from academic publications and research journals.

Survey Questionnaire: Three types of survey questionnaires were designed: a semi-structured interview for use with child labourers, a checklist for employers of child labour, and a checklist for Key Informant Interview (KII) with officials of related GOs and NGO. All three explored a variety of issues which can be broadly classified as characteristics of individual child labourers, information about their family situation, reasons for their involvement in labouring, the nature of their work and working conditions, and their knowledge of child rights and desire for rehabilitation.

Child-centred questions have been designed to obtain individual characteristics like age, sex, caste/ethnicity, place of birth and current place of residence, marital status, literacy, current school attendance and reasons for leaving school, desire to go to school if the opportunity arose, and juggling both work and school. Family-related questions probed into family composition, whether the child labourer parents were alive or dead, whether families included step-parents and step-siblings. Additional household issues covered include home ownership and type of house, ownership of agricultural land, food security for family survival, occupation of parents and sources of family livelihood.

In terms of work, the survey asked age at start of working, reason for children were in work, whether their natural sibling were in child labour, who had gotten them involved in the work and at what age, and how long they had been working. They were further asked about process of recruitment in the work, earning and its control, place of living and timing of eating by quality of food they were given to take, opportunity to listen radio and watch television and take part in other recreational activities, experienced health hazards related to the work they involved in, and the experiences of harassment and violence against them. Other issues were knowledge about organisations working for the child rights, future expectations and prospects of repatriation with family.

Personal Interviews: Well-trained and experienced Lectures investigators (Ragani Chandeshwori Campus) conducted semi-structured interviews with 308 child labourers of different sectors. After building rapport, each child was interviewed individually in circumstances which preserved the confidentiality of his or her responses.

Observation and Personal Histories: The study team observed child doing work, taking note of their nature of work, their physical size, the way they do it, safety measures used, their manner of speaking, their personal habits, including smoking and drinking, the food they ate, and their clothes and footwear. Some of the empathetic and notable personal histories were compiled focusing on acquiring an understanding of the family background that had pushed the child into

working, including family disruption, as well as personal characteristics and social and working processes.

Key Informant Interview: at the field level members of RM Child Protection Committee (RMCP), RM secretaries in case of survey R.M. and ward secretary in case of surveyed ward of Municipalities have been contacted as key informants. Likewise, officials of child right based NGOs and Khijidemba R.M. child welfare board (RMCWB) were also contacted.

1.4.6 Hiring and Training of Field Investigators and Field Operations

Five lecturers of Ragani Chandeshwori Campus have been appointed as field investigators for one week period. The field investigators were then given orientation of two days on the following issues:

- the worst forms of child labour and why different forms of child labour complies of the conditions of the worst forms of child labour,
- building rapport and assimilating into the local context,
- skills in conducting interview and recording personal histories,
- carrying out in-depth interviews, informal discussions, and FDGs
- observation skills
- Ethical issues, including being child-friendly and respectful to communities.

1.4.7 Data Management and Analysis

The structured interviews were thoroughly edited and checked for consistency right after they were completed. The notes on personal histories, FGDs, KIIs and informal discussions, and observations have been narrated and de-coded. Back in the CDPS office, post-coding of open-ended responses and table-editing of interviews was done before data was entered using SPSS software to define variables and value labels and to manage and analyse the data. The entered data was edited for entry errors and intra- and inter-variable consistency and for ranges checking. The qualitative and quantitative information collected was triangulated wherever possible in the presentation, interpretation, and analysis of findings. Blending the data enhanced both the reliability and the validity of the findings and made for more robust conclusions about policy. The data was categorised as is indicated below. Almost all the variables were analysed using these categories.

Re-grouping of caste/ethnic communities

Caste groups:

Hill Origin: Chhetri/Thakuri, Brahman, Giri/Puri/Sanyasi,

Terai Origin: Terai Brahman, Yadav, Teli, Hajam/Thakur, Baniya/Gupta

Janajati Groups:

Hill origin: Magar, Tamang, Newar, Rai, Gurung, Bhujel, Sunuwar, Sherpa

Terai origin: Tharu, Jhangad, Tajpuria, Rajbanshi

Dalits:

Hill Groups: Kami, Sarki, Pariyar

Religious Group: Muslims

1.5 Ethical Issues and Safeguarding

The study team is aware to follow the Save the Children's established child safeguarding protocols. In addition to this, measures to ensure the correct treatment and protection of vulnerable children and adults are in place during the data collection, especially when data collection may bring to light protection concerns or lead to the disclosure of abuse by children. Save the Children has developed and implementing child safeguarding policy and orientation on child safeguarding be provided those who involve in the data collection process and enumerators have to sign the child safeguarding policy.

Chapter II: Findings of the Study

This chapter deals about the major findings of the baseline survey and establishes baseline indicators useful for the programme intervention to eliminate child labour from the Khijidemba R.M. It first estimates the extent and prevalence of different forms of child labour in survey locality. It further discusses about demand and supply nexus for child labour, and then present's demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the child labour and her/his family. It identifies and describes about the working condition, income earning, nature of hazards, working and schooling status, living conditions, harassments and abuses, personal habits and future aims have been discussed.

2.1 Prevalence of Child Labours

This section presents facts and figures found from survey about prevalence of child labour by different forms and estimation of child labour by Wards of survey and the sector of employment.

2.1.1 Prevalence by Sector of Work

Child domestic is the major sector of work employment to engage child labour (above 35%) followed by children in agriculture farm(17%). Girl child's presence is predominant in domestic work followed by brick kiln (Table 2.1). The transportation sector stands at third position to employ child labour (14%) in the Khijidemba R.M. From this we can conclude that child domestic, children in brick kiln and children in transport sector are the major sector found to employ child labour in the Khijidemba R.M. as a major area of intervention.

Table 2.1: Percentage distribution of interviewed child labourers by sex and type of labour

Sector of child labour	Boys		Girls		Both	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	Col. %
Child domestic	44	40.4	65	59.6	109	35.4
Agricultural farm	43	82.7	9	17.3	52	16.9
Transport sector	44	100.0		0.0	44	14.3
Workshops	21	95.5	1	4.5	22	7.1
Hotel/restaurant	19	90.5	2	9.5	21	6.8
Carpet/embroidery and sewing	16	94.1	1	5.9	17	5.5

Work in construction	16	100.0		0.0	16	5.2
Child porter	10	90.9	1	9.1	11	3.6
Poultry and furniture	9	100.0		0.0	9	2.9
Others	6	85.7	1	14.3	7	2.3
Total	228	74.0	80	26.0	308	100.0

Note: Others includes child labourers working in shoe making, juice shop, *thanka* (religious posters) painting, fruit/juice shops and selling spicy peas. Children delivering gas cylinder included in pottering sector.

About seven per cent child labourers are engaged in each 'machine and motor vehicle garage/workshop, grill workshop and hotel restaurants. Carpet, embroidery and sewing industries found to employ nearly six per cent of all child labours and about five per cent of the captured and interviewed children were working in construction sector (road, house, house painting, well/boring). Some four per cent of the 308 child labourers are child porters, about three per cent employed in poultry and furniture industry.

The survey identified furniture, garage/workshops and poultry industries as new and un-researched sectors to employ child labour as like to the hazardous forms of child work. Though, the major and visible sectors to employ child labour in the Khijidemba R.M. is child domestic, children in agriculture farm, children in transport sector and in hotel restaurants.

2.1.2 Estimation of Child Labour

Applying both the rapid assessment methodology and the snowball sampling procedure, with the help of the provided information by the captured and interviewed child labour, the survey estimated 1,479⁷ child labours currently working in the Khijidemba R.M. The survey captured and interviewed 308 children; they reported to know other 981 children like them and based on general impression gained from field study and reporting of field researcher, the size of children under reported come to be 190 (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Estimation of child labour by sector of work/employment

Sector of child labour	Captured and interviewed	Others reported by interviewed	Estimated for under report	Estimates of total
Child domestic	109	419	79	607
Agriculture farm	52	208	52	312
Transport sector	44	107	0	151
Mechanical and grill workshops	22	113	14	149
Hotel/restaurant	21	86	21	128
Carpet/embroidery and sewing	17	24	8	49
Work in construction	16	18	10	44

⁷ Including both child interviewed i.e. 308 and other 981 working children whom they know and estimates for under counting and reporting.

Child porter	11	2	3	16
Poultry and furniture	9	0	1	10
Fruit/juice shop	3	3	0	6
Others	4	1	2	7
Total	308	981	190	1,479

The estimate also revealed that dearth of the child labour related problem in the Khijidemba R.M. lies with child domestic followed by children in brick making industries and transport and in motor and grill repair/making garage workshop. Other sectors that employ child labour are Hotel/restaurant, carpet/embroidery and sewing/stitching and construction. The findings of the survey presented here after is presented for the captured and interviewed 308 child labours.

2.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Caste/ethnic belonging, age and gender composition, migration of child labourers and place of origin, family composition and family's economic status and social infrastructure in the place of origin of the children have been discussed in this section.

2.2.1 Caste/Ethnic Composition

Of the captured and interviewed child labours, nearly 50 per cent (47%) are from hill ethnic communities (Hill Janajatis) followed by children from hill caste groups. Likewise, about seven per cent children from Terai caste groups and the rest are from Dalits (5.5%), Terai ethnic (5.2%) and Muslim communities (Table 2.3). The finding indicated that child labour is an undesirable social phenomenon across all caste/ethnic communities. Individual caste/ethnic groups re-grouped under the broader caste/ethnic groups is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Distribution of child labour by broader caste/ethnicity and sex

Broader caste/ethnic group	Caste/Ethnic community re-grouped	Number	Percent
Hill Ethnic	Magar, Tamang, Newar, Rai, Gurung, Bhujel, Suuwar Sherpa,	145	47.1
Hill Caste group	Chhetri/Thakuri, Brahman, Giri/Puri/Sanyasi	94	30.5
Terai Caste	Terai Brahman, Yadav, Teli, Hajam/Thakur, Baniya/Gupta	22	7.1
Dalits	Kami, Sarki, Pariyar	17	5.5
Terai Ethnic	Tharu, Jhangad, Tajpuria, Rajbanshi	16	5.2
Religious group	Muslim	14	4.5
Total		308	100.0

Child labour is a phenomenon overwhelmed by boy child to all caste/ethnic communities. Nearly three-fourth of the child labour is boys (74%). Presence of girls in different forms of child labour is notable to the girls of Hill Caste groups (35%), Hill ethnics (28%) and Dalits (24%). It is absolutely none for the girls of Muslim communities and for Terai caste groups (Table 2.4).

Presence of girls in the state of child labour is high in case of child domestic, in agriculture farm and in other sectors of work.

Table 2.4: Distribution of child labour by broader caste/ethnicity and gender

Caste/Ethnicity	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hill Ethnic	105	72.4	40	27.6	145	47.1
Hill Caste group	61	64.9	33	35.1	94	30.5
Terai Caste	21	95.5	1	4.5	22	7.1
Dalits	13	76.5	4	23.5	17	5.5
Terai Ethnic	14	87.5	2	12.5	16	5.2
Muslims	14	100.0		0.0	14	4.5
Total	228	74.0	80	26.0	308	100.0

2.2.2 Age and Gender Composition

The minimum age convention of ILO (No. 138) explicitly restricts children of compulsory and or universal schooling age (under 15) to involve in any form of work, but allows to participate in light works having no harm to the children's physical, social and mental development under strict supervision. The age distribution of the captured and interviewed children revealed that 51 per cent are of under age 15 (74% of girls and 43% of boys). The young age pattern is more pronounced for girls than boys.

By single year of age of the captured and interviewed children, above 18 per cent of child labour are from age 17 (highest 22% of boys and the lowest 7.5% of girls) followed by age 16 and 13 (16.6% each) and 14 (15.6%). In case of girl child, highest proportion (25%) is captured from the age 13 and about 23 per cent from age under 12 years (Table 2.5). This indicated that girl child working as child labourers are of younger age pattern compared to boy child.

Table 2.5: Distribution of child labour by age and sex

Age group (single age)	Boys		Girls		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
<12	15	6.6	18	22.5	33	10.7
12	18	7.9	8	10.0	26	8.4
13	31	13.6	20	25.0	51	16.6
14	35	15.4	13	16.3	48	15.6
15	34	14.9	8	10.0	42	13.6
16	44	19.3	7	8.8	51	16.6
17	51	22.4	6	7.5	57	18.5
Broader age of child						
<15 years	99	43.4	59	73.8	158	51.3
15-17 years	129	56.6	21	26.3	150	48.7
Total	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
% boys and girls	74.0		26.0			

2.2.3 Current Residence of Children

Clauses on the convention on the right of child calls a child not to separate from natural parents/guardians, and among others, the condition to describe worst forms of child labour complies if child is separated from her/his parents and natural family. The survey indicated above 85 per cent children living away from their family. Its extent is relatively high for upper age (15-17 years) children and for boy child (Table 2.6). The 84per cent girl child living away from family might be at risk of violence against them and sexual harassment.

Table 2.6: Distribution of child labours by current living status with family or outside family by age, sex and caste/ethnicity

Background attributes	Living with family		Living away from family		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Age of children						
<15 years	25	15.8	133	84.2	158	100
15-17 years	20	13.3	130	86.7	150	100
Sex of child labour						
Boys	32	14.0	196	86.0	228	100
Girls	13	16.3	67	83.8	80	100
Caste/Ethnicity of child labour						
Hill Caste Group	10	10.6	84	89.4	94	100
Hill Ethnic	28	19.3	117	80.7	145	100
Terai Ethnic	1	6.3	15	93.8	16	100
Terai Caste	4	18.2	18	81.8	22	100
Dalits	1	5.9	16	94.1	17	100
Muslims	1	7.1	13	92.9	14	100
Total	45	14.6	263	85.4	308	100

By caste/ethnicity, over 90 per cent children of Terai ethnic, Dalits and Muslims and 89 per cent of hill caste group found to living away from family. This implies that these children are at high risk of hazards and risk of abuses.

Extent of living away from family is nearly universal in case of child domestic, working in hotel/restaurant, to the child porters, working in construction sectors and in fruit/juice vending shops. Its extent is bit lower in case of working in agriculture farm industries (60%), working in transport sector (75%) and in mechanical workshops (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Distribution of child labours by current living status with family by type of work

Type of child labour	Living with family		Living away from family		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Child domestic	3	2.8	106	97.2	109	100.0
Agriculture farm	21	40.4	31	59.6	52	100.0
Transport sector	11	25.0	33	75.0	44	100.0
Hotel/restaurant	1	4.8	20	95.2	21	100.0
Workshops	4	18.2	18	81.8	22	100.0
Child porter	1	9.1	10	90.9	11	100.0
Carpet/embroidery and sewing	2	11.8	15	88.2	17	100.0
Work in construction	-	-	16	100.0	16	100.0
Fruit/juice shop	-	-	3	100.0	3	100.0
Poultry and furniture	1	11.1	8	88.9	9	100.0
Others	1	25.0	3	75.0	4	100.0
Total	45	14.6	263	85.4	308	100.0

2.2.4 Current Living Place of Family

Nearly 92 per cent children reported that their parents and family is still living in the place where they were born and some eight per cent said family to migrate out from there. Family's migration is relatively higher for children of lower age group (<15 years), for girl child, for the children of hill caste groups and Dalits (Table 2.8).

Table 2.8: Distribution of child labour by current status of family living in her/his birth place or outside by age, sex and caste/ethnic origin

Background attributes	At birth place		Migrated out		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Age of children						
<15 years	140	88.6	17	10.8	158	100.0
15-17 years	142	94.7	8	5.3	150	100.0
Sex of respondent CL						
Boys	212	93.0	16	7.0	228	100.0
Girls	70	87.5	9	11.3	80	100.0
Caste/Ethnicity						
Hill Caste Group	82	87.2	12	12.8	94	100.0
Hill Ethnic	135	93.1	9	6.2	145	100.0
Terai Ethnic	16	100.0			16	100.0
Terai Caste	20	90.9	2	9.1	22	100.0
Dalits	15	88.2	2	11.8	17	100.0
Muslims	14	100.0			14	100.0
Total	282	91.6	25	8.1	308	100.0

Note: 1 case reported to have no family.

2.2.5 Family Composition

Wide ranging studies on child labour indicated that the nature of family and its composition as major factor to send a person pre-maturely in labour market. Children of large family and dysfunctional families are more exposed to labour market. The survey indicated that on average a child labourer's family composed off of more than six members in all instances of age, sex, and caste/ethnicity. The highest, about 41 per cent child labour are from 6 and 7 member families, 38 per cent are from families five or less members and 21 per cent are from family size of eight or more members. Bigger family size is for Terai Ethnic, Terai caste and for Muslims.

Average household size of 6.3 members for the interviewed child labourers is greater by 1.4 persons than that of the national average and by 1.3 persons for rural areas in comparison to the estimates of 2011 census. This implies that bigger household size has positive effect to send children in labour market undesirably in early ages.

Table 2.9: Distribution of child labour by family-size and background attributes

Background attributes	<=5 Member	6-7 Member	8+ Member	Total (N)	Total (%)	Average family size
Age of children						
<15 years	37.3	44.3	18.4	158	100.0	6.3
15-17 years	38.7	36.7	24.7	150	100.0	6.3
Sex of children						
Boys	37.7	41.2	21.1	228	100.0	6.2
Girls	38.8	38.8	22.5	80	100.0	6.5
Caste/Ethnicity						
Hill Caste group	46.8	38.3	14.9	94	100.0	6.1
Hill Ethnic	35.2	46.2	18.6	145	100.0	6.3
Terai Ethnic	31.3	25.0	43.8	16	100.0	6.9
Terai Caste	36.4	18.2	45.5	22	100.0	6.6
Dalits	41.2	47.1	11.8	17	100.0	5.5
Muslims	14.3	42.9	42.9	14	100.0	6.8
Total	38.0	40.6	21.4	308	100.0	6.3

If parents are living separately, stepparents and step relatives (step siblings) are in the family, then children get non-favourable and non-affectionate environment in the family. Opt to leave family and enter into labour market. Likewise, if elder siblings are in labour market, get conducive environment to enter into it. The Khijidemba RM child labour survey identified that both father and mother of the 88 per cent children are living together in the family. Some 12 per cent said any one or both of their parents are not at home and not living together (Table 2.10). Extent of parents not living together at home is high for younger children (under 15), for girls, for Terai ethnic and Dalits children.

Table 2.10: Distribution of children by status of both parents living at home and other relatives in the family by background attributes

Background	About parents	Other relatives
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attributes	Both mother and father together	Any one or both not at home	Total (%)	% with siblings	% with grand parents	% with step parents/ siblings	Total (N)
Age of children							
<15 years	85.4	14.6	100.0	94.9	31.6	5.1	158
15-17 years	90.7	9.3	100.0	96.0	8.7	6.0	150
Sex of children							
Boys	90.8	9.2	100.0	95.6	16.7	5.3	228
Girls	80.0	20.0	100.0	95.0	31.3	6.3	80
Caste/Ethnicity							
Hill Caste group	89.4	10.6	100.0	95.7	23.4	2.1	94
Hill Ethnic	89.0	11.0	100.0	95.2	24.8	6.2	145
Terai Ethnic	75.0	25.0	100.0	93.8	6.3	12.5	16
Terai Caste	95.5	4.5	100.0	95.5	13.6	4.5	22
Dalits	64.7	35.3	100.0	100.0	5.9	17.6	17
Muslims	100.0	0.0	100.0	92.9	0.0	0.0	14
Total	88.0	12.0	100.0	95.5	20.5	5.5	308

In all instances, over 93 per cent child labours reported to have siblings at home. More than one fifth (20.5%) children reported grandparents living together with their family. More proportion of young age children, girls and children of hill caste groups and hill ethnic communities reported grandparents living together in their family.

Slightly less than six per cent (5.5%) children's family composed with step parents and step siblings too. Presence of stepparents and step siblings is high for Dalits and Terai ethnic communities, none for Muslims and lowest for Hill caste communities and for Terai caste.

In relation to the marital status, four of the captured and interviewed child labourers (1.3% of 308) were married and three reported to have had children.

Children with siblings were asked, whether their siblings working as child labour? The responses indicated that siblings of some 19 per cent children are working as child labour and over 80 per cent reported against of it (Table 2.11).

Table 2.11: Distribution of children by siblings working as child labour and background attributes

Background attributes	% Yes	% No	Total (n)
Age of children			
<15 years	22.2	77.8	158
15-17 years	16.0	84.0	150
Sex of respondent CL			
Boys	14.5	85.5	228
Girls	32.5	67.5	80

Caste/Ethnicity			
Hill Caste group	16.0	84.0	94
Hill Ethnic	18.6	81.4	145
Terai Ethnic	6.3	93.8	16
Terai Caste	36.4	63.6	22
Dalits	23.5	76.5	17
Muslims	28.6	71.4	14
Total	19.2	80.8	308

Relatively more proportion of the children of younger age, girls, from Terai caste, from Muslims and Dalits community are with siblings working as child labour compared to children of older age, boys and Terai ethnic communities.

2.2.6 Schooling and Literacy Status

Children's schooling and literacy status has been assessed whether she/he is currently attending to any of formal education classes or not, if not now, whether enrolled and attended school in the past or not. If enrolled now the currently attending grade and if enrolled in past the completed grade at the time of leaving school were asked. Further, the currently school attending children were asked about timing of schooling and management of work. The school droppers and never enrolled ones were inquired about reasons for never attending or leaving of the school without completing the school education. It further inquired about the intention and or desire for re-admission and taking skill development training.

Assessment of the schooling of the captured and interviewed children revealed that about 42 per cent are currently enrolled to school, 46 per cent enrolled in the past and dropped out of school and the rest 13 per cent never enrolled to school (Table 2.12). Proportion of school droppers is glaringly high for upper age children, for boys and for the children of Terai Caste and Dalits.

Over 57 per cent child labourers from Muslim community never enrolled to school. Status of never enrolled is relatively high for upper age children, for boys and for the children of Terai ethnic and Terai Caste communities.

Table 2.12: Distribution of children by current, ever and never schooling and background attributes

Background attributes	% Currently enrolled	% Enrolled but dropped	% Never enrolled	Total (n)
Age of children				
<15 years	61.4	29.7	8.9	158
15-17 years	20.7	62.0	17.3	150
Sex of Children				
Boys	26.3	57.9	15.8	228
Girls	85.0	10.0	5.0	80
Caste/Ethnicity				
Hill Caste group	59.6	35.1	5.3	94
Hill Ethnic	40.7	46.9	12.4	145
Terai Ethnic	37.5	43.8	18.8	16
Terai Caste	9.1	72.7	18.2	22

Dalits	23.5	64.7	11.8	17
Muslims	7.1	35.7	57.1	14
Total	41.6	45.5	13.0	308

By type of child labour 96 per cent children working as child domestic are currently enrolled to school followed by 27 and 23 per cent respectively of child porters and children in agriculture farm sector. Likewise, 87 and 84 per cent children respectively working in construction sector and in transportation sector are school droppers. Proportion school droppers and never enrolled to school is lowest for child domestics. Highest proportion of child labourers (47%) working in carpet, embroidery and sewing industries never enrolled to school followed by child porters (36%) and children in workshops (Table 2.13).

Table 2.13: Distribution of children by current, ever and never schooling and sector of children's work

Sector of child labour	% Currently enrolled	% Enrolled but dropped	% Never enrolled	Total (n)
Child domestic	96.3	0.9	2.8	109
Agriculture farm	23.1	67.3	9.6	52
Transport sector	2.3	84.1	13.6	44
Hotel/restaurant	9.5	71.4	19.0	21
Workshops	4.5	72.7	22.7	22
Child porter	27.3	36.4	36.4	11
Carpet/embroidery and sewing	5.9	47.1	47.1	17
Work in construction	-	87.5	12.5	16
Fruit/juice shop	-	66.7	33.3	3
Poultry and furniture	33.3	44.4	22.2	9
Others	-	100.0	-	4
Total	41.6	45.5	13.0	308

The findings indicated that, irrespective of the achievements in reading and school performance, education and schooling of the child labourers is more assured for child domestics. Incidences of dropping of school are high if child involves in construction, transportation, garage and workshops, in hotel restaurant, and in agriculture farm sectors. Never schooling is more pronounced for children in carpet/embroidery works and for child porters.

Table 2.17 summarizes about level school attending by the currently school enrolled child labour and level completed of the school droppers at the time of leaving school. The first three columns present children attending to primary lower secondary and secondary and higher secondary levels of currently school attending children. The fourth column presents number of currently schooling children by background attributes. The fifth, sixth and seventh columns again presents proportion of school droppers completed the primary classes, lower secondary classes and secondary and higher secondary classes at the time of leaving school. The last column presents the number of children dropped of the school.

Table 2.14: Distribution of currently school enrolled children by level enrolled and school dropped by level completed and background attributes

Background attributes	Currently enrolled level				Completed level by droppers			
	% Primar y	% Lower sec.	% Sec. &+2	Total (n)	Primar y	Lower sec.	Sec. & +2	Total (n)
Age of children								
<15 years	32.0	59.8	8.2	97	78.7	21.3	0.0	47
15-17 years	3.1	37.5	59.4	32	35.9	46.7	17.4	92
Sex of respondent								
CL								
Boys	18.0	50.8	31.1	61	51.9	38.2	9.9	131
Girls	30.9	57.4	11.8	68	25.0	37.5	37.5	8
Caste/Ethnicity								
Hill Caste group	32.1	57.1	10.7	56	45.5	39.4	15.2	33
Hill Ethnic	22.0	49.2	28.8	59	54.4	35.3	10.3	68
Terai Ethnic	0.0	83.3	16.7	6	71.4		28.6	7
Terai Caste	0.0		100.0	2	31.3	56.3	12.5	16
Dalits	20.0	60.0	20.0	5	60.0	40.0	0.0	10
Muslims	0.0	100.0	0.0	1	40.0	60.0	0.0	5
Total	24.8	54.3	20.9	129	50.4	38.1	11.5	139

Of the currently schooling children, highest proportion (54%) is enrolled at lower secondary classes, 25 per cent in primary classes and 21 per cent in secondary and higher secondary classes. In case of school droppers, above 50 per cent have dropped while in classes of primary level, 38 per cent dropped in lower secondary level and the rest 11.5 per cent from the classes of secondary and higher secondary level.

There appears a conclusive level of variation in proportion currently enrolled by level and background attributes of children. For instance, higher proportions of girls are in school compared to boys. Schooling during daytime and working at morning and evening is the major scheme of time management of working and schooling of almost all currently schooling child labour. For instance 94 per cent children reported to follow this scheme. Another five per cent children reported to go to school during morning and evening and work at daytime (Table 2.15).

Table 2.15: Distribution of currently school enrolled children by timing of schooling

Time management scheme	No.	%
School at daytime and working at morning and evening	121	93.8

School at morning and evening and working at daytime	6	4.7
Going to school at leisure time	1	0.8
Going to work when school is off	1	0.8
Total	129	100.0

The interviewed children were asked about their ability to read and write both, ability to read only or write only to determine about their literacy status. The results presented in Table 2.16 depicted that 82 per cent of them are literate (able to both read and write with understanding) and 18 per cent as illiterate (either unable to both read and write or able to read or write any one). Literacy rate is relatively high for upper age children (85%), for girls (95%) and for children of hill caste groups (95%), Terai ethnics and Dalits. Illiteracy is highly pronounced for Muslim children (57%) followed by Terai caste (32%) and for boys.

Table 2.16: Distribution of children by literacy status and background attributes

Background attributes	% Literate	% Illiterate	Total (n)
Age of children			
<15 years	79.7	20.3	158
15-17 years	84.7	15.3	150
Sex of children			
Boys	77.6	22.4	228
Girls	95.0	5.0	80
Caste/Ethnicity			
Hill Caste group	91.5	8.5	94
Hill Ethnic	81.4	18.6	145
Terai Ethnic	87.5	12.5	16
Terai Caste	68.2	31.8	22
Dalits	82.4	17.6	17
Muslims	42.9	57.1	14
Total	82.1	17.9	308

2.2.7 Reasons of School Dropout

Poverty is accorded as both first and second order reason for leaving education or never admission to school followed by regularly failing in exams (for boys) and not interested to reading, dropped school in friend's/peers influence and to starting to earning money.

Table 2.17: Distribution of school dropper and never school enrolled children by major reasons for dropping out or never schooling by sex

Order of reasons	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
First order reason						
Poverty	51	30.5	5	41.7	56	31.3
Due to regularly failed in the school	36	21.6			36	20.1
Not interested in study	22	13.2	1	8.3	23	12.8
Dropped school in friend's influence	21	12.6	1	8.3	22	12.3
Started to earn money	15	9.0	1	8.3	16	8.9
Parents did not send	10	6.0	2	16.7	12	6.7
School far away for higher	4	2.4			4	2.2

education						
Due to discrimination and violence	3	1.8			3	1.7
Expensive educational expenses	2	1.2	1	8.3	3	1.7
Due to marriage	2	1.2	1	8.3	3	1.7
Due to workload	1	0.6			1	0.6
Total	167	100.0	12	100.0	179	100.0
Second order reason						
Poverty	28	26.7	1	14.3	29	25.9
Dropped school in friend's influence	16	15.2	1	14.3	17	15.2
Parents did not send	14	13.3	2	28.6	16	14.3
Due to regularly failed in the school	14	13.3			14	12.5
Started to earn money	12	11.4	1	14.3	13	11.6
Expensive educational expenses	7	6.7	1	14.3	8	7.1
Due to workload	4	3.8			4	3.6
Not interested in study	4	3.8			4	3.6
Due to discrimination and violence	3	2.9			3	2.7
School far away for higher education	2	1.9	1	14.3	3	2.7
Employer did not allow to study	1	1.0			1	0.9
Total	105	100.0	7	100.0	112	100.0

Other reasons for leaving school and or never admission to school are not sending by parents, distance of school for higher education, discrimination and abuses, because of education expenses and marriage and over workload.

Major reasons for non-schooling and dropping out of school are family poverty to meet education expenses, leaving school in peers influence, failure in school, distance of school with higher level classes, children her/himself not interested in reading. This message called for targeting of the child sending communities in an integrated approach to alleviate family poverty, better earning opportunity to adult members in the family along with making the local educational institution child centred.

2.2.8 Desire to Go Back to School

The school dropped and never enrolled children were asked about their desire to re-admit or admit to school. In response, 83 per cent showed their unwillingness for it, some nine per cent expressed their desire to admit in school and another seven per cent preferred to join in skill development and vocational training (Table 2.18).

Table 2.18: Distribution of the out of school children by desire of re-enrolling in the school and background attributes

Background attributes	% Want to enrol	% Want skill training	% Not interested	Total (n)
Age of children				
<15 years	11.5	4.9	83.6	61
15-17 years	7.6	9.3	83.1	118
Sex of children				
Boys	6.6	7.8	85.6	167

Girls	41.7	8.3	50.0	12
Caste/Ethnicity				
Hill Caste group	7.9	2.6	89.5	38
Hill Ethnic	9.3	11.6	79.1	86
Terai Ethnic	20.0		80.0	10
Terai Caste		10.0	90.0	20
Dalits	25.0	8.3	66.7	12
Muslims			100.0	13
Total	8.9	7.8	83.2	179

Desire for re-schooling is relatively high for young child, for girls and for the children of Terai ethnic and Dalits communities. All out of school children of Muslim communities have no preference to re-admit to school. The survey team and field investigators found most of the out of school boy child labourers reluctant even to listening advices on importance of education and re-joining school and urged to offer any advice for future life other than re-schooling. They have developed the following opinions regarding use of further reading:

- no possibility of getting employment as per the level of education, will have further frustration and anger,
- Education is for better earning, we started to earn enough for now, and it may be more than an office worker with IA or BA level of education. In future we may make more money.

2.2.9 School Facility at Home Village

Unavailability of schools with higher level classes is accorded as one of the major reason for dropping out of school and or never schooling. To establish the relevance of this response, interviewed children were asked about the types of educational institutions available in their home village. The responses have been summarised in Table 2.19 according to background attributes. As per the children's responses, there is a primary school in the village of 86 per cent children, a lower secondary school in the village of 72 per cent children, a secondary school of 70 per cent children and a higher secondary (+2) level school in the village of 29 per cent children. Some four and half per cent children claimed to have a technical and vocational training school in their home village. On the whole, 10 per cent of the children reported not to have any educational facilities in their home village.

Table 2.19: Distribution of children according to availability of different school facility in their home village by background attributes

Background attributes	% Primary	% Lower sec.	% Secondary	% Higher sec (+2).	% Technical Edu.	Total (n)
Age of children						
<15 years	86.1	67.7	63.9	25.3	1.3	158
15-17 years	85.3	76.0	76.0	33.3	8.0	150
Sex of children						
Boys	84.6	73.2	71.5	25.9	4.4	228
Girls	88.8	67.5	65.0	38.8	5.0	80

Caste/Ethnicity						
Hill Caste group	87.2	71.3	71.3	33.0	3.2	94
Hill Ethnic	87.6	73.8	71.7	32.4	5.5	145
Terai Ethnic	81.3	81.3	68.8	25.0	12.5	16
Terai Caste	68.2	40.9	50.0	18.2		22
Dalits	88.2	82.4	64.7	5.9	5.9	17
Muslims	85.7	78.6	78.6	21.4		14
Total	85.7	71.8	69.8	29.2	4.5	308

2.3 Family Economic Situation

Family poverty is accorded as major factor to contribute the supply of child labour. In poverty context parents find their children as alternative source of pulling resources for livelihoods, when job market for adults is in-elastic and precarious. Indicators considered to measure family poverty in this context include status of land ownerships, year round food security from the family's main source of livelihood, and parent's occupation of the children.

Table 2.20: Distribution of children according to their family's ownership status of agricultural land by background attributes

Background attributes	% Own land	% Rented in Land	% Rented out land	% With any Land	% No land	Total (n)
Age of children						
<15 years	67.1	10.1	7.0	73.4	26.6	158
15-17 years	70.7	13.3	5.3	79.3	20.7	150
Sex of child						
Boys	68.4	11.4	6.6	75.9	24.1	228
Girls	70.0	12.5	5.0	77.5	22.5	80
Caste/Ethnicity						
Hill Caste group	66.0	10.6	2.1	71.3	28.7	94
Hill Ethnic	73.1	9.7	11.0	80.7	19.3	145
Terai Ethnic	75.0	12.5	6.3	87.5	12.5	16
Terai Caste	68.2	22.7	0.0	81.8	18.2	22
Dalits	58.8	17.6	0.0	58.8	41.2	17
Muslims	50.0	14.3	0.0	64.3	35.7	14
Total	68.8	11.7	6.2	76.3	23.7	308

Children were asked whether their family own any agriculture land and cultivate own self; cultivate other's land taking in rent or given own land in rent to others (rented out). The responses summarised in Table 2.20 revealed that families of 69 per cent children have their own land and cultivate own self, families of about 12 per cent have taken other's land in rent for cultivation and families of 6 per cent have rented out their land to others. On the whole, families of 76 per cent children interviewed have had some land for their family's cultivation and 24 per cent are land less of totally detached of agricultural activities.

Higher proportion of Dalits and Muslim communities followed by hill caste groups are detached of land related agricultural activities for family's livelihoods than other attributes of the children.

Food security from the family's cultivated land is taken as a predicting indicator to measure economic status. Findings presented in Table 2.21 revealed that about 44 per cent families of the 235 children doing agricultural activities meet their year round food security round and have some surplus, 42 per cent produces food stuff for six months or less and another 14 per cent meets food requirement for 7 to 11 months period.

Table 2.21: Distribution of children by status of food security in family from the agriculture land by background attributes

Background attributes	<=6 Months		7-11 Months		12+ Months		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Age of children								
<15 years	54	46.6	16	13.8	46	39.7	116	100.0
15-17 years	45	37.8	16	13.4	58	48.7	119	100.0
Sex of children								
Boys	72	41.6	27	15.6	74	42.8	173	100.0
Girls	27	43.5	5	8.1	30	48.4	62	100.0
Caste/Ethnicity								
Hill Caste group	28	41.8	10	14.9	29	43.3	67	100.0
Hill Ethnic	52	44.4	15	12.8	50	42.7	117	100.0
Terai Ethnic	3	21.4	3	21.4	8	57.1	14	100.0
Terai Caste	10	55.6			8	44.4	18	100.0
Dalits	4	40.0	3	30.0	3	30.0	10	100.0
Muslims	2	22.2	1	11.1	6	66.7	9	100.0
Total	99	42.1	32	13.6	104	44.3	235	100.0

Food insecurity for six months and less is highly pronounced for the families of younger age children, for the Terai caste, Hill ethnics, Hill caste groups and Dalits. On the contrary food security is relatively better for upper aged and girl child and Muslims and Terai ethnics.

Going for daily wage labour, sending or hiring out children as child labourers, doing small business and taking loan are family's strategies to mitigate the food insecure periods of the families afflicted of food shortage. Other strategies adopted are remittance received from foreign labour migrant and so forth.

Both father and mother of the majority of child labourers are engaged in own agricultural occupation followed by casual labour and domestic workers. Own account work in non-agriculture sector, gone in foreign employment, employed in government and non-government offices and caste based occupation are further work employment of the parents of child labourers.

Engagement in household work is second to own agriculture for mothers of child labours. Driving, mason/carpentry and working as employer are found as father specific occupation (Table 2.22).

Table 2.22: Distribution of children by father's and mother's occupation

Sector of occupation	Father		Mother	
	%	No.	%	No.
Own agriculture	35.4	109	39.3	121
Casual labour	25.3	78	13.3	41
Domestic worker	13.0	40	8.1	25
Driver	4.5	14	0.0	0
Own work (non-agriculture)	3.9	12	2.3	7
Labour abroad	3.6	11	1.6	5
Employee in GOs (NGOs)	2.9	9	2.3	7
Mason/carpenter	2.9	9	0.0	0
Caste occupation	1.3	4	2.9	9
Sewing, weaving	1.3	4	0.3	1
Household work	1.0	3	23.4	72
Employer	0.6	2	0.0	0
Parent(s) not alive/run away with step-parent	4.2	13	6.5	20
Total	100.0	308	100.0	308

2.4 Identification and Description of Working Conditions

2.4.1 Age at First Work, Order and Duration of Current Work

Child labourers working in Khijidemba R.M. were working at an age of 12 years for the first time as wage earners in any form. Average age at the time of first work is found lower for girl child workers (10.2 years) compared to that of boys (12.5 years) and it can be due to a large majority of girls working as domestic child labourers at early ages. Most of the child labourers of both sexes are working at current work as their first work (85% for boys and 83% for girls), while for some 14 per cent boys and about 8 per cent girls; the present work is second one. For one per cent boys and 10 per cent girls, it was their third or higher order work. Here, it should be noted that the order of work was based on different employers not on type of works.

Table 2.23: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to order of current work, duration of present work and average age at the time of first work

Order of current work	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
First	194	85.1	66	82.5	260	84.4
Second	32	14.0	6	7.5	38	12.3
Third or above	2	0.9	8	10.0	10	3.2
Duration of present work						
< 6 months	59	25.9	7	8.8	66	21.4
6 - 12 months	69	30.3	21	26.3	90	29.2
2 years	34	14.9	17	21.3	51	16.6
3 years	32	14.0	14	17.5	46	14.9
4 years	7	3.1	9	11.3	16	5.2
5 years	15	6.6	4	5.0	19	6.2

> 5 years	12	5.3	8	10.0	20	6.5
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
Average age at the time of first work	12.5		10.2		11.9	

More than one-half (51%) of the child labourers are working for up to only one year at present work with higher proportion among boys (56%) than girls (35%). The lower proportion of girls working with lesser duration at present work also suggests the earlier findings of relatively higher proportion of them working at present work as their higher order (3rd or more) of work. Around 15-17 per cent of children each are working for 2 and 3 years respectively as child labourers and around 6 per cent each are working since last 3 and 4 years respectively, whereas about 7 per cent of them are working for more than 5 years.

2.4.2 Type of Work

Child labourers working in different sectors are found performing different activities like domestic child labourers and those working in restaurants are mainly doing works like cooking food, preparing tea, *momo* and donuts, washing dishes and chopping vegetables. Child domestics are also washing clothes, grazing livestock, cleaning house and helping in other domestic chores. Rag-pickers are collecting rags like plastics, tin, iron and bottles. Children working in transportation are mainly working as conductors collecting transportation fare from travellers and washing vehicles. Those working in mechanical workshops are mainly repairing spare parts of motorcycles/cars and fitting air in the wheels. Likewise children working as mason/labourer are carrying sand/cement, making mixture of sand and cement, and cement plastering and painting on wall; and those working in mines are carrying stones. Children working in embroidery are doing the same in ladies garments especially in *saree* and *kurta*, and those working in poultry farms are working as butcher by chopping and selling chicken. Child labourers are also found performing activities like making shoes, cutting cloths for sewing, making grills for window/doors, painting religious posters *thanka*, digging well and making rings for well, labour work in road constructions, and attending and selling items in the shops of fruits, juice, gas, spicy peas, etc.

Most of the children (41%) are performing different types of activities on the basis of getting regular wage/salary (Table 2.24). But as much as more than one-third (34%) are also working in employer's place only for getting food, living arrangement and study in school. Some 14 per cent are getting money on the basis of work done

Table 2.24: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to basis of working

Basis of working	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
On regular wage/salary	116	50.9	10	12.5	126	40.9
For food, living & study	46	20.2	58	72.5	104	33.8
Getting money on basis of work done	41	18.0	3	3.8	44	14.3
Only for food & living	9	3.9	4	5.0	13	4.2
Getting money on basis of	9	3.9	0	0.0	9	2.9

collected rags						
Other	7	3.1	5	6.3	12	3.9
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

Note: Other includes own family work; get some money while going back to home during leave; and get food, living, study and regular wage.

2.4.3 Mode of Working Agreement

Almost two-thirds of child labourers (64%) are working in employer's place without any form of working agreement made between employer and them or their parents, whereas, some 22 per cent of them said that they had verbal understanding between them and the employer while recruiting them as child labourers (Table 2.25). The proportion of girl child labourers is relatively more than boys saying so (34% vs. 16%). About 13 per cent of child labourers had no idea about any such working agreement and only a negligible proportion of them had written contract of working agreement between employer and them or their parents.

However, a little less than one-third of child labourers said that employers had made some promises with them while recruiting in the work. A half of the girl child labourers and about 22 per cent of boy child labourers had received such promises from their employers. The major promises made by employers are recruiting in better work/job (47%) and time management for study and work (46%), followed by providing good food, clothes and living arrangements (40%) and providing good wage/salary (17%). Almost three-fourths (73%) of them who said employers had promised with them, said they fulfilled (including in some extent also) their promises, while only about 6 per cent of them reported that employers did not fulfil their promises.

Table 2.25: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to mode of working agreement, promises made by employer while recruiting on the work and type of promises made

Mode of working agreement	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Written contract	2	0.9	0	0.0	2	0.6
Verbal understanding	37	16.2	31	38.8	68	22.1
Nothing done	154	67.5	43	53.8	197	64.0
Don't know	35	15.4	6	7.5	41	13.3
Any promises made by employer						
Yes	49	21.5	40	50.0	89	28.9
No	179	78.5	40	50.0	219	71.1
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
Fulfilment of promises						
Yes fulfilled	24	49.0	19	47.5	43	48.3
Yes, in some extent	10	20.4	12	30.0	22	24.7
Have to see	14	28.6	5	12.5	19	21.3
Not fulfilled	1	2.0	4	10.0	5	5.6
Total (n)	49	100.0	40	100.0	89	100.0
Type of promises made*						

Proving good wage/salary	14	28.6	1	2.5	15	16.9
Recruiting in better job	21	42.9	21	52.5	42	47.2
Time management for study and work	12	24.5	29	72.5	41	46.1
Proving good food, clothes & living arrangement	15	30.6	21	52.5	36	40.4
Total (n)	49	NA	40	NA	89	NA

*Multiple responses.

2.4.4 Working Hours and Allowed for Rest Time and Leave

Boy child labourers in Khijidemba RM are working comparative longer hours a day than their female counterparts. Average working hours reported by them is found to be more than 9 hours for boys and only about 6 hours for girls. Majority of them (82% boys and 75% girls) also reported that they are allowed for taking rest during work. However, only one-third of them said that they get leave from work only on festive time, whereas another one-fourth said they get it whenever they need. About 14 per cent said they get leave from the work only during off season/lay off time and 10 per cent get leave once a week. But some 9 per cent of the child labourers (18% girls and 6% boys) reported not getting leave from the work (Table 2.26). Thus, it is seen that most of child labourers are allowed for taking rest during work and leave from the work at least once a year.

Table 2.26: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to average working hours a day, allowed for taking rest during work, and getting leave from work

Allowed for rest during work	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	187	82.0	60	75.0	247	80.2
No	41	18.0	20	25.0	61	19.8
Time of getting leave from work						
On festive time	66	28.9	36	45.0	102	33.1
Yearly basis	3	1.3	4	5.0	7	2.3
1-2 days in a month	10	4.4	0	0.0	10	3.2
Once a week	20	8.8	10	12.5	30	9.7
During sickness	9	3.9	1	1.3	10	3.2
Whenever needed	68	29.8	11	13.8	79	25.6
During off season/lay off time	38	16.7	4	5.0	42	13.6
Wouldn't get leave	14	6.1	14	17.5	28	9.1
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
Average working hours a day	9.4		6.2		8.6	

2.4.5 Mode of Payment and Income

Out of total child labourers surveyed, about 58 per cent said that they are paid in cash for their work on monthly or yearly basis (42%) and/or daily basis or based on work done (15%). Rests of the child labourers are not getting paid directly in terms of cash. Almost one-third of them are working as labourers only for getting food, living arrangements and the facility of study from

employers, particularly for girl child labourers (70%), and child labourers getting other modes of payment consists less than 3 per cent each (Table 2.27).

Table 2.27: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to mode of payment for working

Mode of payment	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Cash in monthly/yearly basis	120	52.6	10	12.5	130	42.2
Cash in daily basis/based on work done	40	17.5	7	8.8	47	15.3
Family business	4	1.8	2	2.5	6	1.9
Only for food & living	5	2.2	1	1.3	6	1.0
For food, living & study	43	18.9	56	70.0	99	32.1
Base on employer's wish	8	3.5	1	1.3	9	2.9
Working for family's (interest of) indebt	2	0.9	2	2.5	4	1.3
Don't know	6	2.6	1	1.3	7	2.3
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.4.6 Control of Income and Saving/Remit

Among those child labourers who receive cash as their mode of payment for work, three-fourths of them receive their wage/salary themselves, but parents receive the wage/salary of 20 per cent child labourers and for another 3 per cent it is received by the middle persons. According to sex of child labourers, higher proportion of boys (79%) received their wage/salary themselves, whereas it is higher (59%) for parents receiving the wage/salary of girl child labourers (Table 2.28).

Table 2.28: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to person receiving their wage for work and frequency of giving their income to family among those who receive themselves

Person receiving wage	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Own-self	127	79.4	6	35.3	133	75.1
Parent(s)	26	16.3	10	58.8	36	20.3
Middle person	5	3.1	0	0.0	5	2.8
Don't know	2	1.3	1	5.9	3	1.7
Total (n)	160	100.0	17	100.0	177	100.0
Frequency of giving income to family						
Every month	31	24.4	1	16.7	32	24.1
2-3 times in 6 months	16	12.6	1	16.7	17	12.8
1-2 times in a year	4	3.1	0	0.0	4	3.0
While visiting home	65	51.2	3	50.0	68	51.1
Never given	11	8.7	1	16.7	12	9.0

Total (n)	127	100.0	6	100.0	133	100.0
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Almost one-fourth of those child labourers (24% boys and 17% girls) who receive their wage/salary themselves are found sending their income to their family every month and another 13 per cent remit 2-3 times in 6 months (13% boys and 17% girls). But more than half of them said that they give their income to family only while they go back to home during leave from the work. The proportion of child labourers never giving their income to family comprised less than 10 per cent. Thus, it can be said that majority of child labourers are helping their family by remitting their income in some extents. In other way, it can also be viewed as family's reliance on earnings of child labourers in one or other way.

2.4.7 Relationship with Employer

Almost half of the child labourers face scolding from employer and/or community people. Charging of not performing the task on time is found as the second major psychological abuse (33%) that child labourers have to face. It is followed by hatred (12%) and punishment on destroying/breaking down goods (10%). Some 3 per cent (2% of boys and 5% of girls) also reported abuse like not giving enough food and beating by employer (Table 2.29).

Table 2.29: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to experience of abuse faced from employer

Type of abuse faced	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Scolding	102	44.7	50	62.5	152	49.4
Charging not performing work timely	71	31.1	31	38.8	102	33.1
Hatred	25	11.0	12	15.0	37	12.0
Punishment on destroying/breaking down goods	20	8.8	11	13.8	31	10.1
Not getting enough food	5	2.2	5	6.3	10	3.2
Beating	5	2.2	4	5.0	9	2.9
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.4.8 Physical and Psychological Abuse

The most common abuses experienced by child labourers are scolding and hatred by people during their work (48%) followed by negligence (13%), beating and threatening (5%), threatening for reducing wage/salary (5%), threatening of firing from job (5%), sexual abuse and violence (2%) and poor management of food and living (1%). A higher proportion of child labourers of the both sexes (33% each) are facing scolding and hatred almost every day. The same thing is true for both the sexes regarding the abuse of negligence even though the extent is lower in this case (11%). In the case of beating and threatening also the frequency of event with almost every day is higher (3%) among boy child labourers, but it is once a week among girls (4%). Similarly, about 3 per cent of child labourers of both the sexes are facing threatening of firing from the job once a month (Table 2.30). The events of rests of the abuses are occurring less frequently and in lesser extents.

Table 2.30: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to frequency of different types of abuse from anyone during the work

Frequency of abuse	Scolding & hatred		Beating & threatening		Sexual abuse & violence		Negligence		Threatening for reducing wage/salary		Poor management of food & living		Threatening of firing from job	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
<i>Boys</i>														
Almost every day	75	32.9	7	3.1	1	0.4	25	11.0	6	2.6	0	0.0	3	1.3
Once a week	28	12.3	3	1.3	3	1.3	1	0.4	3	1.3	1	0.4	3	1.3
Once a month	6	2.6	1	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	1.8	0	0.0	6	2.6
Not faced at all	11	52.9	21	95.2	22	98.4	20	88.2	21	94.5	22	99.7	21	94.6
Total	228	100.0	228	100.0	228	100.0	228	100.0	228	100.0	228	100.0	228	100.0
<i>Girls</i>														
Almost every day	27	33.8	0	0.0	1	1.3	8	10.0	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
Once a week	9	11.3	3	3.8	0	0.0	4	5.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Once a month	4	5.0	1	1.3	0	0.0	2	2.5	0	0.0	1	0.3	2	2.5
Not faced at all	40	50.0	76	95.0	79	98.8	66	82.5	79	98.8	79	98.8	78	97.5
Total	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0
<i>Total</i>														
Almost every day	102	33.1	7	2.3	2	0.6	33	10.7	7	2.3	0	0.0	3	1.0
Once a week	37	12.0	6	1.9	3	1.0	5	1.6	3	1.0	1	0.3	3	1.0
Once a month	10	3.2	2	0.6	0	0.0	2	0.6	4	1.3	1	0.3	8	2.6
Not faced at all	159	51.6	293	95.1	303	98.4	268	87.0	294	95.5	306	99.4	294	95.5
Total	308	100.0	308	100.0	308	100.0	308	100.0	308	100.0	308	100.0	308	100.0

Employers are the prime perpetrator doing abuses to child labourers as 65 per cent of them responded so, with comparatively higher proportion of girls than boys (93% vs. 55%). The

second major perpetrator making abuses to child labourers are their clients (26%) followed by senior workers (22%), unknown persons (14%); child labourers working in different sectors (6%) and relatives (3%) in that order (Table 2.31). But the relatives are the second major perpetrators doing abuses for girl child labourers.

Table 2.31: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to perpetrator doing abuses

Perpetrator doing abuse*	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Employer	64	55.2	38	92.7	102	65.0
Client	38	32.8	2	4.9	40	25.5
Senior workers	33	28.4	1	2.4	34	21.7
Child labourer of different sectors	7	6.0	2	4.9	9	5.7
Relatives	1	0.9	4	9.8	5	3.2
Unknown persons	21	18.1	1	2.4	22	14.0
Total (n)	116	NA	41	NA	157	NA

*Multiple responses among those who have faced any type of abuse.

2.4.9 Social Security

Only about one-fourth of child labourers working in Khijidemba RM is familiar with organizations working for child's rights. The proportion of girl child labourers familiar with such organization is higher with 40 per cent, whereas the corresponding figure for boys is as low as only about 18 per cent. The higher proportion for girls can be attributed to their much higher enrolment rate in schools compared to that of boys. Likewise, the proportion of child labourers ever receiving any kind of help from such organizations is also found higher among girl child labourers with 66 per cent in comparison to 48 per cent of boys (Table 2.32). Such help include facilitating for participation in club activities, attending in child rights related classes, giving information about place to contact if they faces abuses and intolerable working condition and distribution of some stationeries and reading materials. Thus, it can be concluded that girl child labourers in the survey district are more knowledgeable than their male counterparts about social security systems in the district and it can be attributed again to their higher educational status than child labourer boys. Role of child clubs is found as crucial for offering some help for children in difficulty as in Box 3.

Table 2.32: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to knowledge about organization working for child's rights and ever receiving help from such organizations

Knowledge about organization working for child's rights	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	40	17.5	32	40.0	72	23.4
No	188	82.5	48	60.0	236	76.6
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
If yes, ever received help from such organizations						
Yes	19	47.5	21	65.6	40	55.6
No	21	52.5	11	34.4	32	44.4
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

For examining child labourers' attitudes towards the importance of education for their future social security, they were inquired where children of their age should be at school or at work. The results show that most of them know (64%) that at their age they should be enrolled in schools, but as many as 23 per cent of them also replied that they should be permitted both to work and study indicating that they want to earn money as well (Table 2.33).

Table 2.33: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to perceived knowledge about whether children should be at school or going to work

Perceived knowledge about where children should be at their age	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Should go to school	138	60.5	60	75.0	198	64.3
Should do work	12	5.3	0	0.0	12	3.9
Both work & study	52	22.8	18	22.5	70	22.7
Don't know	26	11.4	2	2.5	28	9.1
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.5 Hazardous and Unhealthy Working Conditions

2.5.1 Experience of Sickness and Types

Of the total child labourers surveyed, little more than one-third (36%) reported that they had experienced any type of sickness during last 12 months (Table 2.34). The proportion of girl child labourers experiencing the sickness during last 12 months is higher than that for boys (58% vs. 28%). The higher proportion of girls experiencing the sickness may be attributed to their heavy domestic workload and unhealthy working condition. Fever is the main sickness experienced by both girl and boy child labourers (59% and 48% respectively). Wounds/cuts and cough are second and third major sicknesses for child labourers but the order is different for different sex. It is followed by body swelling/ache, chest ache/pressure, typhoid, head ache, eye problem, tonsil, diarrhoea/worm/stomach ache, and jaundice.

Table 2.34: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to sickness during last 12 months by type of sickness

Sickness during last 12 months	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	64	28.1	46	57.5	110	35.7
No	164	71.9	34	42.5	198	64.3
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0
Type of sickness experienced in last 12 months*						
Fever	31	48.4	27	58.7	58	52.7
Wound/cuts	19	29.7	6	13.0	25	22.7
Cough	15	23.4	9	19.6	24	21.8
Body swelling/ache	6	9.4	5	10.9	11	10.0
Chest ache/pressure	4	6.3	3	6.5	7	6.4
Typhoid	6	9.4	0	0.0	6	5.5
Head ache	1	1.6	4	8.7	5	4.5
Tonsil	0	0.0	4	8.7	4	3.6
Eye problem	3	4.7	1	2.2	4	3.6
Diarrhoea, worm, stomach ache	1	1.6	3	6.5	4	3.6
Jaundice	1	1.6	1	2.2	2	1.8
Total (n)	64	NA	46	NA	110	NA

*Multiple responses.

2.5.2 Place of Treatment and Medical Expenses

Among the child labourers who experienced sickness during last 12 months, more than one-third (37%) visited in private clinic and/or medical store for check-up and treatment. Little less than another one-third visited in government hospital/health post for treatment, for nearly 24 per cent of them, employer provided medicine and 10 per cent were treated with domestic treatment (Table 2.35). So, based on nature of work and type of sickness, child labourers are found visiting different health facilities or treated differently. For majority of the child labourers (71%),

treatment costs were born by employer, while 18 per cent of them had to bear themselves and guardian paid the medical expenses for another 10 per cent of them.

Table 2.35: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to place of treatment during sickness and person bearing the medical expenses

Place of treatment during sickness	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Government hospital/health post	19	29.7	13	28.3	32	29.1
Private clinic/medical store	28	43.8	13	28.3	41	37.3
Employer provided medicine	9	14.1	17	37.0	26	23.6
Domestic treatment	8	12.5	3	6.5	11	10.0
Person bearing the medical expenses						
Own-self	18	28.1	2	4.3	20	18.2
Employer	41	64.1	37	80.4	78	70.9
Guardian	4	6.3	7	15.2	11	10.0
Relative	1	1.6	0	0.0	1	0.9
Total (n)	64	100.0	46	100.0	110	100.0

2.6 Living Condition

2.6.1 Place of Stay and Number of Persons living in the Room

Nearly one-half of the child labourers are staying at employer's house and it is attributed to a large majority of girl child labourers working as domestic workers at employer's house. Similarly, nearly another one-third of them are living at working places other than employer's house, which are living places of child labourers working in agriculture farms and transportation (Table 2.36). About 5 per cent of child labourers are found living at their own house with family and a few child conductors are sleeping in the vehicle during night and some are also found staying at public shelter. Among those who are living outside their own home, the average number of persons living in a room with child labourer is reported as nearly 6, which is more than 6 for boys and but only little over 3 for girls.

Table 2.36: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to current place of stay and average number of person living in their room if it was outside home

Current place of stay	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Own house	11	4.8	4	5.0	15	4.9
Employer's house	70	30.7	64	80.0	134	43.5
Working place (not employer's house)	80	35.1	8	10.0	88	28.6
Rented room	59	25.9	4	5.0	63	20.5
Sleeping in vehicle	5	2.2	0	0.0	5	1.6
Public shelter	3	1.3	0	0.0	3	1.0
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

Average number of persons living in the room for those living outside home	6.4	3.4	5.7
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2.6.2 Food and Nutrition

More than four-fifths of child labourers (82%) are taking foods three times or more in a day (86% for girls and 81% for boys) and rest's food intake is twice a day. But majority of them (53%) reported that the quality of their food intake is similar to that taken at home. However, as many as 31 per cent of them said that it is of better quality than at home and about 8 per cent compared it as not good as at home. A very few reported stale or left food as their food intake (Table 2.37).

Table 2.37: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to frequency of food intake in a day and quality of food

Frequency of food intake	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Twice	44	19.3	11	13.8	55	17.9
Thrice or more	184	80.7	69	86.3	253	82.1
Quality of food						
Better than at home	73	32.0	22	27.5	95	30.8
Similar to at home	113	49.6	50	62.5	163	52.9
Not as good as at home	22	9.6	1	1.3	23	7.5
Stale/left food	1	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.3
Take food at home	14	6.1	6	7.5	20	6.5
Don't know	5	2.2	1	1.3	6	1.9
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.7 Major Problem at Current Work

It is observed that most of child labourers are enjoying with their current work, earnings and working condition because almost half of them did not say any problem at current work. But on the other hand, a little over one-third (36%) said that they feel excessive tiredness at work, while 12 per cent, most from working in transportation and agriculture farm, viewed possibility of getting accident/cuts/sickness. Whereas, some four per cent had complains of not getting opportunity for study, particularly among girls (Table 2.38). A very few of them reported physical violence as major problem (<1%) at current work and none of them include a girl child.

Table 2.38: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to perception about major problem at current work

Major problem at current work	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Lack of opportunity for study	5	2.2	7	8.8	12	3.9
Physical violence	2	0.9	0	0.0	2	0.6
Possibility of getting accident/cuts/ sickness	26	11.4	10	12.5	36	11.7
Excessive tiredness	83	36.4	27	33.8	110	35.7
No problem at all	112	49.1	36	45.0	148	48.1
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.8 Leisure time from Work and Entertainment

Most of the child labourers are found getting leisure time for various activities although there is difference in extent of leisure time they are getting among them. Only 9 per cent children reported always getting leisure time for entertainment, sports or visiting outside, 21 per cent said getting leisure time once or twice a week and 38 per cent reported with a few times in a month (Table 2.39). While on the other hand, almost one-third of them replied that they would not get leisure time for all these activities, particularly for girl child workers (44%).

Table 2.39: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to getting leisure time for entertainment, sports and visit

Getting leisure time for entertainment, sports and visiting outside	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes, always	24	10.5	4	5.0	28	9.1
Once/twice a week	44	19.3	21	26.3	65	21.1
A few times in a month	97	42.5	20	25.0	117	38.0
No, would not get	63	27.6	35	43.8	98	31.8
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

A little over one-third of child labourers are found watching television or listening to radio almost daily, particularly among girls (49%). Likewise, nearly one-fourth of them do so a few times in a week, and around one-fifth of them each do so a very few times and don't do so

respectively (Table 2.39). The proportions of latter two categories are relatively higher among boy child labourers compared to their girl counterparts indicating that boys are less interested in watching television or listening to radio as their entertainment events.

2.9 Awareness on Child Rights and Legal Prohibition of Child Labour

On examining the perceived knowledge of child labourers about child rights, a very few children were found having correct knowledge about it as about merely two per cent reported that children should not be used as labour force (Table 2.40). However, some 19 per cent also viewed that there should be free of cost education programme for children. While, 32 per cent viewed it as children's essential needs should be fulfilled without specifying anything. But almost half of them (47%) said that they no idea about child's rights with relative higher proportion of boys than girls (55% vs. 23%).

Table 2.40: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to perceived knowledge about child's rights

Perceived knowledge about child's rights	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Children should not be used as labour force	5	2.2	0	0.0	5	1.6
Free education for children	40	17.5	19	23.8	59	19.2
Children's essential needs should be fulfilled	53	23.2	44	55.0	97	31.5
Child's rights are freedom to work, walk, staying with family, entertainment, etc.	11	4.8	2	2.5	13	4.2
Don't know	125	54.8	18	22.5	143	46.4
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

Out of total child labourers surveyed in Khijidemba RM, nearly one-third (29%) had knowledge that child labour is legally prohibited in the country as a form of earnings (Table 2.41). A higher proportion of girl child labourers are found to be knowledgeable about it than boys (41% vs. 25%). This may due to the fact that a large majority of girl child labourers in the survey district are currently attending schools compared to that of boys, a higher by 58 percentage points.

Table 2.41: Percentage distribution of child labourers by sex according to knowledge about legal prohibition of child labour as a form of earnings

Knowledge about legal prohibition of child labour	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	57	25.0	33	41.3	90	29.2
No	171	75.0	47	58.8	218	70.8
Total (n)	228	100.0	80	100.0	308	100.0

2.10 Conclusions

The survey revealed that child labours found in Khijidemba RM is mostly from different districts of Nepal and from the parts of India and very few are born in Khijidemba RM. Forms of work children found are:

- Child Domestic mostly working in the houses of government/public service holders, professionals and teachers too,
- Children in Agriculture farm
- Children in transport helping and motor garage workshops,
- Children in carpet/garment and Embroidery,
- Children in hotel restaurants and small teashops, and
- Child rag-pickers, and
- Children in shop vending, poultry/pig farming, furniture workshop, in construction sector, and others.

Majority of child labours are out of school, have to work from early morning to the late evening (8-15 hours a day). Though, having lots of problems in their daily activities, these children are reluctant to share their suffering with outsiders thinking that their job will be in danger or they have to go back home or their masters will threaten them for sharing such matter.

Empathy gained from the field survey, personal interview and from observation is that child domestics have to do huge amount of time consuming nitty-gritty works like cooking, cleaning and caring for others, washing, cleaning, and others. Most child domestics are girls, enrolled in government schools, remains absent from school most frequently and run from classes in half day, they are enrolled for the compliance of rules. This is because they have to first fulfil the duty of home and going to school is only for saving their masters from legal action. Notable is that these children get very less stationeries and other materials for school, need to request with master or mistress for many times haltingly. Daily chores make them so busy that they hardly get time to study. Only after finishing all the household work they can manage time for study. Overwork load than they can really do as per their age makes them tired and weak. It makes their learning ineffective in school. Most of the girl children have to bear increased workload in the menstruation period. Instead of kitchen work, they need to wash clothes of all house (bed sheets, quilt cover, clothes of all family members), sweep outer parts of house. During the time it is hard them to get sanitary pad to maintain basic hygiene. Another fact is that they are not allowed to go out of their home alone. The masters keep close eyes on their movement.

Further problems associated to schooling child labours are parents/guardian to be unresponsive. As the schoolteachers find parents/guardians careless in monitoring of their wards educational performance, they also developed irresponsible behaviours. Guardians never participate in parents-teacher interaction programme if the school organizes it. This fact is well spoken by school headmasters where majority of students are child labourers.

For other children than that of child domestics, programme needed to place dual efforts i.e. one is finding ways to bring the most reluctant child labourers in school system for their better social future and another is improving their working and living conditions that resembles the characteristics of the hazardous forms of work. For instance children in agriculture farm are

excessively exposed to carrying heavy load, to unhealthy dust and smoke, longer hours of work; children in transport sectors are at risk of accidents, smoke and substance abuse; children in embroidery and carpet/garment have confined location and restriction in movement and most are abstained even from right to be literate. Children in hotel restaurants, shop vending and in poultry farming also faces unhealthy working environment and longer duration of work.

Based on the foregone discussions, some of the policy recommendations may be:

- To trace the child labour in each nooks and corners of the villages and communities of district, the programme needed to strengthen local level child protection committees and establishment of working collaboration in between child protection committees and civil societies like community reform committees
- Efforts to be placed for improvement of working condition of the children rather adoption of abolitionist approach until and unless there is best alternatives for children,
- The district employs children supplied by other districts of the country and some from India. Hence, it calls programme for targeting to supply regions,
- Employers sensitization and awareness programme against child labour is essential,
- School communities where most child labourers are studying, needed to have mandatory provision of participation of local guardians in parents-teachers meeting, in collection of results and for others,
- Children in agriculture farm, in transportation and in embroidery where working condition characterises as hazardous forms of work needed to abolish.

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Appendix I: Field Researchers and Data management

Name of Field Researchers	Data Management
1. Navaraj Pandey	1. Ms. Ira Poudel
2. Suman Thapaliya	2. Ms. Radhika Dhakal
3. Sharada Bhattarai	
4. Shantamaya Pariyar	
5. Surakshya Panthi	
6. Tara Kumari Tharu	
7. Jayanti Dhital	
8. Sushila Kumari Pulami	
9. Delina Maharjan	
10. Bijaya KC	
11. Bivatsha Bhusal	