India's Childhood in the "Pits"

A Report on the Impacts of Mining on Children in India

By
Dhaatri Resource Centre for Women and Children - Samata
HAQ: Centre for Child Rights
In partnership with
mines, minerals & PEOPLE

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Dhaatri - Samata,
14-37-9, Krishna Nagar,
Maharanipet, Visakhapatnam-530002
Andhra Pradesh
Email: samataindia@gmail.com

HAQ:Centre for Child Rights
B1/2 Malviya Nagar
New Delhi-110017
Email: info@haqcrc.org
www.haqcrc.org

Credits:

Research Coordination:	**Bhanumathi Kalluri, Enakshi Ganguly Thukral**
Field Investigators:	**Vinayak Pawar, Kusha Garada**
Documentation Support:	**Riya Mitra, G.Ravi Sankar, Parul Thukral**
Report: Part 1-	**Enakshi Ganguly Thukral and Emily**
Part 2-	**Bhanu Kalluri, Seema Mundoli, Sushila Marar, Emily**
Design and Printing:	Aspire Design

List of Abbreviations

AEI – Aide à l'Enfance de l'Inde
ANM – Auxiliary Nurse cum Midwife
ARI – Acute Respiratory Illness
ASER – Annual Status of Education Report
ASTM – Action Solidarite Tiers Monde
AWC – Anganwadi Centre
BCCL – Bharat Cooking Coal Limited
BGML – Bharat Gold Mines Limited
BHEL – Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited
BIFR – Board for Industrial and Financial Reconstruction
BPL – Below Poverty Line
BPO – Business Process Outsourcing
BRC – Block Resource Coordinator
BSL – Bisra Stone Lime Company Limited
CCL – Central Coalfields Limited
CHC – Community Health Centre
CICL – Child in Conflict with Law
CMPDI – Central Mine Planning and Design Institute
CNCP – Child in Need of Care and Protection
CSE – Centre for Science and Environment
CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility
Cu m – cubic metres
CWSN – Children With Special Needs
DISE – District Information System for Education
DP camp – Displaced Persons' Camp
ECL – Eastern Coalfield Limited
EIA – Environmental Impact Assessment
FDI – Foreign Direct Investment
FIR – First Information Report
FPIC – Free Prior and Informed Consent
GAFSCA – Gangpur Adivasi Forum for Social and Cultural Awakening
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
GSDP – Gross State Domestic Product
Ha – hectare
HAL – Hindustan Aeronautics Limited
HDI – Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS – Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
ICDS – Integrated Child Development Scheme
IIPS – International Institute for Population Sciences
ILO – International Labour Organization
IMR – Infant Mortality Rate
IPEC – International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
IT – Information Technology
KGF – Kolar Gold Fields
KMMI – Karignur Mineral Mining Industry
LWSI – Lutheran World Service India
MASS – Mitra Association for Social Service
MCL – Mahanadi Coalfields Limited
MDGs – Millennium Development Goals
MLPC – Mine Labour Protection Campaign.
mm&P – mines mineral and PEOPLE
MMDR Act – Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) Act
MP – Madhya Pradesh
MW – Megawatt
NACO – National AIDS Control Organisation
NALCO – National Aluminum Company
NCLP – National Child Labour Project
NCRB – National Crime Records Bureau
NFHS – National Family Health Survey
NGO – Non–Governmental Organisation
NIOH – National Institute for Occupational Health and Safety
NMDC – National Mineral Development Corporation
NREGA – National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
NSSO – National Sample Survey Organisation
OBC – Other Backward Classes
PAP – Project Affected Persons
PDS – Public Distribution System
PHC – Primary Health Centre
PIO – Public Information Officer
PKMS – Pathar Khadan Mazdoor Sangh
POSCO – Pohang Iron and Steel Company
PSSP – Prakrutiko Sampado Surakshya Parishad
READS – Rural Education Action Development Society
R&R – Rehabilitation and Resettlement
Rs – Rupees
RTI – Right to Information
SAIL – Steel Authority of India Limited
SCCL– Singareni Collieries Company Limited
SC – Scheduled Caste
SDP – State Domestic Product
SEEDS – Social Economical Educational Development Society
SEZ – Special Economic Zone
SGVS – Society of Gram Vikasa Saradhi
SHG – Self Help Group
SOP – Superintendent of Planning and Implementation
Sq km – square kilometres
STD – Sexually Transmitted Disease
ST – Scheduled Tribe
TB – Tuberculosis
TDH – Terre des Hommes
UAIL – Utkal Alumina International Limited
UCIL – Uranium Corporation of India Limited
USA – United States of America
VRDS – Vennela Rural Development Society
VRS – Voluntary Retirement Schemes

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About the Study

This study has been conducted jointly by HAQ: Centre for Child Rights and Samata in close partnership with the national alliance, mines, minerals and People (mm&P) network and Dhaatri Resource Centre for Women and Children, and supported by Terre des Hommes Germany (tdh), AEI & ASTM Luxembourg. The work follows on from an earlier fact-finding mission that was carried out in the iron ore mines of Bellary district, Karnataka. As well as being the first study to cover these issues in a comprehensive way, **the study aims to form the basis for mobilisation and advocacy on this issue**. We hope that, along with the mm&P network, we will be able to take forward this work and to campaign to bring real improvements in the lives of children affected by mining in India.

This report aims to cover the three phases of mining — pre-mining areas (where projects are being proposed and land needs to be attained), current mining areas (where mining is already taking place) and post-mining areas (where mining operations were significant but have now ceased).

Field research was carried out in eight states to cover a range of different mining situations, as well as a range of minerals being mined in India today. The states covered were: Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand. In Orissa we undertook case studies in a number of different sites as Orissa is a state most impacted by mining and has been the focus of further mineral expansion.

Methodology

This report is compiled from a combination of information gathered in the field and from secondary data. The sites for fieldwork were chosen to ensure a range of minerals, both minor and major minerals, were covered as well as a wide geographic space. One of the most important factors was the presence of a local organisation or an mm&P partner. This was a priority for two reasons, to secure local support with the research, and to ensure that local groups will take the campaign forward and use the study as a basis for mobilisation and advocacy in their states.

Not all background data was available through Census statistics or in other public domains. Therefore, the decision was made to use the Right to Information (RTI) Act to gather missing information. RTIs were sent to a number of government departments, including state-owned mining companies, to find out the number of children working in mines, the number of people displaced by projects, various health statistics for people living in these districts and other information that is not readily available. (See end of Part 2 for responses to RTIs filed).

The main methodology used for field case studies was to understand the overall development indicators of the children living around the mines while also identifying the children working in the mines, the nature of their work and working conditions and how their social life is impacted due to the external influences of the complex ad hoc communities of workers, truckers, contractors, traders and other players who form an amorphous and unscrupulous floating population around the mines. This was done through visits to villages, schools, *anganwadi* centres, primary health centres, orphanages, company run schools and hospitals, meetings with *panchayat* leaders, village elders, women's groups, workers' unions, local officials and NGOs, as well as visits to the mine sites.

List of states and districts visited

- Pune and Nashik districts, Maharashtra, June 2009 (follow up in September 2009)
- Koraput and Rayagada districts, Orissa, June 2009 (follow up in October 2009 and in January-February 2009)
- Kolar and Bellary districts, Karnataka, June 2009 (follow up in Bellary in December 2009)
- Keonjhar district, Orissa, July 2009 (follow up in February 2009)
- Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Barmer districts, July 2009 (follow up in Jodhpur in October 2009)
- Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, August 2009
- Chittoor, Cuddapah, Visakhapatnam districts, Andhra Pradesh, June, August and October 2009
- Cuddalore district, Tamil Nadu, August 2009
- Hazaribagh district, Jharkhand, September 2009
- Raigarh district, Chhattisgarh, November 2009
- Sundergarh district, Orissa, November 2009

Challenges

Over the course of the research, the study team faced a number of challenges.

The first challenge was the choice of sites. A first list of sites based on choice of minerals, location and presence of an mm&P partner organisation was made. However, some of these sites had to be later dropped, either due to a lack of adequate information or lack of capacity of the partner to provide the necessary support.

This was a time-bound research project. That meant that the project period coincided with the monsoons, which rendered some of the mining sites originally chosen inaccessible.

Despite seeing the overall impact of mining on their lives, **communities were not always able to identify those that directly impacted children only.** Since this study focussed on the impacts on children, this proved a major challenge for the team. It is difficult even for local organisations campaigning on rights of mining affected communities to provide tangible data with respect to children as **impacts and problems are not directly visible on children.** Although local groups are knowledgeable about the presence of child labour and other issues, threats from mining and political powers make it dangerous for them to directly confront the state on issues concerning children.

Mining operations are politically sensitive and highly politicised making it difficult to collect information related to children and mining because of the sensitive nature of this issue. People were nervous to talk, as they feared negative consequences. In terms of direct access, **it is always difficult to get the opportunity to talk to children first-hand** and this is certainly the case with regard to mining. Researchers were cautious to approach children at mine sites, in case of repercussions for these children. When communities were interviewed in their villages, it tended to be the elders who were most vocal in answering questions. In addition to this, primary health centres were unable to provide quantitative data on illnesses or diseases. Schools, where they existed, as in many other parts of the country were often without teachers present at the time of the fieldwork. Therefore, the difficulty in collecting quantitative data and figures meant that **we only managed to get indicative information about the impacts of mining on children.**

Non-availability of secondary information was yet another challenge. Applications under the Right to Information Act were filed to get relevant information. However this did not prove easy. To be able to get information under the RTI Act, 2005, it is critical to send the application to the right person. Interestingly this experience itself proved to provide important learning in the context of the study.

About this report

This report combines both secondary data as well as primary data. It has been presented in two parts. Part I is the national overview which aims to provide a summary of the huge quantity of data obtained during field research. Part II consists of state reports based on both secondary information about the state and its mining activities as well as case studies from mining sites where field work was undertaken. Part III is summary and detail reccommendation and Part IV is the appendix that details our experience with using the Right to Information Act for this study.

Mining Children — Introduction and Overview

India is endowed with significant mineral resources. The constant endeavour of humans to mine more and more resources from the earth has been going on for centuries. Metals, stones, oil, gas and even sand are all mined. Indeed, steel, aluminium and other plants have come to be a symbol of progress and industrial growth, while fossil fuels and coal are mined for our ever-increasing need for energy. Every time a mining operation begins, it is with promises of growth and development, yet these promises are rarely delivered.

Mining has, throughout history, **been a symbol of the struggle between human need and human greed;** the human need to dig into the earth and take control over its resources. Industry, infrastructure and investments have been decisively stated as basic vehicles to drive India into this race, which automatically translates into mineral extraction and processing being of utmost importance to implement this dream. Further, development visions are based on certain premises built into public thought processes. The first of these premises is that mining brings economic prosperity at all levels of the country — national and local. It has been based on the principle that the high revenues generated by mining activities will convert poverty stricken and marginalised communities and workforce into economically grounded communities with positive developments in employment generation, health, education, local infrastructure and the creation of a diversified opportunity base.

Overview on Mining

India currently produces 89 minerals out of which 4 are fuel minerals, 11 metallic, 52 non-metallic and 22 minor minerals (such as building stones). Mining for fuel, metallic and non-metallic industrial minerals is currently undertaken in almost half of India's districts.[1] Coal and metallic reserves are spread across Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Orissa, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. Iron ore deposits are located in Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand in the north, and Goa and Karnataka in the south. Limestone is found in Himachal Pradesh in the north, to Andhra Pradesh in the south and from Gujarat in the west to Meghalaya in the east. In terms of mineral deposits, Jharkhand, Orissa and Chhattisgarh are the top three mineral bearing states.[2]

The contribution of the mining and quarrying sector to India's GDP in 2008-09 was Rs. 648.91 billion — a mere 1.94 per cent of the total GDP.[3] However, the demand for metals and minerals in India and in other developing countries has led to a steady growth in the country's mineral industry.[4] Mining grew by 4.7 per cent in 2008-09 over the preceding period and with the global recession hitting India, the mining and quarrying industry was the only segment of the economy not to experience steep deceleration of growth rates.[5] However, what needs to be remembered is that in **terms of the galloping Indian economy, mining makes only a marginal contribution.**

In the 2008 National Mineral Policy, the government recognises that:
"As a major resource for development, the extraction and management of minerals has to be integrated into the overall strategy of the country's economic development. The exploitation of minerals has to be guided by long-term national goals and perspectives."

1. Centre for Science and Environment, "Rich Lands, Poor People," *State of India's Environment: 6*, 2008, pp. 3,
2. Ibid.
3. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report, 2008-2009, pp. 10.
4. U.S. Geological Survey, *2007 Minerals Yearbook: India*, pp. 11.1.
5. Rediff.com, *India's GDP falls to 6.7 per cent in FY09*, http://business.rediff.com/report/2009/may/29/bcrisis-indias-gdp-falls.htm, 29 May, 2009.

However, closer observation of the current mining sector reveals that mineral production is being viewed by both the central and state governments as a means of short-term revenue generation and to fuel current economic growth rates, as opposed to being considered holistically as part of the country's wider, more long-term development goals, human development indicators and preservation of the environment and other natural resources such as water.

With the new economic policy in India, there have been a number of changes in the mining sector. Although traditionally in the hands of the public sector, there has been **increasing privatisation** since the early 1990s, and more and more mines are now privately owned. Foreign direct investment has been a thrust area for the sector, with both the central and state governments pushing for liberalisation and deregulation in not only the Coal Nationalisation Act and labour laws, but also in other related areas such as the environment. It has also impacted employment due to the enforcement of Voluntary Retirement Schemes (VRS) on mine workers. **The Fifth Scheduled Areas, areas which are constitutionally demarcated for tribal populations, are being opened up for foreign direct investment and private industries, primarily mining, leading to deforestation and displacement of tribals.** Most alarmingly, there has been a huge increase in the informal sector mining activities through sub-contracting mining and quarrying.

But mining is not the subject of this study. This study is about the relationship between children's rights and mining. It attempts to address the question — what is the impact of mining on children? According to the most recent Indian Census carried out in 2001, children constitute over 40 per cent of India's population, many of whom live in mining areas. These we refer to as "Mining Children" in this report.

A fact-finding study in 2005 in the iron ore mines of Hospet in Bellary District, Karnataka, for the first time, brought home to the organisations involved in this study, the immense impact mining has on the lives of children. It became imperative to follow that fact-finding study with a more systematic research to gain a better understanding.

India boasts of several legal protections for children, with the Right to Education being the latest fundamental right. These laws are strengthened by positive schemes to bring children out of poverty and marginalisation. **The paradox of mining lies in the fact that the mining industry or the mining administration is not legally responsible for ensuring most of the rights and development needs of children.** The mess that is created in the lives of children as a result of mining is now addressed by other departments like child welfare, education, tribal welfare, labour and others, which makes for an inter-departmental conflict of interest and leaves ample room for ambiguities in state accountability. In this process, the child is being forgotten. Hence, the glaring heart-rending impacts of mining on children have technically few legal redressal mechanisms to bring the multiple players to account.

While there is some documentation and research available on the impact of mining on communities in general, apart from scattered and anecdotal information, very little information is available on the impact of mining on children in all its dimensions. **Research on mining and children has tended to focus solely on the aspect of child labour,** which again is restricted to minerals that are normally exported and have the potential to shock the western consumer. **The multitude of other ways in which children are impacted by mining have been completely neglected.** Needless to say, neither the groups and campaigns that focus on mining issues, nor those working with children, have paid this issue the attention it deserves.

This report provides but a glimpse into the lives of children living, working, affected by and exploited by mining in India. We hope that the microcosm of children we touched through this report evokes a national reflection on what could be the plight of millions of children affected by mining in India.

It is hoped that this report will yet again bring to national debate the paradox of "India's inclusive growth" that still ignores the majority of children. When national sentiments are stirred by the rhetoric of children being the future of our nation, it is important to assess for ourselves whether our development models are actually geared towards creating a future for India's children, or are instead, providing a nation with little present or future for the majority of our children. It therefore asks the question, "How do we as a nation want to measure ourselves as achieving human development?"

This study shows how the development aspirations created by our policy makers and political leadership create a strong likelihood for future divides between the children of this country, furthering both the socio-economic divide and the urban-rural divide. Among the *adivasi* and *dalit* children, the displacement, impoverishment and indebtedness caused

by mining and its ancilliary activities shows a dearth of opportunities for them to access even basic rights such as primary education and healthcare. That they are being forced to take on adult economic roles in the most exploitative conditions in order to help their families survive, is certainly not an indicator that sets us on track to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) goals emphasised in the 11th Five Year Plan especially for these social groups. This paves the route to socio-economic disparities in India's children.

This study also shows that children and their communities are not part of the growth and development that mining promises. For example, it is over 30 years since the NALCO mining project, a public sector undertaking in the Koraput District of Orissa began. In these 30 years, the data from the case study reveals that there has been little upward mobility for the children of affected families, either educationally or economically. This is the fate of those affected by a public sector project where social responsibility is intended to be the principal agenda. There does not appear to be a single mining project that has fulfilled the rehabilitation promises in a manner that has improved the life of affected communities nor have they set a precedent for best practices that the government can set as a pre-condition to private mining companies. Moreover, there has been no assessment or stock taking of the status of rehabilitation especially with regard to the status of children.

The findings from this study provide a strong reason for an urgent comprehensive assessment of the status of children in mining areas — children of mine workers as well as of local communities, child labour engaged in mining and the status of the institutional structures for them. It also calls for **addressing the glaring loopholes in the law, policy and implementation** related to mining in general, and private and small scale/rat hole mining in particular that are related to children, to develop guidelines for migrant labour and the un-organised sector and pre-conditions that need to be fixed before mining leases are granted. **Foremost is the need for strengthening protection mechanisms for children** and campaigns against child labour in these regions.

What is the Definition of a "Child"?

A key challenge for child rights work in India is the confusion around the definition of a child in terms of age. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which was adopted in 1989 and ratified by India in 1992, defines a child as "every human being below the age of 18." Indian legislation also makes 18 years the general age of majority in India.[6] However, other laws passed in India cause confusion in this area, with many laws defining childhood as only up till 14 years of age. For example, although children have been banned from working in hazardous occupations, which includes mining and quarrying, for this purpose, a child is only considered as a person up to 14 years — for children between 15 and 18, there is no applicable regulation.[7]

This has also been witnessed with the passing of the recent Right to Education Act in 2009, which guarantees *all* children between 6—14 years the right to education, but no such guarantee exists for children 15 and above. As organisations committed to the rights of **all** children in India, **in this study, HAQ and Samata will consider the impacts of mining on children up to the age of 18 years.** However, there are serious limitations in terms of statistics, as the majority of statistics, such as the Census 2001, only calculates the number of working children up till the age of 14.

Law And Policy

International Standards

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child includes **the rights for children to be protected from hazardous work.** Children have the right to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or interfering with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. The Convention also recognises the right of the child to education and requests State Parties to take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of dropout rates, which is a frequent problem among working children.

6. Ministry for Women and Child Development, *Definition of the Child*, http://wcd.nic.in/crcpdf/CRC-2.PDF, uploaded: 10 August 2009.
7. Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986.

In addition, almost all work performed by children in **mining and quarrying is** hazardous and **considered to be one of the worst forms of child labour,** defined by the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).[8] India has not ratified this convention, and indeed activists and campaigns against child labour too are not in favour of ratifying a convention that distinguishes between hazardous and non-hazardous forms of labour. Their argument is that **all** forms of labour or indeed, work that denies children their basic rights, is exploitative and hence hazardous, and hence must be banned.

Mining leads to forced evictions. General Comment 7 adopted by the UN Committee for Economic Cultural and Social Rights on Forced Evictions encourages State Parties to ensure that *"legislative and other measures are adequate to prevent and if appropriate, punish forced evictions carried out without appropriate safeguards by private persons or bodies."* [9]

National Laws and Policy

The Constitution of India, along with a whole host of laws and policies, recognise and protect the rights of all children in India. The National Child Policy of 1974 and the more recent National Plan of Action for Children 2005, along with the Eleventh Five Year Plan, lay down the roadmap for the implementation of these rights. These include the rights to be protected from exploitation and abuse and the right to free and compulsory education. These laws are strengthened by positive schemes to bring children out of poverty and marginalisation. But then these are for all children. Very **few laws provide any protection or relief to mining children in particular or address their specific situation. This is because the principal job of the Ministry of Mines is to mine.** Hence, many of the violations and human rights abuses that result from mining, especially with respect to children, are not the mandate of the mines ministry to address. The responsibility lies elsewhere, and therefore leads to conflict of interest between departments, in which the child falls between the cracks.

In the laws that deal with mining, many do not address the needs and rights of children, or even human beings in general. For example, there are several laws and policies that govern mining in the country,[10] which include central as well as state laws and policies. There are also policies and laws that deal with rehabilitation and resettlement of those displaced by the mining project,[11] as well as polices for specific minerals such as coal.[12] Although people are the most affected, directly or indirectly, when mining operations take place, most of these **laws and policies that deal with mining mention little or nothing about people except as labour.**

Not surprisingly, **children find absolutely no mention,** although they may lose access to education, healthcare and other facilities; be affected by pollution and other environmental impacts; be pushed into joining the labour force and end up unskilled and illiterate forever as a result of mining.

Child labour is one of the most vicious impacts of mining that one sees. However, laws to address the employment of children in such hazardous conditions are weak. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, prohibits the employment of children below the age of 14 in mines (underground and underwater) and collieries (Schedule Part A). It also prohibits employment of children in certain mining related processes listed in Schedule B.[13] This is a **huge gap in the law because it does not unilaterally ban employment of children in all mining,** thereby leaving them vulnerable to abuse and exploitation. Even while prohibiting the employment of children in mines, the Mines Act leaves open a window of opportunity for exploitation. While the Mines Act, 1952, and the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1983, lay down that no person below 18 years of age shall be allowed to work in any mine or part thereof (Section 40) or

8. The worst forms of child labour comprises, inter alia, work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety and morals of children.
9. For more information see A Handbook on UN Basic Principles and Guidelines based on Development–based Evictions and Displacement by Amnesty International India, Housing and Land Rights Network and Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action. http://www.hic-sarp.org/UN%20Handbook.pdf
10. Such as the Mines Act, 1952 (Amendment Act 1983); Mines And Minerals (Development And Regulation) Act, 1957 (As Amended Up To 20th December, 1999); Government Of India Ministry Of Mines National Mineral Policy, 2008 (For Non - Fuel And Non - Coal Minerals); as well as state polices such as Karnataka Mineral Policy 2008.
11. National Policy for Rehabilitation and Resettlement, 2007.
12. There are a number of acts and policies which specifically govern the coal industry in India. For further details, see: http://coal.nic.in/acts.htm, and http://policies.gov.in/department.asp?id=76.
13. Mica-cutting and splitting; manufacture of slate pencils (including packing); manufacturing processes using toxic metals and substances, such as lead, mercury; fabrication workshops (ferrous and non-ferrous); gem cutting and polishing; handling chromite and manganese ores; lime kilns and lime manufacturing; stone breaking and crushing; etc.

in any operation connected with or incidental to any mining operation being carried on (Section 45), it simultaneously allows for children of 16 years to be apprentices and trainees. It also leaves it to the discretion of the Inspector to determine whether the person is a worker or apprentice/trainee and fit to work (Section 43.1). The National Mineral Policy has one line under its section on infrastructure development (section 7.7) that indirectly deals with children when it says that "a much greater thrust will be given to development of health, education, drinking water, road and other related facilities…", failing to mention who will do it and how.

The law that can be most effective in dealing with child labour in mining as well as any other form of vulnerability arising out of mining, **is the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act 2000, Amended 2006,** which defines children as persons up to the age of 18 and deals with two categories of children — the Child in Need of Care and Protection (CNCP) and the Child in Conflict with Law (CICL). Section 2d defines a child in need of care and protection as one who is exploited or abused or one who is vulnerable to being abused or exploited. It includes children already or vulnerable to displacement and homelessness, trafficking, labour etc.

Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) (MMDR) Act, 1957, is an Act stated to undertake mining and use of minerals in a "scientific" manner. This is the primary Act, which is slated for amendment, concerned with mining in India under the **National Mineral Policy** framework. The rules laid under this Act mainly relate to mine planning, processes of mining, the nature of technology, procedures and eligibility criteria for obtaining mining leases and all aspects related to mines. It **does not give any reference to the manner in which mining is to take place, from the social context, except for some broad guidelines in terms of environment, rehabilitation and social impacts.** Given the huge negative impacts of mining on children, **specific pre-conditions should be clearly laid out prior to granting of mining leases,** where mining companies have to indicate concrete actions for the development and protection of children. In order to undertake responsible mining, unless some of the following social impacts and accountability, particularly, with regard to children, are incorporated within the Act and the Mine Plan, violation of children's rights will continue in mining areas.

The Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill, 2009 was passed by the Lok Sabha on February 25, 2009. However, it has since lapsed and not become an Act. **As with all generic laws and policies, there is no special recognition accorded to children** except to mention educational institutions as part of social impact assessment and orphans in the list of vulnerable persons.[14] It says that while undertaking a social impact assessment under sub-section 4(2), the appropriate government shall take into consideration facilities such as health care, schools and educational or training facilities, *anganwadis*, children's parks[15] etc. and this report has to be submitted to an expert group in government, which must include "the Secretary of the departments of the appropriate government concerned with the welfare of women and children, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes or his nominee, ex officio." 5(2b). In a letter to the Minister for Rural Development, the Chairperson of the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights had pointed out that a review of the status of children in areas of displacement due to development programmes as well as disaster and conflicts, shows that most rehabilitation programmes do not take into account the impacts on children. Because displacement can lead to a violation of rights of children in relation to their access to nutrition, education, health and other facilities, it calls for an impact assessment on children and their access to entitlements. This has to be gender and age specific. [16]

The National Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy neglects to mention children as affected persons and therefore fails to recognise or acknowledge the ways in which children are specifically impacted by displacement for any project including mining. **Impacts on children are different from those on adults.** Yet no mention is made in this policy of the effect this displacement will have on their access to food, education and healthcare, as well as their overall development.

14. In Section 21(2-iii and iv) it states that vulnerable persons such as the disabled, destitute, orphans, widows, unmarried girls will be included in the survey as also families belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes

15. 4 (2) "While undertaking a social impact assessment under sub-section (1), the the appropriate government shall, inter alia, take into consideration the impact that the project will have on public and community properties, assets and infrastructure; particularly, roads, public transport, drainage, sanitation, sources of drinking water, sources of water for cattle, community ponds, grazing land, plantations, public utilities, such as post offices, fair price shops, food storage godowns, electricity supply, health care facilities, schools and educational or training facilities, *anganwadi*s, children's parks, places of worship, land for traditional tribal institutions, burial and cremation grounds."

16. National Commission for Protection of Child Rights, *Infocus*, Volume 1.No. 4

Impacts

Children are affected directly and indirectly by mining. Among the **direct impacts** are, the loss of lands leading to displacement and dislocation, increased morbidity due to pollution and environmental damage, consistent degeneration of quality of life after mining starts, increase in school dropouts and children entering the workforce.

The **indirect impacts** of mining, often visible only after a period of time, include a fall in nutrition levels leading to malnutrition, an increase in diseases due to contamination of water, soil and air, and increased migration due to unstable work opportunities for their parents.

It is paradoxical that while mining is touted as heralding prosperity and growth and if it is meant to bring in a better life, then why is this not visible in the lives of local people – men women and children – whose lands are being mined, or who have been brought there as labour to mine the lands?

"MINING HAPPINESS FOR THE PEOPLE OF ORISSA" promises one mining company. **"STEEL IN EVERY STEP, SONG IN EVERY HEART"** promises another. Yet why then are people affected by mining asking, "the government is telling us that this mining is going to be profitable to the country and that this is for India's development... But if this is India's development, are we not a part of India? Why is the government not considering us?"

Sources: 1. Mining company signboards in Orissa.
2. Person about to be displaced for lignite mining project, Barmer district, Rajasthan, July 2009.

Direct and Indirect Impacts of Mining on Children

1. **Increased morbidity and illnesses:** Mining children are faced with increased morbidity. Children are prone to illness because they live in mining areas and work in mines.
2. **Increased food insecurity and malnutrition:** While almost 50 per cent of children in many states across the country are malnourished, mining areas are even more vulnerable to child malnutrition, hunger and food insecurity.
3. **Increased vulnerability to exploitation and abuse:** Displaced, homeless or living in inadequate housing conditions, forced to drop out of schools, children become vulnerable to abuse, exploitation and being recruited for illegal activities by mafia and even trafficking.
4. **Violation of Right to Education:** India is walking backwards in the mining affected areas with respect to its goal of education for all. Mining children are unable to access schools or are forced to drop out of schools because of circumstances arising from mining.
5. **Increase in child labour:** Mining regions have large numbers of children working in the most hazardous activities.
6. **Further marginalisation of *adivasi* and *dalit* children:** Large-scale mining projects are mainly in *adivasi* areas and the *adivasi* child is fast losing his/her Constitutional rights under the Fifth Schedule, due to displacement, land alienation and migration by mining projects. As with *adivasi* children, it is the mining *dalit* children who are displaced, forced out of school and employed in the mines.
7. **Migrant children are the nowhere children:** The mining sector is largely dependent on migrant populations where children have no security of life and where children are also found to be working in the mines or other labour as a result of mining.
8. **Mining children fall through the gaps:** Children are not the responsibility of the Ministry of Mines that is responsible for their situation and the violation of their rights. The mess that is created in the lives of children as a result of mining has to be addressed by other departments like child welfare, education, tribal welfare, labour, environment and others. Without convergence between various departments and agencies, the mining child falls through the gaps. All laws and policies related to mining and related processes do not address specific rights and entitlements of mining children.

Recommendations

Specific for children

- The government must recognise that children are impacted by mining in a number of ways, and these impacts must be considered and addressed at all stages of the mining cycle pre-mining, mining and post- mining
- This concern for mining children must find reflection in all laws and policies on mining- National Mineral Policy 2008; the Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) (MMDR); Mines (Amendment) Act, 1983.
- Recognising that children concerns in the present governance structure are the responsibility of several departments in the State and Ministries in the Centre, it is essential to ensure convergence both in law and policy level, as well of services to ensure justice to the mining child.
- There is a need for linking the existing child protection institutions the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights as well as the State Commissions for Protection of Child rights with children affected by mining and the establishment of a state level and district level monitoring committee consisting of all the concerned departments that have responsibilities to protect the child responsible for monitoring as well as grievance redressal.
- The governments and society must no longer live in denial regarding the existence of children in labour in mines and amend the laws accordingly. Given the extreme hazardous nature of the activity, the Mines Act, 1952 and the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1983 must be amended to ensure that children below 18 years of age are not working in the mines as trainees and apprentices from the age of sixteen. The lacunae in the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 with respect to children working in mines must be addressed by amending the law to include all mining operations in Schedule A of Prohibited Occupations.[17]
- It is essential to mainstream child rights concerns into policies, amendments to the existing laws on mining and those that are being proposed by the respective ministries, whether with regard to the Rehabilitation Bill, the Social Security Bill, the Land Acquisition Bill, to name a few.
- Immediately address the high levels of malnourishment, hunger and food insecurity in mining areas, as has been found in this study and in keeping with the Supreme Court Orders in the Right to Food Case[18] through stock taking and implementation of ICDS projects in mining areas.
- Given their especially marginalised situation, ensure that migrant, *adivasi* and *dalit* mining children receive special attention.
- Given the additional vulnerability to exploitation and abuse that mining brings to children, the government must prioritise the implementation of its flagship scheme on child protection called the Integrated Child protection Scheme (ICPS) on vulnerable areas such as the mining areas. The aim of the scheme is to reduce vulnerability as much as to provide protection to children who fall out of the social security and safety net.
- It is essential to implement the Juvenile Justice Act, 2000 to address the condition of the children in the mining areas in a manner relevant to their specific situations through the provision and strengthening of protection, monitoring and grievance redressal mechanisms or support structures for protection of mining children such as the Child Welfare Committees.
- There is need for extending the support (in a more focussed way) by the Juvenile Justice Boards, the Child Welfare Committees (CWCs) and the State Juvenile Police Units to *adivasi* children in areas where displacement and landlessness has led to their exploitation or brought them in conflict with law.
- Guaranteeing all mining children their right to Free and Universal Compulsory Elementary Education is a right for all children through the targeted provision of accessible and quality education, the same as that available to the children of the mining officials. Number, quality and reach of primary and elementary schools, including infrastructure and pedagogic inputs, have to be adequately scaled up.
- The National Child Labour Programme (NCLP) must be extended to all children working in mines, which means it must be upgraded substantially in terms of numbers, financial allocations and quality of delivery as well as monitoring and ensure mainstreaming of all children attending NCLP schools into regular schools

17. At present mining and collieries are the only forms of mining included in Schedule A.
18. For details see- http://www.righttofoodindia.org/icds/icds_orders.html (accessed on 13 March 2010)Interviews with mining-affected communities, Kasipur district, Orissa, June 2009.

is mandatory and this must be ensured from children rescued from labour in mines.

- There must be a comprehensive assessment of the health impacts on children living and working in mining areas and considering the high levels of environmental pollution and occupational diseases as a result of mining the Ministry needs to have delivery services that will address critical child health and mortality issues, especially related to pollution, contamination, toxicity, disappearance of resources like water bodies that have affected the nutrition and food security of the communities, etc.
- Rehabilitation must be an integral part of the lease agreement and the Rehabilitation Plan should clearly specify the impacts on and plans for children which must begin before the mining project begins in a time-bound manner. This includes decent and adequate housing with toilet and Potable drinking water, good quality schools within the rehabilitation/resettlement colony, electricity, anganwadi centre with supplementary nutrition to pregnant women and single mothers, colleges, health institutions, roads and transport.
- Violation of any of these impacting children should result in the cancellation of the lease. Penalties should be defined for non-implementation of rehabilitation as per projected plans and assessments with recommendations made by the monitoring committee.

Overarching Recommendations

- The Ministry of Mines has to evolve regional plans with appropriate local governance institutions (district, block) and the community with clarity in terms of quantity and quality of ore that will be extracted, the extent of area involved, demographic profile of this region, economic planning for extraction that includes number of workers required, nature of workers (local, migrant), type of technology, social cost including wages, estimate of workers and assured work period, providing (in the case of migrant workers) residential facilities like housing, basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, early childhood care facilities, quality of education, toilet, PDS facility and other requirements for a basic quality of life. The resources for these must not be drawn upon from public exchequer but recovered from the promoter.
- The public sector companies should set an example to first clean up the situation and redress the destruction caused to children and their environment in the existing mines with a clear time frame which will be scrutinised by the independent committee at regular intervals as agreed upon. The clean up should also state the budget allocated by each company for this purpose and provide details of expenditure incurred, to the committee.
- A benefit sharing mechanism must be immediately established so that it is not restricted to immediate short term monetary relief, but should show long term sustainability of the communities and workers, including post-mining land reclamation and livelihood programmes that have measurable outputs. A share from the taxes or profits shared by the companies should be ploughed into institutions for children.
- New mine leases should not be granted unless significant clean up and institutional mechanisms are in place. No private mining leases should be granted in the Scheduled Areas and the Samatha Judgement should be respected in its true spirit.
- The National Commission for the Unorganised Sector which is proposing the new Social Security Bill should take into cognizance, the above legal and policy recommendations, particularly with respect to the migrant mine workers and include adequate social security benefits that directly support development and protection of children.

Part I
National Overview

National Overview

Mining has impacts on people at different stages in its development. By its very nature it **is fundamentally unsustainable, as all natural resources are finite and will eventually run out.** Mining obviously has the most impacts on people working in the sites, but the local community is also impacted in terms of health problems and other negative influences the activity may introduce or exacerbate in the region. In the **pre-mining** phase, communities are displaced for mining activities and they may lose their farmland or even their homes.

The length of the **active mining phase** depends on the quantity of minerals available in the area. But eventually all mines have to be closed. **The post-mining phase** also poses its own distinct problems. Mining companies very rarely develop adequate closure plans, to put in place mechanisms to protect the community once mining ceases. Mining and quarry sites are often simply abandoned by companies once the minerals have dried up, and this land is generally useless, as it cannot be easily transformed back into agricultural land. Therefore the local community is often left landless and jobless.

Working conditions are very different in the formal and informal mining sectors. The average daily wage for workers in the formal sector in India in 2007 was Rs.444.21.[19] They will often receive other benefits, such as paid holidays and sometimes healthcare and education for their families.

Table 1.1: Hazards and risks in the general mining environment

Hazards/ risks in the living environment	Possible Consequences

• Exposure to:
  • subhuman living conditions (lacking sanitation, drinking water, extreme gegraphical and climatic locations);
  • complicated dependency relations;
  • degrading social environment (criminality, prostitution);
  • exposure to STD, AIDS, etc.;
  • inequality between men and women (men dispose of economic resources); erosion of family and social structure;
  • violent behaviour towards child workers;
  • violent conflicts among miners and with surrounding communities;
  • lack of law and order
	• deterioration of ethical value system
	• injuries or death due to crime or violence
	• omission of schooling and education;
	• vulnerability to diseases due to lack of hygiene and sanitation
	• exacerbation of injuries and illnesses due to lack of health services

Source: International Programme in Elimination of Child Labour, International Labour Office, Eliminating Child Labour in mining and Quarrying - Background Document, World Day Against Child Labour, 12 June,2005; pp 13

19. Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India, *Selected State-wise Average Daily Earnings of Workers in Mining Industries by Sex-Age in India,* 2007.

However, the number of people employed in the formal sector is relatively small — in 2005, this amounted to 559,100.[20] Instead, the majority of people working in mining and quarrying in India are engaged in the informal sector, which is more labour intensive, less mechanised and less organised. Rather than being paid a daily wage for their labour, their earnings are usually according to what they produce. They often have no formal contracts and therefore no employment rights. Many are migrant labourers living in makeshift housing close to mine sites. Villagers in Mariyammnahalli in Bellary district, Karnataka, explained how there are no facilities provided for mine workers. All the facilities provided — such as schooling for their children, houses, water and health facilities — are only available for technical workers and officers in the large mining companies. Informal mineworkers are provided with nothing, and they are too afraid to join a union or complain about the situation in case they lose their jobs.[21] **The nature of the work is fundamentally unsustainable.**

Illegal mining

Illegal mining is rampant across India. It is estimated that in Maharashtra, at least 25% of the stone quarries are operating illegally.[22] A similar situation was observed in all other states visited — in some areas, almost 50 per cent of mines and quarries are either illegal, or illegal extraction of minerals is taking place there. For instance, in Jambunathahalli, a small village near Hospet, in Karnataka, the research team found over 100 acres of land being used for small-scale illegal mining. The researchers visited three sites where mainly migrant labour from other parts of the state were working. The people reported that there were at least 40 illegally operating mines here but the numbers reduced due to economic recession.[23] According to the District Mining Officer of Pune, there are 412 stone quarries, but the ground reality reports show that there are double this number operating illegally. It was unofficially accepted that between 25 and 40 percent of all mines are illegal.

Table 1.2 shows an estimate of the number of illegal mines operating across the country as reported by the state governments.

This table clearly shows the huge number of illegal mines that have been identified by the state governments. In Andhra Pradesh, for example, a staggering 13,478 illegal mines were found in 2008. However, no real action was taken following their discovery — there was not a single First Information Report (FIR) or court case filed. And in other states there has been a noticeable increase in the number of illegal mines in recent years, from 284 in Orissa in 2006, to 1,059 in 2008.

Mine closures

Very little attention has been given to "post mining" situations and in particular, the ways in which local communities are impacted when mines shut down. Most mine closure plans do not address the impact of closure on workers or the communities dependent on mining activities for their survival. Attention is rarely paid to the rehabilitation of these workers and communities. In Jaisalmer district, Rajasthan, stone quarries have ceased operations in several localities and with no alternative livelihoods, former mine workers are forced to leave their villages and seek work in other states.[24]

In the Kolar district of Karnataka, the closing down of gold mining operations of the Kolar Gold Fields (KGF) has left a large community with no livelihood options. When the company was closed down suddenly in 2002, the entire population of KGF fell into a crisis with no alternative source of income or livelihood. Workers stated that although their salaries were not very high, infrastructure and free services provided to them by the company ensured that the basic needs of health, education and public services were met, but when the company shut down, not only were the salaries withdrawn but also all basic amenities. After the closure, the company withdrew all amenities to the workers. State institutions did not take over as workers were not in a position to pay for these services. Children of workers' families were the most affected by the company's decision. Children's education and social security faced the axe. As education was no longer a free service, many of the workers could not pay school fees during the period of the strike. Children faced humiliation at school and many of them had to drop out and take on the responsibility of sustaining their families, forcing many of them to travel out to Bangalore in

20. Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India, *Selected State-Wise Average Daily Employment and Number of Reporting Mines in India,* 2002 – 2005.
21. Interviews with mineworkers, Mariyammnahalli, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
22. Interview with Mr. Bastu Rege, Director, Santulan, September 2009.
23. Interviews carried out in Hospet area, Bellary, Karnataka, June 2009.
24. Interviews with residents of Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, Rajasthan, July 2009.

Table 1.2: Number of illegal mines detected in India, 2009

State / YEAR	Nos. of cases detected by state governments				Action Taken by state sovernments			
	2006	2007	2008	2009 Up to June 2009	Vehicle seized	FIRs Lodged	Court cases filed	Fine realised
Andhra Pradesh	5385	9216	13478	7332	844	----	----	2112.95
Chhattisgarh	2259	2352	1713	599	----	----	2181	309.16
Gujarat	7435	6593	5492	3720	106	114	8	7085.67
Haryana	504	812	1209	416	103	138	2	133.33
Goa	313	13	159	2	322		----	15.68
Gujarat	7435	6593	5492	3720	106	114	8	7085.67
Haryana	504	812	1209	416	103	138	2	133.33
Himachal Pradesh	478	----	503	375	----	----	464	21.04
Jharkhand	631	82	225	----	5592	202	39	108.41
Karnataka	3027	5180	2997	692	43585	931	771	3630.13
Kerala	1595	2593	2695	802	----	----	----	532.7
Madhya Pradesh	5050	4581	3895	2542	----	05	14831	1057.98
Maharashtra	4919	3868	5828	3285	15212	13	----	1129.01
Orissa	284	655	1059	365	1242+ 75 cycles	57	86	2309.36
Punjab	218	26	50	48	----	----	----	.96
Rajasthan	2359	2265	2178	1130	368	441	59	413.49
Tamil Nadu	2140	1263	1573	98	18722	133	155	6369.96
Uttarakhand	---	----	191		683	----	----	38.50
West Bengal	80	426	315	51	3680	897	167	----

Sources: Lok Sabha, State-wise Illegal Mines, written reply, 24 November 2009, http://www.pib.nic.in/release/release.asp?relid=54493

search of employment. Each morning 7,000-12,000 young adults leave for work to Bangalore by these trains and return only late in the night. The study team saw packed crowds leave at 6 in the morning and return by the last train that comes into KGF at 9.00 pm, and how adolescent girls form a majority of these daily commuters. When interviewed, the young girls, who commute by these trains, admitted that they are vulnerable to physical and sexual abuse as the trains are overcrowded, but they brush it aside as unavoidable as they have no other choice but to sustain their families. Some of the women and young girls from the workers' families turned to prostitution to keep their families from starving. What was more, young boys were getting into criminal activities such as petty thefts and youth were getting hired by political and criminal groups which operate in Bangalore, for violent and criminal activities. However, people of KGF prefer not to have such news highlighted as it only sensationalises KGF without actually addressing their core problems. One of the glaring problems reported by the people themselves is theft. Young boys operate as petty criminals and steal parts of the company infrastructure like metal sheets from mine shafts, machinery and other scrap. (For more details see state report on Karnataka in Part 2)

How do the mining districts in India fare in terms of child development?

In order to examine the impact of mining on children in India, it is relevant to look at some of the **child-related development indicators** in the key mining districts across the country. The Table 1.3 brings together some of these statistics for the 15 districts where field research has been carried out during the course of this study, and for an additional nine districts, identified as being amongst the most heavily mined areas of the country. The situation of children will be discussed in more detail for the majority of these districts in the state overview section of the case studies. However, a cursory glance at the table reveals that in many of the districts, mineral wealth is not leading to better development outcomes for children. In the districts more dependent on mining, the majority have a lower than national average literacy rate; more than 10 percent of children between 0-14 years are still out of school with a high rate of child labour. In a national study on under five mortality rates in India, these districts have also ranked close to the bottom (see: Dantewada, Chhattisgarh; Panna, Madhya Pradesh; Koraput and Rayagada, Orissa). In contrast, **the districts which have more diversified economies and are less dependent on mining can be seen to have better development outcomes for children across the board,** for example, Cuddalore (Tamil Nadu) and Pune (Maharashtra).

Who is affected by mining?

Mining areas tend to be occupied by the poorest and most marginalised sections of society. Indeed, **it is a twisted irony that the poorest people live on the lands richest with natural resources.** This is because a vast majority of mining in the country is taking place in tribal areas. ***Adivasi* children lose their constitutional rights under the Fifth Schedule over their lands and forests when their families are displaced from their lands.**

Despite the passing of the Samatha Judgement in 1997, which is intended to protect the rights of tribal people to their lands, violations continue and over 10 million *adivasis* have lost their land in India. Across the country, 77 districts, or parts of districts, have been identified as Fifth Schedule Areas.[25] The Fifth Schedule covers tribal areas in ten states in India, and it guarantees prevention of transfers in the form of mining leases to private companies. However, violations of this constitutional safeguard are taking place by transfer of lands in the Scheduled Areas to persons other than the Scheduled Tribes, for which control the State is instrumental. It has allowed transfer of land initially to public sector mining companies in the 1970s, and more so, post the 1990s, to private and multinational mining companies, either as joint ventures with state bodies holding the majority ownership (as was done with Rio Tinto and Orissa Mineral Development Corporation) or as private joint ventures (as in Utkal Alumina Limited in Kasipur, Orissa) or directly to a private company (as in Vedanta/Sterlite in Lanjigarh, Orissa). By opening up more land for private mining companies, tribal communities are facing forcible displacement.

Samatha Judgement

The Fifth Schedule of the Constitution of India deals with the administration and control of Scheduled Areas and of Scheduled Tribes in these areas. It covers tribal areas in ten states of India: Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Sikkim. Essentially, the Schedule was intended to provide a guarantee to *adivasi* people and protect the lands in the Scheduled Areas from being transferred to persons other than tribal. However, violations of this Schedule in Andhra Pradesh, when lands in the scheduled area of Visakhapatnam district were transferred to Birla Periclase and 17 other mining companies, led the NGO Samatha to initiate a court case in the Supreme Court against the state government for leasing out tribal lands to private mining companies. This led to the historic Samatha Judgement in July 1997, which rendered all leases to mining companies in Scheduled Areas null and void and prohibited the future lease of lands in these areas to non-tribals.

A very conservative estimate indicates that in the last 50 years, approximately **20.13 million people have been displaced in the country owing to big projects, such as mines and dams. Of these, at least 40 per cent are indigenous tribal people.** Only one-fourth of these people have been resettled.[26] Around 47.9 per cent of the population in the

25. Samata, *Fifth Schedule Areas,* http://www.mmpindia.org/Fifth_Schedule.htm, uploaded: 11 December 2009.
26. Shanti Sawaiyan, *Forcible Displacement and Land Alienation is Unjust: Most of the Forcibly Displaced in Jharkhand are Adivasis,* A paper for the III International Women and Mining Conference, 2004.

Table 1.3: Key indicators in mining districts

District / State	Child population* (0-14 years)	SC % to total * population	ST % to total * population	Literacy rate*	% children 6-14 years # out of school	Number of child labour* (0-14 years)	NCLP district+	Under 5 mortality rate ^ (ranking out of 593 districts)	Backward district~
Adilabad, Andhra Pradesh	902,720	18.54	16.74	52.68	8.1	48,974	Yes	122	Yes
Bastar, Chhattisgarh	496,762	2.96	66.31	43.91	6.0	49,289	No	496	Yes
Dantewada, Chhattisgarh	283,002	3.36	78.52	30.17	N/A	30,121	Yes	578	Yes
Raigarh, Chhattisgarh	430,372	14.20	35.58	70.17	3.2	14,599	Yes	443	Yes
Sarguja, Chhattisgarh	763,783	4.81	54.60	54.79	7.3	55,788	Yes	393	Yes
Hazaribagh, Jharkhand	937,835	15.02	11.78	57.74	1.5	26,079	Yes	193	Yes
East Singhbhum, Jharkhand	644,316	4.75	27.85	68.79	4.6	14,781	No	189	Yes
West Singhbhum, Jharkhand	811,610	4.88	53.36	50.17	N/A	45,663	Yes	362	Yes
Bellary, Karnataka	749,227	18.46	17.99	57.40	14.1	66,897	Yes	380	No
Gulbarga, Karnataka	1,240,869	22.92	4.92	50.01	13.6	98,912	Yes	224	Yes
Kolar, Karnataka	803,954	26.49	8.11	62.84	0.7	44,354	No	117	No
Panna, Madhya Pradesh	349,322	20.00	15.39	61.36	1.5	13,113	No	587	Yes
Chandrapur, Maharashtra	646,241	14.34	18.12	73.17	1.6	10,259	No	311	Yes
Nashik, Maharashtra	1,737,036	8.62	50.19	64.86	1.9	55,927	Yes	87	No
Pune, Maharashtra	3,769,128	10.53	3.62	80.45	0.9	34,768	Yes	4	No
Yavatmal, Maharashtra	832,599	10.28	19.26	73.62	3.7	20,732	Yes	220	Yes
West Khasi Hills, Meghalaya	140,566	0.01	98.02	65.15	0.0	6,882	No	419	No
Keonjhar, Orissa	548,357	11.62	44.50	59.24	7.7	13,171	No	455	Yes
Koraput, Orissa	423,358	13.04	49.62	35.72	17.0	23,903	Yes	540	Yes
Rayagada, Orissa	303,760	13.92	55.76	36.16	17.7	16,893	Yes	565	Yes
Sundargarh, Orissa	611,228	8.62	50.19	64.86	4.8	19,537	No	372	Yes
Barmer, Rajasthan	847,335	15.73	6.04	58.99	11.4	58,320	Yes	407	No
Jaisalmer, Rajasthan	216,264	14.58	5.48	50.97	15.0	12,869	No	332	No
Jodhpur, Rajasthan	1,170,568	15.81	2.76	56.67	12.1	51,206	Yes	249	No
Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu	655,105	27.76	0.52	71.01	0.8	11,961	No	104	Yes
Sonbhadra, Uttar Pradesh	618,672	41.92	0.03	49.22	6.5	16,418	Yes	460	Yes
India	363,610,812	16.2	8.2	61	-	12,666,377	-	-	-

Source: * Census 2001; # Pratham's ASER 2008; + http://labour.nic.in/cwl/ChildLabour.htm;
^ Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh; ~ Planning Commission

area affected by the Vedanta project in Orissa are from Scheduled Tribes.[27]

Coal is considered one of the most polluting mining activities and has serious implications on climate change concerns. Yet India's agenda of coal expansion in the coming decade — to ensure that 70 per cent of its energy demands will be met from coal-based power — is bound to have serious long term impacts on a large population of children, especially Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe children, who live in the coal mining region of the central Indian belt, which consist of some of the most backward states like Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh and parts of the North East like Meghalaya.

Specific situation of tribal children

Even under usual circumstances, statistics show that tribal children in India still struggle to access basic services such as education and healthcare. According to the Ministry for Human Resource Development, 9.54 per cent of Scheduled Tribe children remain out of school.[28] Continued exclusion and discrimination within the education system have resulted in **dropout rates remaining the highest amongst Scheduled Tribe children as compared to all other social groups.** Over 70 per cent of Scheduled Tribe children dropped out in 2003-04 between Classes I to VIII.[29]

The majority of health indicators show far poorer results for children from Scheduled Tribe populations as compared to the national average. The most recent National Family Health Survey, published in 2007, revealed that **infant and child mortality rates remain very high amongst tribals.** Tribal children are also still less likely to receive immunisation.[30] The Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food, Jean Zielger, in his report based on his mission to India in August 2005, wrote that **most victims of starvation are women and children of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, with their deaths mainly due to discrimination in the food based schemes.** According to his report, this was because of discrimination in access to food and productive resources, evictions from lands, and a lack of implementation of food based schemes despite laws prohibiting discrimination and "untouchability."[31] Given that tribal children still face enormous challenges in terms of access to food, education and healthcare, displacement by mining projects increases their vulnerabilities further and renders their survival and development even more precarious. Displacement also has a serious psychological impact on children, who need a degree of security and stability in their upbringing.

One of the fundamental concerns with regard to displacement of *adivasi* communities for mining projects is **the loss of constitutional protection for their children.** The rehabilitation policy and the new tribal policy have been diluted from the earlier position of land-for-land as compensation, to a mere monetary compensation if there was no possibility of providing land. Further, the rehabilitation policy also specifies that no rehabilitation will be undertaken in the Scheduled Areas where less than 250 families are proposed to be affected. This, at one stroke, deprives the next generation of *adivasi* children of the land transfer regulations under the Fifth Schedule, whose families are alienated from their lands for mining projects. As these families either

The situation of tribal children in the mining areas of Jodhpur, Rajasthan, is a case in point. The residents of Bhat Basti had previously been nomadic, roaming around the countryside with their livestock. However, lack of available land for animal grazing, as a result of urbanisation and industrialisation, forced them to settle in one location almost 20 years ago, where all the adults and many of the children now work as daily wage labourers in the local stone quarries. None of the 200-odd children in the village attended school and all were illiterate. They lived in *kachha* housing, made of stones and covered with black tarpaulin sheets. There was no running water, electricity or sanitation available in the village. The children had received no vaccinations apart from polio and all are malnourished. The research team met one severely malnourished boy who was claimed to be two years old but looked like a baby of no more than nine months.

27. Tata AIG Risk Management Services Ltd, *Rapid environmental impact assessment report for bauxite mine proposed by Sterlite Industries Ltd near Lanjigarh,* Orissa, August 2002, p. 7 of the executive summary.
28. For a full overview on Scheduled Tribe children and education, see *Status of Children in India: 2008*, published by HAQ: Centre for Child Rights.
29. Ministry of Human Resource Development, *Chapter on Elementary Education (SSA and Girls Education) for the XI th Plan Working Group Report,* 2007, pp. 14.
30. For a full overview on Scheduled Tribe children and health, see *Status of Children in India: 2008,* published by HAQ: Centre for Child Rights.
31. *Paradox of Hunger amidst Plenty.* Report of the Special Rapporteur on Right to Food, Jean Ziegler, on his Mission to India (August 20-September 2, 2005. *Combat Law Volume* 5 Issue 3. June-July 2006.

migrate to plain areas or are converted to landless labourers even if they continue to live in the Scheduled Areas, they no longer enjoy the privilege of the Fifth Schedule as far as land is concerned. **This is a constitutional violation of the rights of the *adivasi* child.**[32]

Displacement

Mining areas are inhabited by people. Taking over land for mining means displacing them. These forced evictions, when land is taken over for extraction, or for setting up plants and factories, uproots and dislocates entire communities. Children are forced out of schools, lose access to healthcare and other basic services and are forced to live in alien places. Most often, there is little or no rehabilitation effort made by the government. This has a long-term impact on the displaced children.

Across the world, tribal (or indigenous) populations are being displaced for mining activities. Mining struggles in indigenous communities have been witnessed in numerous countries, from Canada to the Philippines, and from Uganda to Papua New Guinea and to the USA, which massacred native Indians,[33] first for the gold rush and later, for other minerals like coal and uranium. Mineral resources are often found in places inhabited by indigenous populations. Therefore, when mining activity begins, these communities are displaced from the hills and forests where they live. They then lose access not only to their homes and land, but also to their traditional livelihoods.[34] In most places, compensation has been wholly inadequate and tribal communities are forced into poverty. Their capacity for subsistence survival is often destroyed — tribal symbols of prosperity in subsistence are not recognised as anything that have worth or value. Mines and factories have reduced self-reliant, self-respecting tribal families to living like refugees in ill-planned rehabilitation colonies, while rendering many others homeless.[35]

The National Mineral Policy, 2008, recognises that "Mining operations often involve acquisition of land held by individuals including those belonging to the weaker sections."[36] It highlights the need for suitable Relief and Rehabilitation (R&R) packages and states that "Special care will be taken to protect the interest of host and indigenous (tribal) populations through developing models of stakeholder interest based on international best practice. Project affected persons will be protected through comprehensive relief and rehabilitation packages in line with the National Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy." However, several problems with respect to the R&R policy, such as under-estimation of project costs and losses, under-financing of R&R, non-consultation with affected communities and improper implementation of the promised rehabilitation, are some of the glaring failures on the part of the state with respect to mining projects. This is well reflected, for example, in the case study of the resettled camps of NALCO in Orissa.[37]

Despite the grand statements made in the National Mineral Policy, 2008, and the existence finally of a National Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy, thousands of people will continue to lose their land and end up in worse situations of poverty if the government continues to prioritise **profits from mining over the rights of communities** to live on their land. One recent example of this has been the struggle by the Dongria Kondh tribe in Orissa to prevent a British mining company, Vedanta, from displacing them. The groups have lived for many generations in this area and the Niyamgiri mountain is considered by them to be a sacred

Rajesh (name changed) is fifteen years old and comes from the village of Janiguda. He works in a roadside restaurant at Dumuriput of Damanjodi. His family lost all their land for the NALCO project, which converted his father, who did not get a job in the company, into an alcoholic. Having spent all the compensation money on liquor, the father left the family on the streets. Rajesh dropped out of school and had to come to Damanjodi town in search of work to support his family. He earns around Rs. 1,200 per month working in the hotel and sends home around Rs. 1,000 every month. He says, "Work in the hotel is difficult and there is no time for rest except after 12 in the night every day."

Source: Interview carried out in Damanjodi, Orissa, 3 February 2010.

32. Samatha, *A Study on the Status and Problems of Tribal Children in Andhra Pradesh,* 2007.
33. Carlos D. Da Rosa, James S. Lyon, Philip M. Hocker, Golden Dreams, Poisoned Streams, Published by Mineral Policy Center, August 1997.
34. Bhanumathi Kalluri, Ravi Rebbapragada, 2009, Displaced by Development - Confronting Marginalization and Gender Injustice - The Samatha Judgement - Upholding the Rights of Adivasi Women, Sage Publications
35. Vidhya Das, Human Rights, Inhuman Wrongs – Plight of Tribals in Orissa, Published in Economic and Political Weekly, 14 March 1998.
36. Government of India*, National Mineral Policy,* 2008.
37. See case study report on NALCO project-affected community in Koraput, Orissa.

site. However, Vedanta has established an alumina refinery on the top of the mountain, illegally encroaching forestlands without clearances from the Ministry of Environment and Forests, in this area rich with the mineral, bauxite. Although the company claims that the refinery will bring "significant employment and economic livelihood for the local people"[38] the reality is that local communities have lost their land and their most sacred place of worship and they are living in a state of corporate intimidation affecting the life of the children and youth who are innocent victims of what has been allowed to happen by the state. Similar is the situation of the *adivasis* in Kasipur who are caught in the midst of daily conflict because of the tensions created by the mining company. [39]

Neither the National Mineral Policy, 2008, nor the Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy mention children, and therefore fail to recognise or acknowledge the ways in which children are specifically impacted by displacement for mining. There are also serious protection issues arising from the displacement of children. Studies have shown that children who are displaced are more vulnerable to trafficking and other forms of exploitation.[40]

Some people have been displaced in mining areas multiple times, yet have received no compensation and critically no alternative livelihood provision. **The World Bank has made a distinction between "resettlement" and "rehabilitation".** Displaced people face impoverishment risks beyond merely the loss of property. Rehabilitation entails more than just compensation and relocation. It involves ensuring that people have income streams, livelihoods and social systems restored and that affected people and their children become better off as a result of the project.[41]

However, this has rarely been the case with mining-induced displacement in India. Members of the Dongria Kondh tribe explain how they have lost their self-sufficiency as a result of Vedanta's project in Orissa and now they are struggling to survive. One woman says she used to grow crops on 7 hectares of common land, but now she has lost this land and received no compensation: "The way we were living, we were self-sufficient, and we had lived like that for generations," she says. "We could have lived like that for many more generations too. Because of these people, we cannot. But we will still fight to continue the old ways."[42] The tribe fears that once mining starts, they will lose their livelihood completely. They say, "Once they start mining, the mountain will be bulldozed and the rivers will dry up and our livelihood will be lost. We will become fish out of water. We don't know how to adapt and survive and our way of living is not available in the cities. We will be extinct."[43]

Mining companies claim that they create jobs and raise the standard of living for the local population. However, experience shows that this is not the case. In most of the areas visited, **the mining company jobs were not going to local people, but instead staff were being brought in from outside.** In Jharkhand, with the Urimari coal-mining project, we found that none of the employees of the company were local tribal people. Instead, the local people work as casual labour, hired to carry out tasks such as loading and unloading trucks. Many of the mineworkers are women, children and youth from surrounding villages who have been displaced from their land.[44] In total, 14 villages with 95 per cent of the population coming from Scheduled Tribes; are reported to have been displaced by Central Coalfields Limited (CCL) for this project, and apart from monetary compensation, they have not received any other benefits. Although a school has been set up, this is not functional, and medical facilities are mainly provided to employees of the company and not to the local community.[45]

In Cuddalore district, Tamil Nadu, 3,316 families have been displaced for the Neyveli Lignite Corporation project. This has had a serious impact on the livelihoods of a number of families. People have lost agricultural land in the area and are now struggling to find work. Those who had land argue that the compensation they received is not enough. When they were displaced 20 years ago, they received only Rs.3,500 per acre of land. However, the impacts have hit the Scheduled Caste population worst in the area — they

38. Vedanta response to Survival International media statement, 20 August 2008, published in the Business and Human Rights Resource Centre website.
39. Samatha, *People's Struggle Against Utkal Alumina Plant in Kasipur,* 2002.
40. Se UNICEF, *Displaced Children,* http://www.unicef.org/emerg/index_displacedchildren.html, uploaded: 10 February 2010.
41. Theodore E. Downing, *Avoiding New Poverty: Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement,* April 2002, pp. 14.
42. The Guardian, Gethin Chamberlain, *Vedanta versus the villagers: the fight for the sacred mountain,* 12 October 2009.
43. Ibid.
44. Interviews carried out in mining-affected communities in Urimari coal mining area, Jharkhand, September 2009.
45. Ibid.

had no land to start with and worked as labourers on other people's land, so they received no compensation at all and now lack employment opportunities.[46]

Families in Mariyammnahalli, in Bellary district, Karnataka, have lost their agricultural land, and therefore their financial security. They have now become daily wage labourers working in mine sites. Many of these former farmers are now forced to send their children out to work as they can no longer afford to continue sending them to school.[47] As well as working in mining, these children are sent to work in other sectors, such as the garment industry. According to the Child Rights Trust in Hospet, there are many children working in the garment industry in the district, which is famous for its jeans.[48]

Impacts of displacement on education and health

Displacement causes a significant disruption to education and healthcare for children. Families may be forced to relocate to areas where infrastructure is poor or there is a lack of basic services. **Many displaced children rarely have the opportunity to return to school after moving locations.** Because their parents lose their livelihoods and end up as migrant daily wage labour, children of displaced families are often forced to work in order to contribute financially to their family's survival.[49] The education of girls, already a low priority in many communities, suffers further post displacement.[50] Many of the villages visited in Koraput and Rayagada districts in Orissa, where a large number of families have been displaced for mining projects, had no schools, not even at the primary level. Parents cannot afford to send their children away to boarding schools, so the children are unable to attend school and instead go out to work.

The health of communities is found to deteriorate following displacement. The already marginal health status of displaced people is worsened by the stress and trauma of moving, leading to mental health problems, and problems associated with communities gaining access to safe water and sanitation create new health problems.[51] Many displaced communities have problems accessing clean water. Residents of the displaced camps surrounding the NALCO project in Koraput, Orissa told researchers how water scarcity is one of the major challenges they now face. The mining company has allocated one bore well per at least 10 households in the camps in contrast to the 24-hour water supply provided to the officers of the company.[52]

Increasing amounts of agricultural land being turned over to mining is having a **particular impact in terms of food security in a number of mining areas.** Minerals tend to be located in rich fertile lands — and this agricultural land cannot be easily replaced. Although companies argue that mining operations lead to jobs and economic development, **this loss of agricultural and grazing land is also leading to increased hunger and malnutrition.**

In Koraput district of Orissa, 597 families have been displaced for the NALCO aluminium project. Much of the land that was lost to mining was agricultural and paddy land and the local population depended heavily on agricultural work for their survival.[53] With this loss of land, the population can no longer depend on agriculture for their livelihoods and occupation patterns have changed. People now work as manual labour for companies or for government schemes and struggle to find full time work. This has also had an impact on their diet – whereas before they would grow their own vegetables, now they cannot, and for many families it is too expensive to buy vegetables regularly from the local market.[54]

In Thumbli village, Barmer district, Rajasthan, numerous villagers explained how they used to grow their own vegetables, but now they have lost their agricultural land to lignite mines, vegetables no longer constitute a regular part of their diet as these are too expensive for them to buy in

46. Interviews in mining-affected communities in Cuddalore district, Tamil Nadu, August 2009.
47. Interviews with mineworkers, Mariyammnahalli, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
48. Interview with Child Rights Trust, Hospet, Karnataka, June 2009.
49. Bhanumathi Kalluri, Ravi Rebbapragada, 2009, *Displaced by Development – Confronting Marginalisation and Gender Injustice – The Samatha Judgement – Upholding the Rights of Adivasi Women,* Sage Publications.
50. Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Internal Displacement in India, November 2007, http://lib.ohchr.org/HRBodies/UPR/Documents/Session1/IN/IDMC_IND_UPR_S1_2008_InternalDiscplacementMonitoringCenter_uprsubmission.pdf; uploaded: 14 October 2009.
51. Theodore E. Downing, *Avoiding New Poverty: Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement,* April 2002, pp. 11.
52. Interviews in Damanjodi, Orissa, June 2009.
53. Interviews in mining-affected communities in Koraput district, Orissa, June 2009.
54. Ibid.

local markets.[55] This has a severe impact on the nutrition status of children. They reported an increase in levels of child malnutrition in their village. With the highest number of malnourished children in the world — almost 50 percent of India's children suffer from malnutrition — the loss of vegetables and other essential food groups from their diets is extremely worrying.

Amongst the population displaced by coal mining in Urimari, Jharkhand, child malnutrition rates are high. The *anganwadi* worker who was interviewed, explained that the majority of children she visits are malnourished. Other child health problems in the village include skin diseases, malaria and TB, but there is no medical facility there, hence a lot of dependence on superstitions.[56] Non-availability or inaccessibility to health facilities in their new location only further compounds the problem. The impacts fall disproportionately on children, who are more vulnerable to health problems and require access to health care and regular check ups.

In villages visited in Koraput district, child labour figures are extremely high. According to the Census 2001, 5.67 per cent of the child population (0-14 years) are working in the district.[57] However, the latest Annual Survey of Education (ASER) report, published by Pratham, found that 17 per cent of children in Koraput are out of school, showing that the district has one of the highest numbers of out of school children in the country.[58] There is a high incidence of child labour around the NALCO area, although there is no child labour within the company premises. Interviews carried out in seven villages in the area, with families who have been displaced by mining, revealed that a very large number of children are working in *dhabas*, tea stalls, *pan* stalls and as domestic labour.[59] People reported that school dropout rates had increased since they had been displaced, as children have to earn money for the family's survival. According to the Displaced Peoples' Union, between 100-200 children in the displaced peoples' camps of Amalabadi and Champapadar are working as casual labourers. As 131 families of the Displaced Peoples' camp are headed by widows, most of the children of these families are working as manual labour in mining and associated activities. Many of them were seen to be working in hotels, restaurants, paan stalls, and other small shops and it can be estimated that in total, around 500-1,000 children of the project affected areas are working as labourers in the local area. Many youth are also reported to have migrated to the cities of Chennai, Mumbai, Hyderabad and other cities for livelihood.[60] **The rehabilitation of the community displaced by NALCO, even after almost three decades, still remains incomplete.** There has been no impact assessment of the region undertaken during this period and no stock taking of the rehabilitation process, or review of the basic services provided. Particularly, there has been no assessment of the impact on children, even when a high incidence of child labour, school dropout rate and malnourishment are visibly evident.

Forced Migration

The nature of mining work means that migration becomes an essential survival strategy for people engaged in this sector. **Climatic factors, market fluctuations and changes in demand for minerals mean that mining locations change regularly.** With heavy monsoon rains affecting most parts of the country in the summer months, many mining and quarrying operations are discontinued or slow down during this time. Migrations tend to begin around October-November, with migrant families spending the next six to eight months at the sites before returning to their villages at the next monsoon.

Living conditions at informal mine sites – case study from Maharashtra

"We have been staying here for 10 years because it is the nearest place to the quarry sites. The houses are very small (four feet by six feet). If anyone wants to enter the house, they have to sit down and only then can they enter the house. We do not have any electricity and the water is provided by the quarry owner – every day one tanker comes for the community. Now and then we fall sick from drinking this water."

Source: Interview with residents at Moshi, Maharastra, September 2009.

55. Interviews in Thumbli village, Barmer district, Rajasthan, July 2009.
56. Interviews in mining-affected communities in Urimari coal mining area, Jharkhand, September 2009.
57. Census of India, 2001.
58. Pratham, *Annual Status of Education,* 2008.
59. Interviews in mining-affected communities in Koraput district, Orissa, June 2009.
60. Ibid.

Although there is no data to show the extent of migration for mining and quarrying work in India, **evidence suggests that migration in general is increasing,** and the number of children involved below 14 years may be close to nine million.[61] These children are torn away from their education and social networks. Estimates suggest that somewhere between half a million to 12 million migrant labourers work in small-scale mines in India.[62] Regular streams of new migrants leave the tribal belts of Bihar, Orissa, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and other states to seek work in the mines. Migrants comprise the most vulnerable sections of society, with the majority coming from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Mining contractors often prefer to hire migrant labour, as they are easier to control and less likely to organise. Migrant workers are not organised sufficiently to lobby and form a pressure group.[63] It also enables them to hire whole families, as they may just officially employ the adult members of the family, but the parents will bring the children along to work with them. This pattern of employment can be seen in unorganised mines and quarries across the country, from Rajasthan, to Maharashtra and Karnataka. Children interviewed in the stone quarries in Pune district, Maharashtra had come from Nepal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Orissa.[64]

These mining communities live an almost parallel existence, without access to services provided for the other villages in their area, such as schools, health services and ration cards. These people are not reached by the government services that they are entitled to, and are instead forced to survive without any state support. Many migrant workers do not possess Public Distribution System (PDS) ration cards and hence are forced to buy food grains and kerosene at higher market prices. Most lack any form of identification and thus find it difficult to access local services. They often face difficulty accessing education and healthcare services in the areas where they settle. In some sites in Maharashtra, the workers explained that even though they did own ration cards, the mine owner kept hold of the cards (perhaps with the intention of keeping them bonded and to stop them from leaving). A sixty-year-old woman informed the team that she finally got her ration card four months ago, but the Public Distribution System dealer had asked her to come after six months as her name was not yet entered in his records.[65] The mineworkers end up spending heavily on basic food supplies and their consumption is usually far below the basic daily intake required. The diet of mineworkers' children consists of barely two meals of *rotis* (bread), chillies and rarely any vegetables or *dal* (lentils). Hence, most of the children are malnourished and anaemic.

Right to Housing as a human right

The requisite imperative of housing for personal security, privacy, health, safety, protection from the elements and many other attributes of a shared humanity, has led the international community to recognise adequate housing as a basic and fundamental human right.

While in the international context the right to adequate housing as enshrined in Article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 11(1) of the ICESCR provides that:

"Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well being of himself [or herself] and his [or her] family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services."

and that,

"The States parties will take appropriate steps to ensure the realisation of this right, recognising to this effect the essential importance of international cooperation based on free consent."

Further, The CRC obliges state parties to provide, in cases of need, material assistance and support programmes to families and children, particularly with regard to housing (Article27(3)).

61. Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity, *Distress Seasonal Migration and its Impact on Children's Education,* May 2008, p. 1, 2.
62. Sudhershan Rao Sarde, Regional Representative, IMF-SARO, *Migration in India: Trade Union Perspective in the Context of Neo-Liberal Globalisation,* p. 2.
63. Ibid, p. 5.
64. Interviews with child mineworkers, Pune district, Maharashtra, September 2009.
65. Interviews in Moshi stone quarrying area, Maharashtra, September 2009.

Migrants live in the worst housing conditions, often without electricity, water or even basic sanitation. The most shocking living conditions seen in mining areas in the course of this study were of migrant communities, who almost always live in makeshift accommodation close to the mining sites, or even at the sites. Houses are temporary dwellings made of plastic sheets and quarry stones packed as walls. Up to 10 family members may share a house of 8x10 feet space, or sometimes only 4x6 feet.

They also face the additional problems of resentment and hostility from local communities, who see them as outsiders and often refuse to allow them to integrate. They may live for years around the mines, but not be accepted or recognised as part of the local community. In Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, we met with a Scheduled Tribe community who had been forced to relocate to the area in order to be close to the mining work. Despite living on this land for almost 20 years now, they were still engaged in a battle with two local villages that wanted them to be moved off this land and had not been given *pattas* (title deeds) for their properties.[66]

Across the country, children of the migrant mineworkers were found scattered all over the mine sites around the shacks looking dirty and dusty. The mine site is their home, playground and sleeping area. In all the nine sites visited in Maharashtra, we saw children looking unhealthy, suffering from coughs, colds, leaking noses, fevers and skin infections. The women said that diarrhea, jaundice and malaria are the most common child health problems as the water is contaminated and the cess–pools in the mine pits are a breeding ground for mosquitoes. There is no sanitation facility, so most of the infants and younger children are seen defecating around the living quarters. For the women, sanitation is a huge problem as there are no toilets and no area for bathing.[67]

Education for children of seasonal migrants has not been on the radar screen of the government or development agencies, despite the fact that it is a growing phenomenon in almost all arid parts of India. Children accompany their parents when they migrate, and as a result dropout rates increase. The seasonal migration cycle — based around the monsoon period — overlaps with six to seven months of the school calendar. This means that children who do enroll can only attend school from June until October, after which they usually drop out.[68] These drop out rates are often not captured by official education data, as the children get enrolled in schools for the first few months of the school session, but then drop out for the remaining months of the academic year to accompany their parents to migration sites. Over time, the learning deficit gradually causes them to drop out of school completely and work full-time.[69]

In Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, residents explained that school dropout rates are high because of migration. Large numbers of the community are engaged in diamond mining work. However, this diamond work is seasonal and only available six to eight months of the year, so during the other months they migrate elsewhere in the country for work. Locals complained that government schemes aimed at enabling them to remain in the district all through the year, such as the National Rural Employment Guarantee scheme (NREGA), were not being implemented effectively and thus lack of available work was driving them to migrate.[70] Instead, under the NREGA scheme people were only getting maybe 10 or 20 days work in a year, and there was a lot of corruption involved in determining who managed to get job cards.[71]

Similar problems were reported in the stone quarrying districts visited in Maharashtra. In 2004-05, there were

13 year old Santosh (name changed) works in a stone quarry in Moshi village of Pune district. He had to migrate with his family from Nashik and has been working in the quarry for more than a year now. He works from early morning till late in the evening breaking stones and loading them onto trucks. He has four siblings, one of whom is physically handicapped. He earns Rs. 70-90 per day, which is desperately needed to keep the family from starvation. When interviewed he said, "I always wanted to study but our family is not in a position to send us to school and now it is too late for me to dream about it. I want to work hard so that I can use my wages to send my younger brothers to school."

Source: Interview in Moshi quarry, Pune, Maharashtra, 16th September 2009.

66. Interviews with mineworkers, Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, July 2009.
67. Visits to mine sites, Maharashtra, September 2009.
68. Ibid, p. 2.
69. Ibid, p. 34.
70. Interviews with mining-affected communities, Panna, Madhya Pradesh, August 2009.
71. Ibid.

2,055 children enrolled in Santulan's *Panshan Shala* – schools in the mining areas. However, in the same year, 946 of these children migrated to other places with their family.[72] In Bellary district, Karnataka, landless families are also migrating to different parts of the area for work, which is resulting in children dropping out of school and discontinuing their education.[73]

A study carried out by CHILDLINE, in the limestone mines of Junagarh district, Gujarat, found that 78 per cent of the out of school children who were interviewed cited migration as the major reason for dropping out. Most of the children were registered in their local village school, but could not go to the school near the mines partially due to lack of transport, but also because they could not get admission in the local school without valid documentation.[74]

As well as the migration cycle and consequent lack of consistency, language barriers often prevent migrant children from accessing education and healthcare in India. When migrants cross a state border, they are often unable to speak the local language — at least up to a sufficient level to study in it. Currently, only a few states, such as Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, have initiated bilingual or multilingual education strategies.

Impacts on Health

Health impacts are manifested in the lives of mining children in different ways. They are affected because their parents working in the mines fall ill or because they themselves fall ill working in mines or because they live in areas where the entire environment has been affected by mining.

Children carry the burden of parents' illness

Children suffer because they are children of miners. According to the ILO, mining is one of the three most dangerous occupations to work in along with agriculture and construction.[75] Mining has long been known to cause serious health problems in its workers. Until the early 20th century, coal miners in the United Kingdom and the United States brought canaries into the mines as an early–warning signal for toxic gases such as methane and carbon monoxide. The birds, being more sensitive to these toxic gases, would become sick *before* the miners, thus giving them a chance to escape or to put on protective respirators. Although this practice has been discontinued, mine workers still face serious occupational health risks. There have been numerous media and NGO reports documenting how exposure to harmful dusts, gases and fumes causes respiratory diseases, and can develop into tuberculosis (TB), silicosis, pulmonary fibrosis, asbestosis and emphysema after some years of exposure.[76]

The specific impacts of mining are diverse, depending on the nature of the minerals extracted and the extent of exploitation. Silica stone is known to cause silicosis in workers exposed to this dust. This fatal lung disease is difficult to diagnose; it is frequently misdiagnosed as TB and is incurable. The symptoms are similar to TB and mine workers often get TB treatment instead, which fails to combat this disease. In Shankargarh block of Allahabad district, Uttar Pradesh, around one in three of the 25,000 quarry workers are suffering from what they call "Shankargarh-wali TB" — many of these are probably actually suffering from silicosis, though they have not heard of the disease. The average life span for a mine worker in the area is 40 years.[77] The Haryana-based group Prasar has campaigned extensively on silicosis amongst quarry workers in the state. They estimate that at one site, Lal Kuan in Uttaranchal, 3,000 quarry workers have already died of "TB." Although the national average risk of TB infection is 1.5 per cent, in this area every second person is affected. Surveys have revealed that a number of these TB cases are indeed silicosis.[78]

Hundreds of migrant *adivasi* workers from Madhya Pradesh have reportedly died of silicosis whilst working in the quartz crushing factories in central Gujarat.[79] Studies by the National Institute of Occupational Health and the Gujarat

72. Interview with Santulan, Maharashtra, September 2009.
73. Interviews with mineworkers, Bellary, Karnataka, June 2009.
74. CHILDLINE India Foundation, *Living with Stones – Children of the mines,* part of the Children at Risk report series, 2008.
75. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labor in Mining and Quarrying: Background Document,* 12 June 2005.
76. MLPC, *Broken Hard,* http://www.indianet.nl/steengroeven/factsheet/Brokenhard.pdf, uploaded: 11 February 2010.
77. *Frontline, Annie* Zaidi, *Silent Victims of Silicosis,* 4 November 2005, http://www.flonnet.com/fl2222/stories/20051104002009200.htm, uploaded: 19 October 2009.
78. Ibid.
79. *Economic and Political Weekly,* Amita Baviskar, *Contract Killings: Silicosis among Adivasi Migrant Workers,* 21 June 2008.

Pollution Control Board have revealed that air quality is dangerously above what is safe for workers. Yet despite stringent regulations specified for quartz crushing units by the Central Pollution Control Board, there is no system of monitoring in place and no punitive action has been taken against factory owners.[80] A survey of 21 villages in Jhabua district, Madhya Pradesh, found that 489 people from 281 households were exposed to silica dust. Of these, 158 have died and 266 are ill with silicosis — meaning that 86 per cent are either dead or incurably ill following exposure. Ninety four per cent of the deaths have occurred within three years of exposure to silica dust.[81]

Mining reduces life expectancy. Most mineworkers have a tragically short life span averaging between 45 to 55 years. Children working in the industry from an early age are likely to burn themselves out by the time they reach 30 or 35 years.[82] Exposure to numerous health hazards at such a young age greatly lowers their longevity and quality of life. This increased morbidity among adults also forces their children to take over the economic burden of the family. In Rajasthan, many workers interviewed explained that after the age of 40, they were forced to take frequent absences from work due to TB and silicosis and life expectancy amongst mine-workers is reported to be lower than average in these areas.[83]

Again and again, communities across the country explained how children were forced to drop out of school in order to contribute financially to their family after their mineworker parents had become sick with illnesses such as TB and silicosis. In a village in Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, a man explained how two of his sons (who are both below 18 years) work in the stone quarries and diamond mines because he became ill with malaria and TB and can no longer work. The boys have to work in order for the family to survive and to enable them to purchase medicines.[84]

Children living in mining sites are victims of both the poor socio-economic status of their parents and families, as well as the difficult environment in which they live. A recent study has revealed that over 50 per cent of children working at a stone quarry in Moshi, Maharashtra have reduced lung function and all the symptoms of asthma. The study was carried out by a local paediatric doctor with 70 children, over a period of two and a half years. The doctor found that children who had been exposed to the dust for over five years were most affected, and most of these children had been exposed to the dust right from their birth.[85]

Private doctors taking advantage of mineworkers

In Wagholi, Maharashtra, there are more than 60 private doctors running clinics in the stone quarrying area. Often they misguide their patients by informing them that they need saline drips or injections in order to earn money from them. These daily wage labourers are desperate — if they do not work, then they don't get paid. Therefore they believe the doctors who can give them medicines to help them to get through that day, rather than provide real treatment for their ailments.

Source: Interview with Santulan's doctor, Maharashtra, September 2009.

The doctor working with Santulan in the Wagholi stone quarries in Maharashtra said that over 40 per cent of children in this area are suffering from anaemia, as their low economic status does not allow families to access adequate nutrition.[86] He treats more than 200 stone quarry workers every month for lung problems and bronchial diseases that are very common among stone quarry workers. The first stage of lung diseases is usually bronchitis, then it turns into asthmatic bronchitis and finally into acute asthma. These diseases are caused by dust inhalation.[87]

A study carried out by the NGO Gravis in Rajasthan found that there were two major factors that adversely affected the health of child miners: malnutrition and working in extremely hazardous conditions.[88] Interviews carried out by MLPC in the Salumber Primary Health Centre in Morilla village, Udaipur district, revealed the same.[89] **"We do not know what**

80. *Economic and Political Weekly,* Amita Baviskar, *Contract Killings: Silicosis among Adivasi Migrant Workers,* 21 June 2008.
81. Ibid.
82. Gravis, *Tales of Woe: A Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Jodhpur and Makrana,* March 2004, p. 12.
83. Interviews with mining-affected communities, Rajasthan, July 2009.
84. Interview with former mineworker, Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, September 2009.
85. *The Times of India, 50 per cent children at Moshi quarry have asthma,* 18 November 2009, http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/pune/50-children-at-Moshi-quarry-have-asthma/articleshow/5241904.cms.
86. Ibid.
87. Interview with Santulan doctor, Wagholi, Maharasthra, September 2009.
88. Gravis, *Tales of Woe: A Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Jodhpur and Makrana,* March 2004, p. 20.
89. MLPC interview with Salumber PHC, Morilla village, Udaipur district, October 2009.

we will eat tomorrow," said a woman mine worker from the Bhuri Beri mine who was interviewed during the course of this study. In several villages, women said their children had never been weighed or measured. Very few of the children interviewed ate vegetables regularly, and none of them had fruit or dairy products. To be denied a balanced diet at such a critical age leads to chronic malnutrition and restricts their growth and full mental development, as well as making them highly susceptible to developing serious health problems in the future.[90]

According to people living in the iron ore mining communities of Bellary, Karnataka, both adults and children are suffering from breathing problems caused by exposure to the red dust. The most common diseases that people reported in the area are asthma and TB.[91] Similar stories were heard from mine communities across the country.

Injuries and death due to accidents in mines

Mine and quarry workers across the world are particularly vulnerable to accidents. Although there have been no comprehensive studies to analyse the rate and incidence of accidents in the mining sector in India, there is no doubt that accidents in informal mines and quarries are common. Workers from the eight states interviewed in the course of the study reported that they often became injured at work and incidences of fatalities are alarmingly common.

One PHC in Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, reported that they treat at least 20 mine workers every day who have come in with injuries, mostly caused from blasting work.[92] Every mine worker we spoke to in Rajasthan said that they had witnessed accidents at their place of work. In Dhirampuri mining area, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, we were told that seven to eight people die in mining accidents there every year. A tribal man working in this area explained how an iron rod fell down on his chest and almost killed him. As the contractors provide no help in the event of an accident, he was taken to hospital by his brother who had been working alongside him. He spent around Rs.7,000 on medical treatment and was not able to work for a long period. As the workers are casual day labourers with no employment rights, the contractors take no responsibility for deaths or injuries caused in the workplace. In the event of death, families rarely receive compensation and injured persons are forced to take unpaid time off work and cover their own medical costs.

In Bellary district, Karnataka, the women mine workers interviewed said they had also witnessed accidents in the iron ore mines. One woman had lost her newborn baby in an accident at the site, whilst another had seen a 20-year-old pregnant woman crushed to death by rocks.[93]

At the age of 12, Yellappa Chaugule was left orphaned when his parents lost their lives in a stone quarry accident. He was sent to work in a quarry by his aunt to earn for his survival. However, five years back he was rescued from the quarry and is now attending a Santulan-run school.

Source: Dagad Phool, Santulan Pashan Shala, 1997 – 2007

"My name is Mohit (name changed). My age is around 16-17 years, I am not sure. I am from the village of Salarapentha. After my family lost our land for the mining company, my father became sick with tuberculosis after working for some time in the mining company, and he died. The company initially promised all the affected that jobs will be provided to all families, but so far no villager got a job. I am the highest qualified person from my village as I failed in matriculation. I work in the mines as a daily wage worker and earn Rs. 60 per day. Sometimes I earn Rs. 1,800 per month when there is full time work, but most often, work is irregular. We do not have access to drinking water, medical facilities or housing from the company. I am married and I have a lot of tension to make my family survive. So I take *mahua* (a type of alcohol) sometimes to beat the stress. My mother is also a victim of tuberculosis and it is very difficult to handle the expenditure on medical costs and also buy food. I was very interested in going to college but I have to support my family."

Source: Interview carried out in Keonjhar district, Orissa, 16 February 2010

90. *Gravis, Tales of Woe: A Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Jodhpur and Makrana,* March 2004, p. 20.
91. Interviews with mineworkers, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
92. Interview with nurse, Fidusar Chopar Primary Healthcare Centre, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, July 2009.
93. Interviews with mineworkers, Bellary district, Karnataka, August 2009.

Accidents from blasting activities are common in stone quarries across India. In November 2009, a newspaper reported how five people were killed and six injured in a stone quarry blast in a "freak explosion" triggered by a lightning flash in a stone quarry at Mathur village, 15 km from Chengalpattu, in Tamil Nadu.[94] A local police officer explained how similar accidents have occurred in at least two other quarries in the area. This shows how adequate safety mechanisms have not been put in place to protect people working in these quarries. **Children are affected when the adults in the family die or are injured in mining accidents.**

Because their bodies are growing and developing, children working in mining are at even greater risk of being injured or falling ill than adult workers. **Ill health problems may not become apparent until the child worker is an adult.**[95] Forced to carry out work heavier than their bodies are designed to cope with, children may suffer from severe back pain, spinal injuries and other musculo-skeletal disorders. Ill health problems may not become apparent until the child worker is an adult. A study carried out amongst children working in mines in Nepal showed that the frequency of injury there is very high, with 59 per cent of these child workers explaining that they get injured very frequently, frequently or occasionally.[96] Children are also forced to work under direct sunshine and are exposed to high temperatures, particularly in India where the mining and quarrying "boom" season takes place just before the monsoon, when temperatures reach over 40 degrees celsius in many parts of the country.

The CHILDLINE study of the limestone mines of Junagarh district, Gujarat, found that a large number of children working in these mines were suffering from occupational health problems, such as frequent coughs and colds as well as skin diseases. However, a lack of awareness in the community about the health hazards of mining meant that people were attributing these problems to the climate, or not knowing what was causing them to fall sick. They were not relating it to the work they were carrying out.[97]

Of course, **because the employment of children in mining is banned, there are no records to show the number of children injured each year in mining accidents in India.** However, anecdotal evidence from the mining areas suggests that accidents and injuries are common. According to a register kept by Santulan in Maharashtra, they had records of 31 cases of major mining accidents, which had taken place between 2004-07 in the Wagholi mining area, of which three cases were children. However, this data is incomplete and therefore cannot be taken as an accurate reflection of the situation of mine accidents, as records are not being maintained properly either by the mine workers, mine owners or by local organisations. Most of the time, the mine owners provide first aid and primary treatment but no long term treatment or compensation, however serious the injury. In many cases, workers have been made permanently disabled and could not continue work, which pushes the burden of family survival on the children. A women's group in Moshi, Maharashtra told the researchers that a 15-year-old boy had recently been killed in an accident whilst working in a stone quarry nearby.[98] The CHILDLINE study in Gujarat found that 30 per cent of the children interviewed had experienced accidents whilst working in the mines, mostly from breaking stones and blasting.[99]

Health impacts because of living near mines

Living close to the mining sites brings its own set of health problems. The most well documented is the impact of uranium mining, with the radiation known to cause serious illnesses and diseases. Although the government insists that there is no threat of radiation to local people or health hazards from the uranium mining, local residents tell a different story in Jaduguda, Jharkhand. The radioactivity associated with uranium and nuclear waste dumped in this area has been a cause of major health hazards, and severe deformities have been observed among the children of the area.[100] Women living in close proximity to these uranium mines in Jaduguda, where radiation levels have been scientifically proven to be above the permissive limits, have experienced a number of reproductive health problems with high rates of miscarriages and children being born

94. Express Buzz, Dennis Selvan, *Five killed in stone quarry blast,* 20 November 2009, http://www.expressbuzz.com/edition/story.aspx?Title=Five+killed+in+stone+quarry+blast&artid=8%7CXU1eGNYq8=.
95. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labor in Mining and Quarrying: Background Document,* 12 June 2005.
96. Ibid.
97. CHILDLINE India Foundation, *Living with Stones – Children of the mines,* part of the Children at Risk report series, 2008.
98. Interviews carried out in Moshi, Maharashtra, September 2009.
99. CHILDLINE India Foundation, *Living with Stones – Children of the mines,* part of the Children at Risk report series, 2008.
100. Ranjan K. Panda, *Undermining Development,* 2007, http://www.skillshare.org/skillshare_india_underminingdevelopment.html, uploaded: 20 October 2009.

GURIA is a dark-eyed little girl, who lies on a rope bed in the shade of her house, waiting for her daddy to come home. She grins as she sees him, and those dark eyes light up. Her father returns his daughter's smile as he picks her up in his arms. But his eyes are filled with tears. Guria can't speak. Nor can she walk. She can't feed herself. Her hands — if you can call them hands — are bent and quiver. Her legs are useless. But her eyes reach out. Guria is seven years old.

A stone's throw from her house, another girl lies on another bed made of rope. She is 23. She is like Guria, save for the fact she also seems to be in pain. She gasps for breath; her look is anguished. She is fully dressed in her outdoor clothes, but she never goes anywhere, never has been anywhere. For 23 years this has been her life.

The parents of these girls aren't sure what's caused their daughters' plight. There are around 50 other children in the village of Jaduguda in a similar condition. ....

But the critics of the mine say it is the children who survive, for however long, who are the most damning evidence of the damage being done — children with skeletal distortions, partially formed skulls, swollen heads, missing eyes and ears, fused fingers, blood disorders, and brain damage.

Source: Mark Whitekar, Jaduguda's hapless children, The Hindu, May 06, 2006

with physical and mental deformities.[101] There are reports of at least 50 severely deformed children living in Jaduguda. Many of these children can neither speak nor walk and their parents remain uncertain about what has caused these problems.[102] The Uranium Corporation of India Limited (UCIL) insists it is not to blame and has defended its health and safety record in court. However, studies have found that congenital deformities in the area are far higher than the national average, and symptoms synonymous with health problems caused by radioactive waste.[103]

Health workers in the cities of Punjab like Bathinda and Faridkot have also observed a sharp increase in the number of children born with birth defects — physical and mental deformities and cancers among children. Scientific tests carried out in 22 villages in the district found that uranium has contaminated milk, wheat, pulses and water.[104] This groundwater contamination could have been caused by granite found in Tusham hills in Bhiwani, Haryana, as granite contains radioactive metals like uranium. Tests also revealed that the children had massive levels of uranium in their bodies — in one case more than 60 times the maximum safe limit — which they believe to be caused by the power stations located close by.[105]

In Bellary district, Karnataka, the local population complained of breathing problems caused by dust pollution from the iron ore mines. Both adults and children also said they suffered hearing problems from the noisy blasting work.[106]

In Sundergarh district of Orissa, where limestone and dolomite quarrying are taking place, local communities complained of numerous health problems. According to the medical officer of the Community Health Centre (CHC) in Birmitrapur, occupational health problems are significantly higher in the area and he reported that people suffered from respiratory illnesses, malaria, tuberculosis (TB), filaria and other water borne diseases mainly due to mining activities. He also stated that there is a severe shortage of medicines in the PHC due to the high rate of illnesses, but the hospital does not get any help from the mining companies even as a social welfare cause.[107] Reported cases of TB in the area have increased from 228 in 2006, to 433 in 2009.[108]

In Raigarh district, Chhattisgarh, the home of coal, iron ore, dolomite and limestone mining, the most common illnesses reported amongst the children were malaria, diarrhea, pneumonia, skin ailments, bronchitis, gastroenteritis,

101. mines, minerals and PEOPLE, *Impacts of Mining on Women's Health in India,* 15 April 2003.
102. BBC News, Mark Whitaker, *Living next to India's uranium mine,* 4 May 2006.
103. India Environment Portal, Aparna Pallavi, *Uranium mine waste imperils villages in Jaduguda,* 14 March 2008.
104. India Environment Portal, Savvy Soumya Misha, *Uranium in food, water in Bathinda,* 30 April 2009.
105. *The Observer, India's generation of children crippled by uranium waste,* Gethin Chamberlain, 30 August 2009.
106. Interviews with mining-affected communities, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
107. Interviews with health officials, Sundergarh district, Orissa, November 2009.
108. Data provided by the CHC, Birmitrapur, Sundergarh, Orissa, November 2009.

abdominal pains, arthritis, jaundice and other respiratory ailments. Hydrocele is also reported to have increased in the last five years.[109] Health officials working at the health centre in Korked, Raigarh, admitted that there are far more patients approaching the centre now than before, and this is due to health problems created by mining.[110]

There are also health problems that are found in mining areas that may not have any direct link with the mining process, but is related to the migration that takes place as a result of mining. Amongst these are reports of a high level of sexually transmitted diseases, in particular HIV and AIDS in mining communities across the world. HIV is particularly prevalent in migrant workforces, such as mining labour, and the risks workers take in the mines on a daily basis means that unprotected sex is viewed as a minor hazard.[111]

With communities becoming economically vulnerable, children and women are found to become particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation and trafficking, and hence also sexually transmitted diseases and HIV and AIDS. In a recent survey carried out by the Jharkhand AIDS Control Society, findings reveal that mine workers are especially prone to AIDS. This is attributed to the low literacy rate and poor health facilities in these mining areas.[112] In Amalabadi village, in Koraput district, Orissa, in a community that was displaced for mining activities, residents reported an increase in the spread of HIV and AIDS. They explained that they were particularly vulnerable because of their status as migrant workers and the prevalence of prostitution. There are between 100-200 HIV positive people in the village, which is considered the highest infection rate in the district.[113]

Loss of Access to water

Mining impacts upon access to clean water because it is an extremely water-intensive activity, and in several parts of India there have already been serious concerns relating to water shortages and the mining industry over-utilising its fair share. Mining companies require water for both the extraction and processing of minerals. The mining operations, refineries and smelters all require large quantities of water. The resources for this are the dams that were originally built to provide water and irrigation for the local populations living there. Now, mining companies are diverting it for their own use.[114]

What is worse, not only have the mining operations taken away access to water, in many places, local communities are at the mercy of the mining companies for their water requirements. In the Urimari mining area in Jharkhand, some of the relocated villages are entirely dependent on the company to provide drinking water, as the water sources in this area are too contaminated for consumption. The water trucks usually come around midnight, so women are forced to wait around for hours at night for water to arrive.[115]

Some of the villages like Milupara that are close to the mine sites suffer from both water and air pollution. The villagers observed that water contamination is affecting reproductive health as children are observed to be born either weak or with some abnormalities.[116] Health officials at the health centre in Korked, Raigarh, reported that fungal infections and hepatitis are on the rise, mainly due to infections from polluted water.[117]

In Orissa and Andhra Pradesh, most of the bauxite is located on hilltops and the water supplies in these areas are just below the deposits. This is bound to affect the health of children living in and around the mining sites. A similar story can be seen in Goa, in the iron-ore mining areas. Despite its vast network of rivers and lakes, water is becoming increasingly scarce in the state. Mining involves pumping out ground water as mine pits get filled from the aquifers below, thereby depleting the entire groundwater in the region, as was witnessed in Shirgao village of Bicholim, in North Goa. The villages around this mine have been left completely without water both for irrigation and drinking, and farmers complain that agriculture is seriously affected by this disturbance to the water table.[118]

109. Interviews with mining-affected communities, Raigarh district, Chhattisgarh, November 2009.
110. Interviews with health officials, Korked, Raigarh, Chhattisgarh, November 2010.
111. Stablum, A., Reuters, *Is HIV a timebomb under the mining industry?*, 18 July 2007.
112. Saboo, S., *Telegraph India, Mineworkers 'prone' to AIDS,* 29 July 2009.
113. Interviews in Amalabadi village, Koraput district, Orissa, June 2009.
114. Presentation by Ravi Rebbapragada, Samata, New Delhi, August 2008.
115. Interviews in mining-affected communities in Urimari coal mining area, Jharkhand, September 2009.
116. Ibid.
117. Interviews out with health officials, Korked, Raigarh, Chhattisgarh, November 2010.
118. E. Bild, CorpWatch, *Goa Cursed By Its Mineral Wealth,* April 2009.

Serious health problems have already been documented in some areas. The impacts of polluted and scarce water are most severe on children, who suffer from living in unhygienic conditions and from inadequate water consumption. For example, around the chromite mines in Orissa, a study revealed that chromium present in the water is causing irritation of the respiratory tract, nasal septum ulcers and pneumonia. Children with sores all over their body are also described as a common sight.[119] In the mica mining areas of Andhra Pradesh, people as young as 20 are suffering from arthritis. And water contamination from the mica mines has given rise to several health hazards such as nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea.[120]

In Tamil Nadu, communities living close to the lignite mines in Cuddalore district explained how earlier, they had no problems with their water supply. But now the lignite mining has gone deeper and deeper, the water supply has been affected and farmers are not getting enough water for their agricultural land. The flow of water has also changed as this has been diverted for mining. Their drinking water is now contaminated with dust, which the locals say is causing an increase in stomach problems.[121]

A woman interviewed in Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, explained how water was so scarce in their village, that she was unable to bathe her children. Her six daughters were covered in dust and grime, and when she was asked about their health and hygiene she explained how she had so little water, she could not afford to waste it on bathing her children, but instead had to save it for drinking purposes.[122]

In Dhanapur, in Bellary district, Karnataka, the majority of the population was engaged in agriculture until private companies purchased land from the government and started mining there. Farmers complain that they no longer have access to water for cultivating their crops, as the mining companies are using the water for their activities. Their crops are also affected by the dust from mining. Many farmers have been virtually put out of business and have been forced to sell their land to mining companies.[123]

Existing legal, policy or programme interventions on health

The Mines Act, 1952, laid out guidelines for the safety of workers. It prescribes the duty of the mine owner to manage mine operations and health and safety in mines. It also lays out the number of working hours in mines, minimum wage rates and other related issues. However, whilst it is possible that this is being applied in some of the larger, formal sector mines, there is no evidence of its application in the small-scale mining sector, where the vast majority of mine labourers currently work in India.

The Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981, and the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986, state that air pollution due to fines, dust, smoke of gaseous emissions during prospecting, mining, beneficiation or metallurgical operations and related **activities shall be controlled and kept within "permissable limits." However, this permissible limit is a highly debatable issue.**[124]

Legislation to address child health problems in relation to mining is completely absent. Basic health programmes and services do not reach the children as the administrative machinery is not geared towards making local modifications to accommodate the peculiar situations of migrant and mining affected children. The PHCs are also not equipped to cope with the kind of diseases that the mining affected population are exposed to, such as silicosis. Even the barest support structures like the *anganwadi* centres that are intended to reduce child malnutrition, have found to be not functioning in many of these mining regions.

Loss of Access to Education

All children have the right to elementary education. However, in mining areas across the world, children can be seen toiling away in mines and quarries as opposed to attending school. Poverty is not the only reason for this. The global economy in which we live ensures that child labour suppresses wage levels; children continue to be employed in this sector

119. mines, minerals and PEOPLE, I*mpacts of Mining on Women's Health in India,* 15 April 2003..
120. Ibid.
121. Interviews in mining-affected communities, Cuddalore district, Tamil Nadu, August 2009.
122. Interviews in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, October 2009.
123. Interviews with farmers in Dhanapur, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
124. Background Paper by mines, minerals and People (MMP) for the Indian Women and Mining seminar, *Impacts of Mining on Women's Health in India,* April 2003.

because companies can pay them less than adults to carry out the same work. Privatisation and informalisation of labour has directly led to increase in child labour, particularly in the mining industry which keeps the workers impoverished and indebted in a vicious trap. A study carried out in a mining area in Tanzania revealed that children had been forced to drop out of school due to a lack of resources. Primary schools in this area were characterised by poor facilities, such as a lack of classrooms, textbooks and other teaching equipment. The low success rate of progression from primary to secondary school meant that children ended up working in the mines because of the lack of alternatives for further education and training.[125]

> "The main problem is the lack of education here. We are telling the government that we will give land and a building, but please give us a decent school. The mines can close anytime but if our children are educated, they can find a job elsewhere."
>
> Source: Mineworker, Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, Rajasthan, July 2009.

The problem of children accessing education in mining areas begins right from their birth. Despite an increasing recognition of the importance of early childhood care and education, these facilities are not available in many mining areas. A lack of crèche facilities and *anganwadi* centres in these districts means that mothers often have no alternative but to take their small children to work with them. As well as missing out on essential education and development opportunities, a mining site is one of the most hazardous places for a young child to be spending their days. ASER data reveals that several of the most heavily mined districts in the country also have some of the highest number of children aged between three to six years not enrolled in an *anganwadi*. In Orissa, 56.9 percent of children in Koraput and 48.3 percent of children in Rayagada are not enrolled in an AWC. And in Rajasthan, 51.4 percent of children in Jodhpur and 36.5 percent of children in Udaipur are not enrolled in an AWC.[126] Among the mining communities visited in these two states, many people reported a lack of AWC facilities in their area.

One of the main villages studied in Chhatisgarh was Gare village in Tamnar Block which has a total population of 741 of which 400 are below the age of 18. The village has two primary schools, one middle school and one *anganwadi* centre. While the infrastructure and teaching leave much to be desired, the school set up by the Jindals is far away from the village and too expensive for the local people to send their children. Only the children of employees of Jindals, therefore, attend this school.

In Khamariah village, a mining area in Chhattisgarh, there is an AWC, but only around 10-15 children attend it regularly. This is because the AWC building is dilapidated and people said it was too dangerous for children to sit inside as the roof may collapse any time. The records say that there are 28 children enrolled, but on the day our team visited only two children were present.[127] **Sometimes the mining companies simply encroach into the school premises or bulldoze the schools if they hinder their mining activities like in the case of Goa, and Andhra Pradesh where the school was use as a store house by the Birla Periclase agents.**[128]

With mines and quarries often located in remote areas, this is also compounded by a lack of or difficult access to education, particularly secondary education. The headmaster of the high school in Potanga village, Jharkhand, complained **that mining activities are not good for children, as the quick money that they can earn from mining encourages them not to attend school.**[129]

Education figures from the most heavily mined districts in India tell a worrying story. According to the most recent ASER survey by Pratham, Koraput and Rayagada districts in Orissa have some of the largest numbers of out of school children in the country, with 17.0 percent and 17.7 percent respectively of children aged 6-14 years still out of school in 2008.[130] Similar statistics can be seen in other mining districts across the country. In Bellary, Karnataka, 14.1 percent of children remain out of school and in Jodhpur and Udaipur districts of Rajasthan — where thousands of people are employed in small-scale stone quarries — 12.1 per cent and 10.0 per cent of children respectively are missing out on an education completely. Mining is clearly not promoting education and development in these districts and **is instead creating a culture in which children work rather than go to school.**

125. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labor in Mining and Quarrying: Background Document,* 12 June 2005.Pratham, *Annual Survey of Education,* 2008.
126. Pratham, *Annual Survey of Education,* 2008.
127. Interview with *anganwadi* worker, Khamariah village, Chhattisgarh, November 2009.
128. Bhanumathi Kalluri, *Campaign Against Illegal Mining – Experience of Samatha and the Tribals of Anantagiri,* 1997.
129. Interview with headmaster, Potanga village high school, Hazaribagh district, Jharkhand, September 2009.
130. Pratham, *Annual Survey of Education,* 2008.

In several districts of Rajasthan, mine workers explained how they had made financial sacrifices to send their children to school, but after several years of attending local government schools, their children were still not able to read or write due to the poor quality of the education provided and frequent teacher absences. One village in Jaisalmer district — where 90 per cent of residents work in mining — explained how they had now given up on their government school and had set up their own private school in the village. However, not all the parents were able to afford to send their children to this school.

In the mining areas of Bellary district, Karnataka, many families explained how their economic situation was so poor that their children are forced to work rather than attend school. With the decline in mining in the area due to the economic downturn, some children have started to leave the mines and go back to school, but many others are simply forced to look for alternative sources of income for their family. Some children continue to go to school in the morning and work in the afternoon, others are only seasonal workers, whereas a large number continue to work as full-time employees.[131] Girls were particularly likely to be out of school, as parents did not recognise the importance of educating them when "they will be married in a few years anyway."[132] A number of families in Mariyammnahalli village have lost their farmland to mining. Therefore they have had to take their children out of school and send them to work. The Don Bosco Shelter in Hospet explained that parents in the mining areas are willing to send their children to school, but their economic situation was so bad that they are forced to send their children to work in the mines just to fulfill their basic need for food.[133]

Existing legal, policy or programme interventions in education

In September 2009, 16 years after the idea was first mooted, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 has finally been enacted by Parliament. This provides for free and compulsory education for all children in India aged between 6 to 14 years. Other key features of the Act include mandated improvements to the quality of education provided to all children. Whilst this is a positive step in the right direction, it remains unclear how this legislation will be implemented in the mining areas, where large numbers of children are still forced to work rather than attend school, and where issues of displacement and migration impact greatly on the child's right to education.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is the government's flagship education programme aimed at achieving the universalisation of elementary education in India. However, the programme remains flawed in a number of ways. For example, the scheme's policy of promoting parallel systems of education has meant that children across the country are being denied equal opportunity to a quality education. Although the scheme has achieved some success in terms of increasing enrollment figures, retention continues to be a huge problem, with as many as 31 per cent of children dropping out before class V. This is particularly true in rural backward areas where mines and quarries tend to be located. In addition to this, the programme has failed to yet bring real improvements to both the facilities and quality of education provided in the majority of these mining areas.

Whilst the government is still failing to provide quality education to all children in mining areas, there have been a number of NGO initiatives aimed at children in these parts of the country. In Maharasthra, the NGO Santulan has set up a number of *Pashan Shala* schools around the stone quarrying areas, which currently reaches 2,001 children scattered across five districts in Maharashtra, mostly the children of stone quarry workers who would otherwise be working alongside their parents. These schools have now been recognised by the state government. In Rajasthan, the organisation MLPC has established a number of crèche facilities around the mining areas in Jodhpur district to address the problem of mothers having to take their small children to work with them. These crèches currently have 650 children under 6 years of age enrolled.

Internationally, efforts to reduce child labour and promote education in mining areas have been limited or at least not widely documented. In Peru, a number of NGOs, the ILO, the Government of Peru and the U.S. Department of Labour joined forces to launch an education project to combat child labour in mining in the country. This project aimed to remove children from gold mining and place them in quality school settings.[134]

131. Interviews with female mineworkers, Bellary district, Karnataka, August 2009.

132. Interviews with mineworkers, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.

133. Interview with director, Don Bosco Shelter, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.

134. Pamela Baldwin, *The impact of education in Peru's gold mining communities,* 26 October 2006, http://ourworld.worldlearning.org/site/News2?page=NewsArticle&id=8467, uploaded: 5 November 2009.

Increase in Child Labour

"The image of youngsters, blackened by coal dust, lugging laden carts from tunnels deep underground was one of the factors which stirred the ILO membership to adopt conventions against child labour at the start of the 20th century. Astonishingly, almost a hundred years later, that very image can still be seen in small-scale mines of Asia, Africa, Latin America, and even parts of Europe."

- ILO, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, Mining and Quarrying

Children as young as 5 years of age are working, in horrendous conditions, in mines and quarries across the world. Child labour in the mining sector is prevalent in many parts of Africa, South America and Asia. The majority are working in small scale "artisanal" mines, which tend to be unregulated and often located in remote, hard-to-reach areas. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour in mining as the "Worst Form of Child Labour," stating that "While all forms of child labour are harmful to children, those who work in the mining sector are in particular danger, labouring in conditions that pose a serious risk to their health and well being, exposing them to serious injury or even death on a daily basis." [135]

The global recession has led to an increase in small-scale mining, and thus the use of child labour, in a number of countries across the world. In 2008-09, Zambia's copper mining industry has been forced to downsize its operations. With nowhere else to go, unemployed miners have been forced into informal, artisanal mines (that were previously unable to compete with the large mines when copper prices were high) operating outside the regulatory framework with poor working conditions. As a growing number of households are feeling the effects of the recent slump in the demand for copper, children are being forced into working in these small-scale mines.[136]

In India, the global recession has meant that demand for minerals has reduced, and in some parts of the country mining activity has slowed down since 2008, following the "boom" years of the early 21st century. This further highlights the unsustainable nature of the work as many mine workers have suddenly found themselves unemployed. Since they work as daily wage labourers, with no contracts or employment rights, they do not receive compensation or even notice of their impending unemployment. In Bellary district, Karnataka, the local population reported that the number of child labourers in the mining sector has decreased

Child labour in mining

Cold, dark and dangerous these "unofficial" and unregulated coal mines and gold mines are no places for children. Due to extreme poverty and lack of access to education, some feel they have little choice but to risk the dangers. In some mines, children work as far as 90 metres beneath the ground with only a rope with which to climb in and out, inadequate ventilation and only a flashlight or candle for light. In small-scale mining, child workers dig and haul heavy loads of rock, dive into rivers and flooded tunnels in search of minerals, set explosives for underground blasting and crawl through narrow tunnels only as wide as their bodies. In quarries, children dig sand, rock and dirt, transport it on their heads or backs, and spend hours pounding larger rocks into gravel using adult-sized tools to produce construction materials for roads and buildings.

Source:: ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Press release: Cold, dark and dangerous – Asian children in mining, 9 June 2005.

The life of a child miner

Rani (name changed) is 10 years old and working in the sandstone mines in Jodhpur, Rajasthan. She earns Rs. 70 a day, cleaning mine waste from 9am till 5pm. She works about 15 days a month because she gets tired and needs to rest, and sometimes can't find work in the local mines. She has been to school (an NGO-run crèche) for just two days in her life. She is already addicted to gutka and fights with her mother to spend money on soap and gutka for herself.

Source: Interview carried out in Jodhpur district, Rajasthan

"My father died of some illness and therefore I had to go with my mother to the quarry," said a 12 year-old girl in one of the mines in Maharahtra. She broke down when asked to describe her work.

Source: Interview in a stone quarry in Pune District, Maharashtra

135. ILO, *Digging for Survival: The Child Miners,* 2005.

136. ILO, T*he global crisis and rising child labour in Zambia's mining communities: Are we facing a downward decent work spiral?,* 10 August 2009.

Table 1.4: Total number of children working in mining and quarrying in India (main and marginal workers)

State	Total main and marginal worker	
	5-14 year	5-19 year
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	11	107
Andhra Pradesh	11,660	37,586
Arunachal Pradesh	3	30
Assam	591	3,101
Bihar	689	2,906
Chandigarh	2	17
Chhattishgarh	426	2,897
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	13	97
Daman and Diu	2	18
Delhi	939	3,208
Goa	196	1,198
Gujarat	2,120	12,323
Haryana	886	4,473
Himachal Pradesh	20	453
Jammu and Kashmir	58	268
Jharkhand	2,862	13,346
Karnataka	4,669	18,276
Kerala	239	3,487
Lakshadweep	0	0
Madhya Pradesh	2,747	12,655
Maharashtra	2,095	11,758
Manipur	5	36
Meghalaya	154	881
Mizoram	64	216
Nagaland	3	54
Orissa	2,257	11,203
Puducherry	11	57
Punjab	61	537
Rajasthan	4,296	29,498
Sikkim	26	148
Tamil Nadu	2,708	14,879
Tripura	76	198
Uttarakhand	2,045	4,870
Uttar Pradesh	1,094	6,309
West Bengal	2,107	9,630
India	**45,135**	**206,720**

Source: Census, 2001

due to reduced demand for iron and manganese since the peak period of 2000-2005. Child labour is not being reduced because of positive efforts to address the problem by the state or the mining companies; instead it is because of the overall status of mining due to recession. Many of these children have been forced to turn to other forms of work to generate an income, as opposed to being able to access education, and child labour is bound to increase again once the market improves and demand for the minerals increases.

It is difficult to measure the number of children involved in mining, because of the remoteness, informal character of the sector and mobility factors. However, the ILO estimates that more than one million children are involved in mining across the world.[137] The actual figure, though, may be much higher than this, particularly given that the ILO states that 250,000 children work in mines in Niger alone. Child labour in the mining sector is prevalent in numerous countries across Africa, Asia and Latin America, where children can be found working mostly in small-scale underground and opencast mines and quarries. They work in the extraction and processing of various types of ore and minerals, including goal, silver, iron, tin, emeralds, coal, chrome, marble and stone. The ILO describes how "Today's child miners do not work directly for big mining companies. They may work for a small local mining or quarrying concern or with their own families on small concessions near bigger mines."[138]

It is impossible to give an accurate figure for the number of children working in mining and quarrying in India. According to the Census 2001, there were 45,135 children between 5-14 years working in the mining sector (see table 1.4), **which means that the mining sector employs nearly 7 per cent of working children in India.** Child labour figures are only disaggregated in the census up to 14 years. However, figures reveal that are huge numbers of 15-19 year olds working in this sector — 161,585 according to the Census — so there are likely to be very large numbers of children 15–18 years working in the mines. **Field visits to mining areas confirmed this to be the case — this age group of children is very visible in the mines and quarries across the country as they are better able than younger to children to carry out physically demanding work.**

However, the figures provided by the Census grossly underestimate the scale of the problem. Organisations working on mining in Rajasthan estimate that around

137. ILO, *Digging for Survival: The Child Miners,* 2005.
138. Ibid.

"My name is Sudeep. I am working with my father here in the stone quarries since 3-4 years. Now I am 18 years old. I come from Panna village. There is no fixed rate of payment for the work I do. For digging out one plate of stone we get Rs. 70-120 per day. In a day we can take out 5-6 plates of the stone, as a group. I can say that I earn Rs.100-120 in one day. But I can only work for 12-15 days in a month as the work is very strenuous. I have never been to school".

Source:: Interview carried out in Purna panna stone and diamond quarries, 18 August 2009

375,000 children work in the mines and quarries across that state alone. In Karnataka, estimates suggest that there are at least a few lakh[139] children engaged in mining there.[140] So the number of children working in mining in India is ,in fact, likely to be much closer to the one million that the ILO gives as the worldwide figure. **The blurring of children and women's labour has been cited as one impediment to accurate data on children working in mining in India,** as often in reports and statistics women and children are lumped together.[141]

In Kallali, in Bellary district, Karnataka, large numbers of children from the Madiga community (a Scheduled Caste) are engaged in stone crushing work, prescribed to be their traditional occupation. Over 20 percent of the children aged between 8-14 years from the villages in this area are said to be working at the mining sites. According to the children interviewed, there are over 100 crushing machines in the surrounding area, and at each crushing site at least 20-25 children are working, most of them girls, earning around Rs.100-110 per day for their labour.[142]

In Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, locals explained how most of the boys and girls start working by the age of 10. In Bador village, the community elders said that there were about 200 children in the village, of which around 100 attend the primary school. However, they drop out by fifth grade and join the mine labour. Parent explained that as future breadwinners of families, they have to learn the work early in life.[143] At a diamond mine in Panna district, the research team found 6 children working alongside their families. Four of the children were below 12 years of age and were helping their parents throw the soil away. The parents stated that the children are enrolled in school, but they work half the day in the mines and then attend school in the afternoon.[144]

In Mannor village, which has a child population of around 300, only 20 are reported to be attending school. When children reach the age of 10 or 12, they join daily wage work in the diamond mines. It is claimed that only 2 children have studied up to class V in this village.

Cases of state and industry irresponsibility are seen even where a precious stone like diamond is concerned, children are working in Madhya Pradesh to find diamonds for local contractors, where the stakes are extremely high but the trade routes are deliberately made elusive. The Obulapuram mines and the child labour in Bellary is another clear example of this. The local contractors who hire child labour do not even make a pretention of hiding the facts. In Bellary they stated that they are immune from laws and regulations, which they flout openly because "it is taken care of" by the Obulapuram Mines. This reflects the arrogant defiance to law as law-keepers can be easily purchased to the highest levels of power. In most of the areas we found that mining, undoubtedly, was a dirty business with more illegal than legal modes of operation.

Poverty is often presented as the only factor that explains child labour in the mining sector. However, the actual picture is far more complex than this. A multitude of socio-economic factors have led to a situation where, in the 21st century, large numbers of children can still be seen toiling in our mines and quarries. **The systemic and deliberate reason is that child labour is cheap, and this cheap labour is welcomed by contractors in the mining and quarrying sector.** Children are also compliant, easier to control and have no bargaining power. Children are often forced into mining because of the low wages received by their parents. They are pushed into the labour force in order to enable the family to survive, particularly in difficult times, such as that of family injury or illness.

139. One lakh is equal to 100,000.
140. Fact-finding Team, *Our Mining Children,* April 2005. http://rimmrights.org/Documents/2005-India-Bellary%20fact%20finding%20report.pdf, uploaded: 10 February 2010.
141. K. Lahiri-Dutt, *Digging to Survive: Women's Livelihoods in South Asia's Small Mines and Quarries,* 2008.
142. Interviews with children, Kallali, Bellary district, Karnataka, June 2009.
143. Interviews with mining-affected community, Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, September 2009.
144. Interviews at diamond mine, Panna district, Madhya Pradesh, September 2009.

Bearing in mind that many of the workers in the mining sector are migrant labourers, women also commonly migrate with their families and therefore provide a family unit of labour, which includes children.[145] The lack of child-care and schools in mining areas is another factor which explains the presence of high numbers of children at mines and quarries across in India. Women as new migrants move into small mines of quarries with little or no support for looking after children, so they are forced to take their children with them to the workplace.

The continued abuse of bonded labour in the mining sector also pushes children into the mines. In Rajasthan, the high incidence of injuries and illnesses amongst mineworkers, and the lack of any health care or insurance, means that adult workers frequently get into debt, as they have to borrow from the contractors during difficult times. They are then forced to provide free labour whilst they pay off these debts. This form of bondage often becomes inter-generational, with children working to pay off the debts of their parents when they are unable to do so.

Child labour perpetuates the cycle of poverty within families. Forcing children to work below a subsistence wage, in the unsustainable work that small-scale mining and quarrying provides, greatly reduces the chance that these children will ever be able to pull themselves out of the poverty into which they were born. The risks are even greater for girls, as these sub-standard wages often force young girls into much more severe forms of exploitation, such as prostitution.[146]

Again and again, research shows that where children are given viable options, they wish to attend school – and parents equally want their children educated to give them the opportunity of a better future.[147] Mining is not viewed as a "desirable" form of livelihood and children working in mines are there as a last resort in terms of survival.

As well as working in the mines and quarries, there is a high incidence of other forms of child labour in the mining areas across India — in all likelihood, due to low wages and high rates of illness amongst adult mine workers. Field observations in Jodhpur district, Rajasthan confirmed that although some children are employed in paid work — in mines, agriculture or restaurants — a far greater number are involved in adult-releasing tasks or supplement adult labour.[148] Such activities include herding goats, fetching water and firewood, looking after younger siblings and other domestic tasks.

An accurate analysis of child labour in the mining areas also needs to take these kinds of activities into account, as these children are still missing out on their right to education and the opportunity to attend school.

Shristhi (name changed) is 16 years old and works in a mine site. Her father, who was a mineworker, died of an illness nearly 5 years back. She has one older sister (married), a younger sister who is at home, three brothers at school and one brother older than her who also works as a mine worker. Her mother too works in the mines. Shristhi earns about Rs. 100/- a day working from 9.00 am to 5.00 pm. She said that she had been working for nearly 4 years now as they needed the money to run the house. Around two to three days in a month she does not go to work as she rests at home. She suffers from leg and backache. Shristhi has never been to school.

Source:: Interviews in Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, October 2009.

Working conditions

The ILO classifies mining as one of the "worst forms of labour" because of the extent and severity of the hazards, and the risks of death, injury and disease.[149] Children work long hours without any form of protective equipment, clothing or training. They are exposed to extreme temperatures with no protection from the sun. As well as lung diseases caused by inhaling dusts and gases, child miners often suffer physical strain, fatigue and muscular-skeletal disorders due to the heavy work involved. As their bodies are still growing and developing, they face greater dangers and risk of damage than adult labour in this sector. Many of the injuries and health problems may result in permanent disability — and these health problems may not become apparent until the child worker is an adult.[150]

145. K. Lahiri-Dutt, *Digging to Survive: Women's Livelihoods in South Asia's Small Mines and Quarries,* 2008.
146. Gravis, *Tales of Woe: A Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Jodhpur and Makrana,* March 2004, p. 16.
147. Ibid; and field interviews in mining-affected communities across India, 2009.
148. MLPC, *Broken Hard,* http://www.indianet.nl/steengroeven/factsheet/Brokenhard.pdf, uploaded: 11 February 2010.
149. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labour in Mining and Quarrying,* 2005.
150. Ibid.

Working conditions in the informal mining sector across the world are notoriously poor, and the situation in India is no different. The unorganised sector remains outside the purview of legal protection in terms of labour conditions, so the majority of the labourers work in dangerous, unregulated conditions. Pay varies across the sector and across states, but is always low and generally lower than the minimum wage of that state. In addition to this, the casual nature of the work means that there are no employment benefits such as sick pay, paid holidays or health insurance, so workers often end up in debt during difficult times, such as periods of ill health.

Conditions in small-scale mines and quarries are almost always extremely primitive. Mining contractors provide nothing to make the workers lives more bearable. **None of the sites visited in the course of the study had toilets or drinking water. The lack of sanitation is particularly challenging for women and girls. No shade or shelter is provided at the sites, meaning that children are forced to work in long hours with no protection at all from the sun.** Despite the prevalence of accidents, we are yet to come across a mine where the contractors provide anything in the wear of protection, such as helmets or face-masks, to workers and the lack of first aid facilities at the site means that in the event of an accident or illness, workers are often forced to travel long distances to the nearest healthcare centre.

Legal framework for Child Labour

There is no blanket ban against child labour in India. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, prohibits the engagement of children in certain employments and regulates the conditions for work for children in certain other employments. The list of hazardous forms of employment has been added to on several occasions since the Act was passed in 1986, but mining and collieries are the only forms of mining included on the original list. Article 24 of the Constitution of India, drafted in 1950, states that: "No child below the age of 14 years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment." Despite this, 60 years after the Constitution came into effect, thousands of children across India continue to work in mines and quarries.

The government's response to the situation has previously been to argue that as it is illegal, child labour in the mining sector is not a problem. And they continue to live in denial. This is evident from the answers to the parliament raised on questions related to child labour in mining. This happened when a question was raised in 2003,[151] and has been the same later too. In 2005 the Minister of Labour and Employment was asked the Governments reaction to International Labour Organisation (ILO) observation that there are one million children aged between 5 and 17 presently toiling in mines and quarries all over the world; if so, what is the reaction of the Government in this regard; whether the Government had ascertained the exact number of children aged between 5 and 17 toiling in mines and quarries in the country; if so, the details thereof; and the efforts being made to remedy the situation?

The Minister, Sri Chandra Shekhar Rao replied that there is no reference to India in the said report. He added that mining occupations have already been prohibited as hazardous occupation under the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986. What is more he replied that occupation-wise data of child labour in the country is not maintained. (This is surprising since the Census 2001 data quoted in Table 1.4 gives this information.) He added that the Government is implementing the National Child Labour Project Scheme for the withdrawal and rehabilitation of children working in hazardous occupations and processes. The Scheme involves enrolling the working children in special schools and providing them education, vocational training, nutrition, health care, stipend, etc. and finally, mainstreaming them into regular schools.[152]

In the very same year, based on the fact finding in the iron ore mines of Hospet and Bellary, that was a precursor to the current effort, the Minister for Labour was once again asked about whether several lakh children are still working in the mines throughout the country and a large number of them starting from the age of five, working in the most hazardous conditions and leading a horrible existence as (reported in the *Hindu* dated May 16, 2005) and whether the school dropout rate is high in mining regions of the country; and whether there is a demand to conduct an enquiry in all the mines in the country and to come up with a comprehensive report on child labour. The honourable Minister replied saying that it is not true that several lakh

151. Fact-finding Team, *Our Mining Children,* April 2005. http://rimmrights.org/Documents/2005-India-Bellary%20fact%20finding%20report.pdf, uploaded: 10 February 2010.

152. Lok Sabha starred question No.19 answered on 25.07.2005

children are working in mines in Karnataka as reported in The Hindu dated May 16, 2005.

He further reiterated that the use of child labour working in mines is prohibited under the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986 since working in mines has been identified as a hazardous occupation and any employer employing children below the age of 14 in mines is liable to penal action which includes imprisonment.

He said that instructions to enforce strictly the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act in the entire country for all hazardous occupations including working in mines for children has been conveyed to all the state governments including the Government of Karnataka and that the government is very serious in effective enforcement of the Act and in the implementation of the National Child Labour Projects in the country. "Mining is a very widespread activity in the country and it takes place both in the organised sector and in the unorganised sector. There is no evidence to indicate that the school drop out rates amongst children working in mines is higher than the general drop out rates in the other areas in the country" he added.[153]

The National Child Labour Project (NCLP) is the oldest scheme of the government to address child labour and was initiated in 1988, to target children working in hazardous occupations in the child labour endemic districts. The scheme involves establishing Special Schools for rescued child labourers and provides children with a stipend of Rs.100 a month, as well as nutrition, vocational training and regular health check ups. The coverage of the NCLP scheme increased to 250 districts during the Tenth Plan, and now includes a number of areas where there is widespread mining, such as districts in Chhattisgarh, Orissa and Rajasthan. The NCLP scheme has been heavily criticised for its failure to reach the number of children necessary. Of the 150 districts sanctioned under the Tenth Plan, projects have still only been sanctioned in 86 of these districts, and although the scheme has now been officially increased to a total of 250 districts, this still only covers half the country.[154] Whilst we know that there are huge numbers of children across the country still engaged in hazardous forms of labour, as of May 2007, only 392,413 children have been mainstreamed through the NCLP scheme.[155]

It was a shocking discovery during the field visits that there are hardly any NCLP schools operating in the areas where mining affected children live. In most places, it is the local NGOs who are providing these facilities either in the case of *Pashan Shalas* in Pune district of Maharashtra or in the form of Tent schools run in Bellary and Sandur districts in Karnataka.

In addition to the national laws on child labour in the mining sector, there are several international conventions which relate to this form of labour. The guiding international framework for child rights is the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which was signed by India in 1992. Article 32 of the Convention states:

"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." [156]

In spite of this agreement, children continue to be employed in hazardous work in mines and quarries across the country. India has also ratified the ILO Convention C123 Minimum Age (Underground Work) Convention, 1965 in 1975, which bans children under 16 years from working in underground mines.

Ajit (name changed) hails from Dom Koral village of Tikiri. He is 17 years old. As his father died five years ago, he was forced to take on the entire burden of the family and become the sole breadwinner. He works as a manual labourer under different contractors in mining activities and earns around Rs.60 a day. He stated that the mining work is erratic due to the community protests and strikes, and hence his earnings are irregular. "I do odd jobs at the mine site as there is construction work going on. Work is very tough and therefore, I have gradually become addicted to liquor and gutka - I can't help it".

Source: Interview carried out in Dom Koral, Kasipur, Orissa, 13 June 2009.

153. Lok Sabha Starred Question No. 208. Answered on 8.08.2005

154. HAQ: Centre for Child Rights, *Still Out of Focus: Status of India's Children,* 2008.

155. Information accessed on Indiastat.com; Compiled from the statistics released by Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 3759, dated on 09.05.2007. and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 994, dated on 20.08.2007 and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2415, dated on 03.12.2007.

156. Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 32.

Efforts to address child labour in mining

Although some efforts have been made by NGOs and the ILO to address the problem of child labour in the mining sector across the world, this continues to be a neglected area — perhaps due to the lack of quantitative data on the scale of the problem. The ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) has adopted mining and quarrying as one of its global areas of focus, due to the dangerous nature of the work. Pilot projects undertaken by ILO-IPEC in Mongolia, Tanzania, Niger and the Andean countries of South America have shown that the best way to assist child miners is to work with the children's own communities.[157] The IPEC programme explains how mining and quarrying communities have been helped to organise co-operatives and to improve their productivity by acquiring machinery, thus eliminating or reducing the need for child labour. However, the ILO recognises that while projects on the ground can assist child miners in a practical way, only worldwide awareness of the problem can mobilise the international effort that is needed to end the practice for good.[158]

In India, the ILO–IPEC programme initiated a project in Andhra Pradesh to eliminate child labour in the state, and a component of this was focused on reducing the number of children working in slate mines and factories in the state.[159]

The National Child Labour Programme (NCLP) is the flagship programme of the government to eliminate child labour in hazardous situations. In the case of mining children there are two problems related to this: 1) Since not all mining occupations are listed as hazardous, all child labour in mines is not covered by this programme. 2) where they exist, they do not tend to function effectively. As is now the practice, most government programmes are run by NGOs. In this case they are run by NGOs with very small funds and so they are run badly and with little motivation. Since there is little or no proactive motivation from government labour departments to identify areas that have child labour, it all depends on the motivation of the local NGO, if there is any.

Increased vulnerability to violence and abuse

The majority of mining areas are not safe environments for a child to grow up in. There are many social problems associated with mining operations. Numerous reports across the world have documented how mining activity is often accompanied by the widespread availability and consumption of alcohol, an increase in gambling and the introduction or increase in prostitution. Violence, alcohol-induced and domestic, may increase.[160] Very difficult working and living conditions, and the uncertainties of life, can encourage excessive alcohol consumption habits amongst quarry workers. Alcoholism is prevalent, particularly in male mineworkers, and in some cases leads to domestic violence and the ill-treatment of children.[161] Amongst the population displaced for the Urimari coal mining project in Jharkhand, alcoholism has risen. One woman explained that alcoholism has increased since the mining started and that 80 per cent of the family income is now spent on alcohol.[162]

Mining sites are rough places to live and work. Some children become engaged in prostitution and they are also confronted by problems related to alcohol and drug abuse, and violence.[163] **The ILO highlights how the mining environment often becomes a degrading social environment, with increasing levels of prostitution and criminality, as well as an erosion of family and social structures.**[164] Alcoholism amongst male workers has been identified as a major issue in Rajasthan. In Budhpura, Bundi district, illicit alcohol is supplied to labourers at a subsidised rate, which promotes alcoholism.[165]

In Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, **women mineworkers explained that alcoholism is rampant among men and some women. Men, women and children are all addicted to chewing *gutka* (a chewable form of tobacco). The reasons they give for this is to ease the physical tiredness and pain experienced after a hard day's work.**[166] Consumption of alcohol, tobacco and drugs by child mineworkers is a

157. ILO, *Digging for Survival: The Child Miners,* 2005.
158. Ibid.
159. ILO, http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/newdelhi/ipec/responses/india/p2.htm, uploaded: 24 August 2009.
160. Mining, Minerals and Sustainable Development Project, *Breaking new ground: mining, minerals and sustainable development,* 2002.
161. K. Lahiri-Dutt, *Digging to Survive: Women's Livelihoods in South Asia's Small Mines and Quarries,* South Asian Survey 15:2, 2008, p. 217 – 244.
162. Interviews carried out in mining-affected communities in Urimari coal mining area, Jharkhand, September 2009.
163. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labour in Mining and Quarrying,* 12 June 2005, p. 11.
164. Ibid, p. 16.
165. P. Madhavan and Dr Sanjay Raj, *Budhpura 'Ground Zero' Sandstone quarrying in India,* December 2005.
166. Interviews carried out with women mineworkers, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, October 2009.

significant problem. A study carried out in Jodhpur and Makrana in Rajasthan, found that 60 per cent of the child labourers interviewed were dependent on *ghutka*, tobacco and alcohol.[167]

Tikripada village in Keonjhar district, Orissa, consists of a population of 1,200, mostly from Scheduled Tribes. Since all the families in the village lost their agricultural land for mining, and they are now forced to work as daily wage labour for mining contractors, social problems have increased in the village. With the influx of external migrant populations, such as truck drivers, youth in the village have now become vulnerable to addictions to alcohol and *gutka*, and crimes such as theft have increased. A large increase in the number of liquor stores in the area since the introduction of mining has meant that men, women and young children have all become dependent on alcohol, which they claim is due to heavy work load in the mines.[168]

Mining areas often coincide with the parts of the country most affected by child trafficking. One example is the case of Sundergarh district in Orissa, which has a serious problem in terms of trafficking, particularly of young girls. It was estimated by a survey conducted by the Rourkela Social Service Society that every day there is trafficking of at least 20 girls to cities such as Delhi and Mumbai. At least 7,000 girls were trafficked each year from Sundergarh district according to their survey. The main reasons for this high incidence of trafficking are stark poverty, indebtedness created by mining and other industries, and the non-implementation of developmental schemes in the areas. As industrialisation, in particular mining, has spread rapidly in the district, *adivasis*, who form a majority of the population have become vulnerable to migration and trafficking. The district also has an alarming rate of unwed mothers and prostitution.

In addition to these social problems and abuses, child mineworkers face violations in terms of their rights to leisure and recreation. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child clearly recognises the right of every child to rest and leisure, and to engage in play and recreational activities.[169] However, the concept of free time and recreation is almost absent from the daily lives of children working in mining and quarrying. [170]

Conclusion

The findings in this study paint a frightening picture of children's rights in mining areas across the country. Because there is so little information available mining children live where they have no way of proving the number of stones they break, the number of debts they repay, the number of nights they starve, the numbers that have lost their parents or watch them dying each day with tuberculosis or silicosis, the numbers who are victims of the rape of their bodies and the pain of their souls.

Malnourished, denied access to education, and living and working in dangerous conditions, India's "mining children" are leading horrendous lives. Previously unexplored, and therefore inevitably neglected, the links between children and mining have not yet been taken seriously by either policy-makers or activists. It is hoped that this report will provide the basis for further action and advocacy work on these issues, to ensure that children's rights no longer be violated by the mining sector. The report also provides evidence, once again, that profits from mining do not simply 'trickle down' and benefit the local community. Instead,

Key Findings

The significant findings from this national study point to eight most critical areas of concern with respect to upholding the rights of India's children vis-à-vis mining. These are:

1. Increased morbidity and illness
2. Increased food insecurity and malnutrition
3. Increased vulnerability to exploitation and abuse.
4. Violation of Right to Education
5. Increase in child labour
6. Further marginalisation *adivasi* and *dalit* children
7. Migrant children are the nowhere children.
8. Mining children fall through the gaps and there is urgent need to amend laws, policies and programmes to address their specific rights and entitlement.

167. Gravis, *Tales of Woe: A Report on Child Labour in the Mines of Jodhpur and Makrana,* March 2004, p. 20.
168. Interviews carried out in Tikripada village, Keonjhar, Orissa, February 2010.
169. United Nations, *Convention on the Rights of the Child,* Article 31.
170. ILO, *Eliminating Child Labour in Mining and Quarrying,* 12 June 2005, p. 17.

the situation of children living in the parts of the country wealthiest in natural resources is abysmal. The central government, state governments, mining companies and non-governmental organisations need to work together to ensure that these children are no longer denied their basic rights, and to ensure that the development, so promised by the government and the mining sector, becomes a reality for all.

Responsible mining and responsibility towards local communities is not visible in India. Therefore, the fear that exists in the hearts of the communities and public is whether private companies can ever be made accountable if the public sector has no record of best practices. With India's thrust for the future being privatisation of mining projects, there is little hope for sustainable mining to be implemented with seriousness, in the absence of best practices from the public sector and the looming gaps that exist in the law and regulatory mechanisms.

The corporate induced conflicts and state of terror in these regions, particularly in Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand were visible all through the study where data collection was interrupted several times due to strikes, bandhs, non cooperation of local communities due to fear of police and industry repercussions, and the inability to travel without fear of violence.

A lot depends on the political will, public accountability and bureaucratic transparency. A lot also depends on a nation's conscience. Unless the collective conscience of policy makers, the mining companies and the general public is awakened to the harsh reality of the lives of the mining children and the price they pay for the glamour, the glitter and the development and growth that mining brings, nothing will change.

Part II
State Reports

1. Karnataka
2. Maharashtra
3. Rajasthan
4. Madhya Pradesh
5. Chhattisgarh
6. Jharkhand
7. Orissa
8. Andhra Pradesh

Karnataka

State Overview

The population of Karnataka in 2001 was 52,850,562, of which two-thirds live in rural areas.[1] In 2007-08, the state had an estimated (Gross State Domestic Product) GSDP of Rs. 2,152.82 billion.[2] Karnataka was the fastest growing state over the past decade in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and per capita GDP. With GDP growth of 56.2 per cent and per capita growth of 43.9 per cent, Karnataka now has the sixth highest per capita GDP growth of all states.[3]

Since the 1980s, Karnataka became the Information Technology (IT) hub of India with more than 2,000 IT firms operating out of the state. Karnataka is also the manufacturing hub for some of the largest public sector industries in India, such as Hindustan Aeronautics Limited (HAL) and Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL), and is the headquarters of many of India's science and technology research centres. The major manufacturing industries in the state include sugar, paper, silk and cement.

However, over half (56 per cent) of the workforce is engaged in agriculture and related activities.[4] Around 64.6 per cent of the state's total area is cultivated and 19 per cent of the state is covered by forest. The main crops grown in the state include rice, maize, pulses, chillies, sugarcane and tobacco. Karnataka is the largest producer of coarse cereals, coffee and raw silk in India. The agricultural sector has slowed down in recent years though in the state, largely due to continuous droughts and less priority given to it.

There are wide disparities in terms of income and living standards across Karnataka's districts. Around 25 per cent of the total population live below the poverty line. This rises to 32.6 per cent in urban areas of the state. For Scheduled Castes (SCs), over half (50.6 per cent) in urban areas live below the poverty line. The overall literacy level in the state is higher than the Indian average, at 67 per cent. However, literacy rates are much lower for the SC and Scheduled Tribe (ST) populations. Only 33.32 per cent of rural ST women and 35.56 per cent of rural SC women are literate.[5] The northeast region of the state (also known as Hyderabad Karnataka) which comprises five districts—Bellary, Bidar, Koppal, Gulbarga and Raichur—and that has most of the mineral resources remains particularly backward.

In terms of employment trends, there is a drop in overall employment rates within the organised sector in recent years, suggesting a greater dependency on the unorganised sector. Employment rates have decreased in a number of sectors such as agriculture, mining and utilities. The growth of marginal workers increased at a rate of 161.5 per cent between 1991 and 2001 indicating that increasing numbers of people have become part of the unorganised and marginalised workforce.

The state is also facing major challenges in terms of basic health. Whilst Karnataka is now emerging as a destination for 'health tourism', with its state-of-the-art speciality hospitals in Bengaluru (earlier known as Bangalore), the provision of

1 Census of India, 2001.

2 Finance Department, Government of Karnataka, Highlights of Karnataka Budget 2008-09.

3 The Hindu, In terms of per capita GDP – Karnataka, Bengal fastest growing states, 9 June 2005.

4 Planning Commission, Government of India, Karnataka Human Development Report 2005.

5 Census of India, 2001.

basic healthcare to its population remains uneven. The 2005 Karnataka Human Development Report recognises that inaccessibility of healthcare and the inability to spend on healthcare increases the vulnerability of 'sub-populations' such as the poor, women, SCs and STs, all of whom are at greatest risk of ill-health.[6] Malnutrition amongst pregnant women and infants also remains extremely common, and rates of HIV infection are a cause of great concern in the state. The rapid increase of HIV cases in Karnataka has been alarming; during 2002-03, the rate of infection increased by 106 per cent.[7] According to the most recent National Family Health Survey (NFHS) report (NFHS-3), Karnataka is in the top five states in the country in terms of HIV prevalence, with an estimated 1.25 per cent of the population infected.[8]

Status of Children

There are 16,845,601 children aged 14 years and under, and 22,227,273 children aged 19 years and under in Karnataka; these children constitute almost 40 per cent of the total population in the state. According to official statistics, there were 72,967 children between six to 14 years who are out of school in the state in 2008.[9] However, Pratham's Assessment Survey Evaluation Report (ASER) 2008 survey estimates that the actual number of children out of school in the state is higher than this and amounts to 3.6 per cent of the total child population. There are wide geographical disparities across the state in terms of the number of children out of school. Whilst in Bengaluru rural, only 0.2 per cent of children are estimated to be out of school, this rises to 14.1 per cent in Bellary district and 13.6 per cent in Gulbarga district, showing that the state needs to urgently address access to education issues in the Hyderabad Karnataka region.[10]

According to the Census 2001, there were 822,615 child labourers (aged 14 years and under) and 2,952,545 children 19 years and under working in the state.[11] However, official statistics for the number of children employed in hazardous occupations are completely unrealistic with only 1,634 officially engaged in this kind of work.[12] In mining and quarrying alone, there were 4,669 children 14 years and under, and 18,276 in the 19 years and under category employed in this sector, according to the Census.[13] The actual number of children working in the unorganised mining and quarrying sector in the state is far higher than these statistics with one fact-finding mission discovering 'at least a few lakh' children working in the iron ore mines in Bellary district.[14] A total of 17 districts in the state are currently covered by National Child Labour Project (NCLP) and up until May 2007 11,589 children had apparently been rehabilitated under this scheme.[15]

There are wide variations in terms of child health across the state. The 2005 Karnataka Human Development Report observed that rural-urban disparities have actually intensified in the state; the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is 64 (per 1,000 live births) in rural areas, as compared to 24 in urban areas.[16] Again, IMR is higher in the Hyderabad Karnataka region. Only 55 per cent of children aged between 12 and 23 months had received all their basic vaccinations in Karnataka as compared to the neighbouring states of Kerala, where 75.3 per cent had received all vaccinations, and Tamil Nadu where 80.9 per cent had received them.[17] This shows that despite its rapid economic growth, huge challenges remain in terms of child health in the state.

Mining in Karnataka

The value of mineral production in Karnataka during 2007-08 was Rs. 44.95 billion.[18] This was an increase of 23 per cent from the previous year. However, the number of reporting mines in the state fell from 231 to 218 during the same period. Karnataka is the main gold producing state in the country. It

6 Planning Commission, Government of India, Karnataka Human Development Report 2005.

7 Ibid.

8 NFHS-3, Chapter 12-HIV Prevalence, 2007.

9 Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008, State-Wise Number of Out of School Children in India, as on 31 March 2008.

10 Statistics taken from Pratham, ASER 2008 survey, pp. 112.

11 Census of India, 2001.

12 Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2691, dated 9.8.2000.

13 Census of India, 2001.

14 Our Mining Children, 2005.

15 Accessed from indiastat.com, Compiled from the statistics released by: Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 3759, dated on 09.05.2007. and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 994, dated on 20.08.2007 and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2415, dated on 03.12.2007, Selected State-wise Number of Child Mainstreamed under National Child Labour Projects (NCLP) in India, till May 2007.

16 Planning Commission, Government of India, Karnataka Human Development Report 2005

17 NFHS-3, Chapter 9 – Child Health, 2007.

Iron ore mining in Hospet (Photo- June 2009)

is also the sole producer of felsite and the leading producer of iron ore, chromite and dunite. The state hosts 78 per cent of India's vanadium ore, 74 per cent of iron ore, 42 per cent of tungsten ore, 38 per cent of asbestos, 33 per cent of titaniferous magnetite and 30 per cent of limestone, as well as less significant proportions of a number of other minerals.[19]

According to statistics provided by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Karnataka, mining and quarrying has increased as a percentage of the total contribution to the state's GDP but only marginally—from a 0.5 per cent share in 1999 to a one per cent share in 2007-08.[20] This shows that despite the amount of land that has been turned over to mining (which totalled over 11,046 ha between 1980 and 2008)[21] and the number of people affected by mining and quarrying in the state, its contribution to the state's GDP still remains marginal. In terms of employees, around 14,200 people were officially employed in 199 reporting mines in 2005—a slight increase from 13,200 in 2002.[22]

Mining is generating little wealth for the majority of the rural population of Karnataka, many of whom continue to live in poverty. The districts of Bellary and Gulbarga are particularly poor, despite the fact that mining has been prevalent in these districts for some time now. An estimated 45 per cent of the population of Bellary continues to live in extreme conditions of poverty, in spite of the manganese and iron ore mining there. The district is ranked 17 in the state's Human Development Index (HDI), clearly indicating that the income generated from mining in the district has not translated into improved living conditions for the majority of the population. Iron ore mining has caused serious environmental problems, with mine waste and dust preventing the cultivation of crops in the area. Large-scale limestone mining in Gulbarga has also encroached upon agricultural land in the district.[23]

Child labour is recognised as a serious problem in the mining sector in Karnataka. Iron ore mining in Bellary is infamous for its large number of child labourers involved, with at least 200,000 boys and girls working in the iron mines in this district.[24] Children as young as 3 years old can be seen at the mine sites, accompanying their parents to work. By the age of seven or eight they start performing a number of jobs at these sites, including hammering away through piles of iron stock and carrying heavy loads on their head. They are employed by mine owners and contractors for digging, breaking stones, sieving, loading, dumping, and transporting and processing iron ore with no safety equipment.[25] Accidents and injuries are common in these mines.

Illegal mining is also recognised as a serious problem in the state. In 2008, the Central Empowerment Committee and *Lokayukta* for the state Santosh Hegde submitted a report calling for the Karnataka state government to urgently tackle illegal mining in the state, in the interests of the country. There have been a number of complaints about politically influential mine owners and politicians with high stakes in the mining industry, using the bureaucracy to carry out illegal mining.[26] Many small mines in the state operate without permits and do not pay taxes.

The Kolar Gold Fields (KGF), located in Kolar district, was closed in 2003. No longer the 'golden land' of India, what was

18 Ministry of Mines, Government of India, Annual Report, 2008-09.

19 Ibid.

20 Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Karnataka, Table 1 – Gross State Domestic Product, http://des.kar.nic.in/mainpage.asp?option=5, uploaded: 30 November 2009.

21 Accessed at Indiatstats.com, Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 234, dated 20.10.2008. Selected State-wise Forest Land Diverted for Mining by Ministry of Environment and Forests in India (25.10.1980 to 30.09.2008).

22 Accessed at Indiastats.com, Compiled from the statistics released by Ministry of Labour & Employment, Government of India, Selected State-wise Average Daily Employment and Number of Reporting Mines in India (2002 to 2005).

23 CSE, State of India's Environment – Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 200.

24 Our Mining Children, 2005; and CSE, State of India's Environment – Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 194.

25 Our Mining Children, 2005.

26 The Hindu, State should act against illegal mining: Jethmalani, 24 November 2009.

Kolar district: Key facts	
Total population:	2,536,069 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	803,954 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 62.84 per cent Male 73.17 per cent Female 52.23 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children(6–14 years):	0.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in *anganwadi* centre (AWC) or pre-school (3–4 years):	94.8 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	44,098 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	117 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Bellary district: Key facts	
Total population:	2,027,140 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	749,227 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 57.4 per cent Male 69.2 per cent Female 45.28 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	14.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	89.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	66,767 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	380 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

once a thriving gold mining area has been abandoned, with unemployment rates high amongst the local population.

Situation in Mining-affected Communities of Bellary and Kolar Districts

Karnataka, which means 'where one's ears want to wander' has a story that makes neither the ears nor the eyes of the nation wish to wander, as the red dust camouflages the sordid state of children living in the iron ore mines of Bellary and where the gold can no longer offer its glitter to the young generation of Kolar. The two stories presented here are that of Bellary, a site of the 'red Indian children', and Kolar that speaks of a journey of the lost youth, the refugees of a 'golden' past. One can be found at almost every mine site breaking iron with their fragile hands, while the other disappears every morning and is chugged back into the mining township late after sunrise. One works along with the adults to supplement the meagre wages; the other is the sole supporter of the retrenched adult. One has lost its childhood, the other its youth. These case studies clearly show all the three cycles of mining—proposed areas, existing mines and closed mines—and how during all the three cycles children are cruelly made vulnerable to the unaccounted costs of mining. The Karnataka state overview of child development is presented here within which context the status of children affected by mining is juxtaposed.

Kolar Gold Fields: The Golden Grave With the Golden Handshake

"We are angry that the government has not bothered to give us an alternative livelihood. When there is so much of land and infrastructure readily available here and so many of us youth waiting for employment, why doesn't the government set up some industry or Special Economic Zone (SEZ) here to give us employment, instead of forcing farmers elsewhere to give up their agriculture for industries?"

Source: Group discussion with youth in Kolar township, Kolar, June 2009

The largest gold mine in India and the first public sector mining company to face closure, Bharat Gold Mines Limited (BGML), better known as KGF, is a story of abandonment. It is a testimony of irresponsibility and lack of accountability on the part of the mining company as well as of the state when mining was abruptly shut down and workers faced overnight retrenchment. It is a testimony of how such abandonment of mining activities orphans the children of mine workers. What was seen in KGF was a whole generation of children and youth rudely thrown into the streets to rescue their families from the golden graves of the ghost town called Kolar, which was once the proud producer of the glittering metal for the country.

History of Bharat Gold Mines Limited

Based in Kolar district of Karnataka, BGML was a Government of India public sector undertaking, spread over an area of 13,000 acres. Established by the British in 1905, it became BGML in 1972 under the Government of India, Ministry of Mines, and was primarily engaged in the extraction of gold till the year 2002 when it faced a sudden closure on grounds of financial losses. The company extracted 514.17 kg gold in 1997, and in 1998 the revised target was 550 kg of gold but actually only 404.1 kg could be extracted; between January and March of 1999 145 kg was extracted by the company. At the time of closure the company had on its payrolls, a total of 4,345 employees of whom 2,336 were technical and 2,009 were non-technical staff.[27]

Closed BGML (Photo June 2009)

The company provided a township for its employees with residential facilities for all levels of workers, basic amenities of drinking water, electricity, sanitation, roads, schools and medical facilities. The BGML hospital was located within the township where workers had access to free medical services. There were 17 schools, a degree college, a dental college and a nursing college.

Social and Economic Background

Due to the legacy of the British establishment, KGF has a distinct culture of English and Christian influence. A large section of the employees originally hail from the neighbouring states of Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Kerala (Palakkad district). Interestingly, although located in Karnataka, there were few workers from within the state. At the time of the study the township had the third generation of mine workers' families living in KGF. The township has an abundance of churches and temples and the workers are proud of their multi-cultural background, social tolerance and a strong sense of identity as a mining community. The workers stated that this distinct culture has come from the history of being together and facing the dangers of working underground, of having to face mine accidents and fatalities and yet having the security of the township and its employment. For almost all the workers' families for the last three generations, life revolved around mining alone as they had never lived outside of the township.

The children of this mining town had the privilege of educational facilities from the company, the Christian missionary institutions and some of the vernacular schools. Hence most children attended English medium schools

27 http://mines.nic.in/arbgml.html

and pursued higher education. The presence of professional colleges in the township is evidence of the high importance given to education.

However, when the company was closed down suddenly in 2002, the entire population of KGF fell into a crisis with no alternative source of income or livelihood. The workers stated that although the salaries were not very high, yet the infrastructure and free services provided to them by the company ensured that the basic needs of health, education and public services were met. However, when the company shut down, not only were the salaries withdrawn but so also were all the basic amenities. Since then the fate of the 4,345 families has been a tragic struggle for survival. The 17 odd workers' unions contested the company's decision which took advantage of the divisions among them and to this day, there is no concrete solution that has emerged either through the Board of Industrial and Financial Reconstruction (BIFR), the Supreme Court or by the central government.

For six long years the workers' families held on to their agitation and KGF witnessed a tumultuous struggle of a community from a life of dignity to one of desperation, impoverishment and collapse of a morale that is the pride of miners. The shock of having no sustenance and the forced idleness of able-bodied men who were used to laborious work, led to serious anxiety related illnesses, alcoholism and crime. This also resulted in domestic violence, behavioural disorders and, more than 149 suicides and stress related deaths. When interviewed by the study team, the Medical Officer of the government Primary Health Centre (PHC) at KGF also confirmed this, although he was reluctant to give the case records officially.

After the closure, the company withdrew all amenities to the workers, and state institutions did not take over as workers were not in a position to pay for these services. Hence for several years, KGF remained without public services like drinking water, electricity, sanitation and other amenities. Unable to sustain their families any longer, the workers reported that they accepted the monetary compensation offered by the government, which amounted to approximately, Rs.150,000 for workers and about Rs.700,000 for officers. The only concession was that all the workers were allowed to retain the housing quarters by purchasing them from the company at nominal prices. Therefore, KGF today is a mining town of mine workers without any mining activity or any other forms of economic opportunities. The houses of the workers, with their bare furniture and sparse kitchens hidden behind occasional festivities, are evidence of the poverty brought upon the community by the mine closure. Neither the company nor the government have paid attention to the long term impacts of the closure on the social and economic life of the workers and washed their hands off with mere monetary compensation. The vast area of land, infrastructure, manpower are all lying wasted in despair.

How Kolar Gold Fields Has Betrayed Its Youth

The children of the workers' families were the most affected by the company's decision. Children's education and social security faced the axe. As education was no longer a free service, many of the workers could not pay school fees during the period of the strike. Children faced humiliation at school and many of them had to drop out. It was mainly the adolescent girls and boys who were in high school who dropped out of school and were forced to take the responsibility of sustaining their families. Many of the workers felt humiliated to shift to other petty jobs like working as watchmen, electricians, security guards or petty vendors, and preferred to remain idle and starving.

This immediately shifted the responsibility of supporting the families on teenage children. However, as KGF offers no job opportunities, they have to travel out to the city of Bengaluru approximately 120 km away, in search of employment. The workers sardonically comment on the government's generosity to the BGML employees when they speak about the railway line and the trains that were introduced as compensation for the mine closure. Every morning between 7,000 to 12,000 youth and young adults leave for work to Bengaluru by these trains and return only late in the night. The study team saw packed crowds leaving at 6.00 am in the morning

The morning train that leaves from Kolar carries thousands of young boys and girls to work in Bengaluru (photo June 2009)

and returning by the last train that comes into KGF at 9.00 pm, and, how adolescent girls form a majority of these daily commuters. When interviewed, the young girls who commute by these trains admitted that they are vulnerable to physical and sexual abuse as the trains are overcrowded, but they brush it aside as unavoidable as they have no other choice but to work to sustain their families. A few of the girls stated that they have learnt to deal with these problems over the years by choosing to travel in groups. However, they stated that the main problem was while returning home as sometimes their employers make them work extra hours, which means they cannot take the regular train back home. This creates tension for the girls when they have to travel back alone as incidents of assault are common around the railway track in KGF.

The only fortune that these young people of KGF have is their English education. They are therefore offered lower-end jobs in corporate offices, business process outsourcing (BPO), banks and other private firms that require English speaking skills. A majority of the girls work as contract labour in the garment industries in the suburbs of Bengaluru while most of the boys work as electricians, masons, carpenters, security guards, plumbers and the like. The study team could not find any young people in the township during the weekdays and, during the weekends girls are normally busy with household chores.

KGF has gained notoriety of having youth hired by political and criminal groups, which operate in Bengaluru, for violent and criminal activities. It was also reported that some of the women and young girls from the workers' families turned to prostitution to keep their families from starving. However, people of KGF prefer not to have such news highlighted as it only sensationalises KGF without actually addressing their core problems.

One of the glaring problems reported by the people themselves is theft. Young boys operate as petty criminals and steal parts of the company infrastructure like metal sheets from mine shafts, machinery and other scrap. The team found many of the properties of BGML with broken doors and windows, walls stripped of cupboards, fencing material ripped away and similar scenes around the township. When the study team visited KGF, a critically injured mine worker was admitted to the PHC and it was reported that some youth had brutally assaulted him on the railway track and robbed him. People were bitter that these crimes were committed under the guidance of the local police who thrive on the new violence erupting from the youth.

When the youth of KGF were interviewed they expressed their anger and frustration at the government, and about how the company betrayed their families and left them to suffer the indignity of poverty without providing any alternatives. A majority of them stated that they were ready to go underground and keen to have the mining back or demanded that the government should set up other industries in KGF. They questioned the irrationality of the government, which is trying to forcibly acquire large areas of rich agricultural lands from farmers in other places for setting up SEZs, whereas KGF has 13,000 acres of land, the right infrastructure and manpower that can readily service different industries.

Some of the girls interviewed spoke bitterly about their lost opportunities as they were meritorious students and had gained admission to professional courses like engineering but had to forego their studies due to the financial crises suffered by their families. All through the field visit the study team got the impression that workers, officers and the youth were all living in hopeful anticipation of the mine being opened once again and the families getting back to the golden days of BGML.

Therefore, most of the families have remained in KGF awaiting the revival of the mines or hoping that the government will come to their rescue with other industries. The workers' unions claim that they are now under a united federation and confident of negotiating with the government for a revival and are preparing the youth to be the next generation of mine workers. However, differences were visible; the political environment of the unions and the government stance makes it seem that it is unlikely that a constructive alternative for the youth is possible in the immediate future. The youth have paid a heavy price for the political dead-end created by the KGF mine closure.

Health Impacts

The two most glaring problems that were identified were the occupational illnesses related to gold mining and the social ills related to closure. The workers interviewed admitted that almost all of them who worked underground suffered from silicosis and tuberculosis. Earlier they were treated in the company hospital and they reported that death due to silicosis was experienced quite frequently. However, after the mine closed down and so also the hospital, the ex-workers suffering from these illnesses today do not have medical facilities. The government PHC in KGF is unable to meet the medical

Closed BGML Hospital in Kolar township which provided free medical services for workers and their famililes (Photo June 2009)

requirements of the township as well as the general public of the *taluka* as it is highly understaffed. The Medical Officer reported that the workers mainly suffer from respiratory illnesses, chronic bronchitis, asthma, tuberculosis (TB) and silicosis although the latter is not an officially confirmed diagnosis as most silicosis patients, to the convenience of the state and the industry, are diagnosed with tuberculosis. The health problems of the children, as reported by the Medical Officer relate to respiratory illnesses, skin diseases, bronchitis and malaria. The Medical Officer also stated that there were cases of HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD) but it was hard to state whether they were from the township or outside as the workers do not have a separate hospital now. The workers' families are unable to meet the medical expenses, so some of the workers' unions are voluntarily helping the families in accessing medical facilities. Therefore the burden of supporting the families has fallen on the youth again.

The mine tailings or the cyanide hill as it is popularly known is located in the center of the township. Ironically, while it has created a peculiar aesthetics for tourism and the film industry, the workers and the Medical Officer interviewed, were suspicious that some of the health problems could be related to radiation or dust pollution associated with the mine tailing or the cyanide hill. While media reports in the past indicate probable health problems, there has been no scientific study done to take any safety precautions or protection of the environment and water bodies.

Cyanide heap in the middle of Kolar township–the controversial hill that is supposed to be causing radiation (Photo June 2009)

Access to Water

Water scarcity is one of the most serious problems reported by the people who state that while they live above gallons of accumulated groundwater from the aquifers ruptured by the mining activity, they do not have access to safe drinking water. Water shortage is felt round the year and as they have to pay for the water supplied to them, the sanitation and hygiene of the township is of serious concern.

Conclusions

KGF was a public sector mining company, yet it could not set any practice for a comprehensive mine closure. The government simply walked away from the problem with justified grounds of lack of unity among the unions. Mining is a sector with high economic stakes and with the strongest risk to democracy as decisions are made on the basis of muscle power rather than on behalf of the good of the majority, whether during the course of mining or post-mining. KGF is a standing example of this fix. Although there is no other community living here other than the workers' community, no definitive future plan has emerged so far that the government can set as a precedent for private companies to follow. As India rushes into public-private partnerships and privatisation of the mining sector, accountability from mining companies during or after a mining project, its specific impacts on children and youth, has little demands, expectations, regulations or monitoring that can ensure socio-economic viability post-mining.

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Bellary: Children Behind the Iron Curtain-Too Many Irons in the Fire to Save Them

"Red people, red dust, red water, red trees, red animals and the village itself has turned into a red village". In the morning we wake up with dust, we eat dust, drink dust and sleep with dust, our life is only about red dust"

Source: Complaint from people interviewed in Kallali village, Hospet, June 2009

Hospet is a small town in Bellary district known for its large reserves of iron ore and manganese. It is a haven for illegal mining and is a standing example of how the power of the mining mafia has reached uncontrollable limits inspite of wide media exposes, political imbroglios and human rights campaigns. The open opulence of mine owners most boastfully described through the number of helicopters owned in this region stares arrogantly against the stark poverty, hunger, destroyed lands, ruined agriculture and mangled social fabric. Most of all it stares unrepentantly at the terrified child, who breaks the iron ore stones across miles of illegal mines, ruthlessly obscured by the impenetrable nexus of the mining industry and the politician whose influence over governance and administration is known to be beyond just the Bellary district or even that of Karnataka.

Bellary, Sandur and Hospet *taluks* have, over the last few decades, changed the ecology and economy of the region by setting up iron ore mining extraction and refining projects. These are, to a large extent, serviced by migrant populations who come from Chitradurg, Raichur and Koppal in Karnataka and from the neighbouring state of Andhra Pradesh. The areas visited for the field survey were Kallali, Danapur, Sankalapuram, Kariganuru, Jambunathagudda, Mariyammanahalli, PK halli, Rajapura, Sultanpura, Torangallu and Bellary. We found several violations on the rights of the children living and working in the mining sites, slums and villages here.

The companies are mainly private operators with a few public sector companies like the National Mineral Development Corporation (NMDC). However, there are more illegal mines than legal ones operating in the district. The mining boom led to a scramble for mining with small contractors and even farmers themselves converting vast areas of agricultural lands into mine pits in a very erratic, uncontrolled and indiscriminate manner.

Migrant workers live in small plastic tents no larger than 3–5 sq ft in size, at the mine site, Sandur. (Photo December 2009)

For instance, in Jambunathagudda, a small village near Hospet, we found over 100 acres of land being used for small-scale illegal mining. We visited three sites here where mainly migrant labour from Koppal, Chitradurg and Gulbarga were working. The people reported that there were atleast 40 illegally operating mines here but the numbers had reduced due to the economic recession. All the 20-odd migrant families live in makeshift tents made of plastic sheets, provided by the contractor. They have no electricity, drinking water or basic amenities. Their ration cards are of their native village, hence they can only purchase from the private shops. None of the children here attend school, but they help their parents in the mines. Each family earns Rs.1,500 per week.

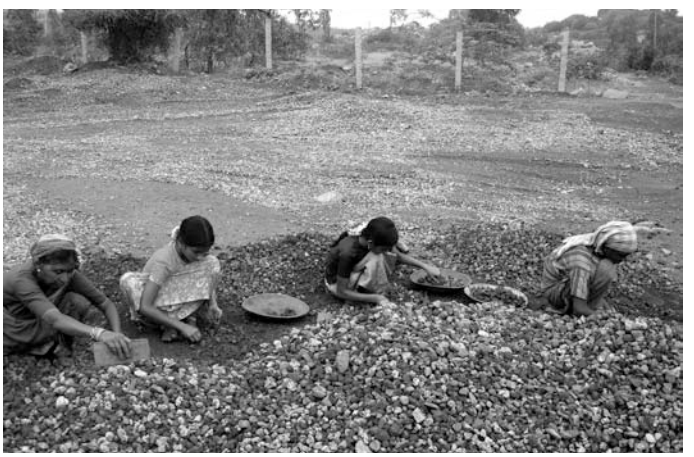
Child Labour

It is difficult to give an exact figure for child labour, but one has to only visit Hospet and spend a whole day walking through the mines, and it is obvious that there are a large

Children of migrant families work at crushing site, This one is in a crushing unit at Hospet (Photo June 2009)

number of children working in the mines and in other non-mining activities. Many of the children are from migrant families. Some of the migrant families have settled down in the slums in Hospet while many migrate only seasonally for mine labour. Children are engaged in breaking of stones, digging, dumping and also in cleaning of trucks. Many, as they live on the site and accompany their parents, start working even at the age of five and six and are adept at their work by the age of 10. Boys from the age of 12 start taking on the more difficult work of breaking the larger boulders and stones while the girls are engaged in breaking these into small stones, powdering them into iron ore filings and in loading activities. The average earning of the children working in mining activities ranges between Rs.80 and Rs.100 per day.

Sandur is known for almost every inch of land being taken on lease by small contractors for iron ore mining. The local people from the mine site visited by us said that, in an area of 20–30 acres there were about 100 illegal mines. In each mine site 7–8 workers were found, mainly women and girls. According to the owner of a mine interviewed, thousands of small contractors sell their iron ore to Obulapuram mining company, which is just 5 km away, at a rate of Rs.4,000 per truck. We found small girls even of the age of 5 years working in these mine sites and when questioned, the mine owner had a straight reply, that as they supply ore to Obulapuram, they do not have to deal with the law or police as these are 'taken care' of by the company.



Young girls are engaged in sorting and breaking of iron ore, working 8 hours a day, at Kariganuru, Hospet (Photo December 2009)

Migrant women and their small children working at an illegal mining site in Sandur (Photo January 2010)

In Sankalapuram young girls between the age of eight and 18 who were interviewed near the mines, said that there are about 100 crushers as far as they understand and there are 20 to 25 girls working in each site. Their work time is between 5.00 am and 12.00 pm and they earn Rs.100 or Rs.110 per day because of which parents force the girls to work in the mines.

Kariganuru is a village close to the national highway where there is rampant illegal mining. The people interviewed stated that there are more than 1,500 families living here who are engaged as mine labour. At the time of our visit, there were several girls between the ages of 10 and 15 years, working in the mine sites. The girls sort the stones and separate them while the older women break the stones. The villagers said that there are atleast 500 girls working in the mines and every family has, on an average, two boys involved in mining related work from this village.

The major escape route for mine owners and contractors where child labour is concerned is the firm (desperate) cooperation of the families themselves as they cannot survive without the wages of the children. Many of the children we saw in the slums had single parents, widowed mothers or bed-ridden parents because of which they had no choice but to leave school and work either in the mines or elsewhere. Every contractor or middle man interviewed spoke as if they took pity on the families and allowed the children to work as a gesture of charity.

The economic meltdown in the iron ore industry globally has affected Bellary as the number of children working in the mines seems to have reduced since our fact-finding study in 2005. However, during the field visits we found that business was picking up again with trucks moving around and women and children being called for work by the contractors, even discreetly at night, as work goes on illegally.

The Condition of Children Living in Hospet Slums

Hospet town has more than 70 slums, which spread largely due to the mining activities. Sakhi, a local organisation working with the mine workers and communities, undertook a random survey in 14 slums and villages around Hospet to get a glimpse into children not attending school. Table 2.01 gives some data regarding out-of-school children in Hospet.

Table 2.01: Details of out-of-school children in Hospet

Sl.	Village name	Male	Female	Total	Nature of work
1	88 Muddapura	13	23	36	Mine labour, working in small hotels, building construction labour, staying at home
2	Danapura	26	4	30	Ore loading, domestic labour, agriculture labour
3	Joga	12	16	28	Ore loading, domestic labour, agriculture labour
4	Hanumanahalli	19	14	33	Agriculture labour, child marriage, mine labour
5	Sankalapura	12	14	33	Mine labour, agriculture labour
6	Danayakanakere	7	19	26	Not working
7	Kariganuru	17	20	37	Loading, driver, cleaner, staying at home, domestic labour
8	PK halli	13	7	20	Staying at home, mine labour, domestic labour
9	MM halli	23	24	47	Agriculture, mine labour, building contruction, staying at home, shepherd,mentally challenged
10	SR Nagar	9	13	22	Selling pots, working in hotels, child marriage
11	AS Gudi	6	7	13	Staying at home, agricultural labour, mine labour
12	Riyaz Nagar	18	9	27	Factory labour, domestic labour, auto drivers
13	BTR Nagar	12	6	18	Building construction, mentally challenged, staying at home, auto drivers
14	Chittavadgi	9	8	17	Helpers in roadside shops, domestic labour
	Total	**196**	**184**	**367**	

Source: Survey undertaken by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet, October 2009

This survey is just a small sample of the larger picture of the children living in the slums of Hospet. The survey was conducted in these slums and surrounding villages to understand the background of the children who have dropped out of school and reasons for this drop-out. Almost all the children surveyed are from mine workers' families, either one or both parents working in the mines or having worked in the past. The children stated that they do not attend school because of financial problems in the family, death of one or both parents, seasonal migration or the need to earn a daily wage for their survival. Most of the parents of these children are either mine workers or coolies (loaders) in the railway station where most of the iron ore loading takes place. Majority of the children interviewed were from SC and ST families. Some of the children of mine workers' families were found working as coolies in the railway station, as stone pickers in the mines or in other odd jobs or as domestic labour in the town. In four of the slums we visited in Hospet, the situation was similar. Several children just stay at home or work as domestic maids or are hired by vendors, shop keepers or hotels. Out of 25 children interviewed in one slum, eight children said they live with their family in a rented house, two families live in tents (*kaccha house*), and other children live with their family in their own house. The common illnesses we found in these children are fevers, cold, body pain, malaria, diarrhoea and respiratory problems. Constant illness due to the hazardous work and expenditure on medicines and private hospitals were stated to be a major reason for indebtedness.

Children of mine workers in Hospet slum–many children work in garages, tea stalls, mine sites, as truck cleaners coolies,loaders, domestic labour (Photo January 2010)

The Status of Schools and Education in the Mining Area

The Bellary district statistics show that a total of 9,233 children were out of school in the year 2006, 5,198 children were out of school in the year 2007 and 4,581 children were out of school in the year 2008.[28] However, these district figures are grossly underestimated as, from a very small random survey, we found that in Hospet alone, there were 367 children not going to school.

The primary school in Valmikinagar, Kariganuru has 105 children enrolled. There are only three teachers for classes I to V and four classrooms of which one is damaged due to mine blasting activities happening nearby. According to the headmaster only 80–85 children attend school regularly but almost every child is absent for atleast 2 days in a week. He said that most of them work in the mines with their parents and earn Rs.50 per day. As most of the children enrolled here are migrant labour from Cuddapah and Kurnool districts of Andhra Pradesh, the children find it difficult to study in Kannada (local language) medium, which is another cause for them dropping out. The poor infrastructure with children of different classes having to sit together and lack of teachers are other reasons for children not wanting to attend school.

Classroom of Valmikinagar primary school damaged due to mine blasting operations near Kariganuru, Hospet, Karnataka (Photo January 2010)

Loading activities take place just behind the school and children disappear during school hours or during lunch break for loading work as they can earn Rs.15 each. The local school teacher said that even children of classes II and III go for mining work and are absent from school regularly. Apart from mining activities, the children of this school are also working in the garages and hotels on the highway. Moreover, continuous blasting just near the school creates noise pollution disturbing the classes and leaves a layer of red dust on the children, their food and books. The blasting operations and the proximity to the highway, makes the school a dangerous location for children. The school also does not have a boundary wall. The school authorities say that they have put a requisition to the education department for shifting the school to a safer location, but there is no action taken so far.

In one slum in Hospet, 15 out of the 25 children interviewed were from SC families and of these, nine children had never attended school, the main reason being mining, ill-health and poverty. In Sultanpura village, there are three power projects owned by the Jindals and KMMI. One of the plants has been set up just 200m from the primary school. There are 103 children in the age group of 6–14 but only 61 children attend the primary school. Of these there are only 13 children from SC community, the reason for this being that *dalit* children are working as child labour in the mines, as explained by the local organisation Rural Education Action Development Society (READS). The headmaster said that the children in the school are always complaining of throat infections due to the high levels of dust from the mines. The school has only two permanent teachers but at the time of the visit only the headmaster was present and the other two teachers were on leave. The infrastructure too was poor and the school had no drinking water, toilet or proper classrooms (two classes were taken together by one teacher). The safety of the children did not seem to be a concern for the authorities inspite of the dilapidated condition of the building.

28 Bellary District Statistics, 2006 Sarva Siksha Abhiyan

In Kallali village, where there are 200 families, the problems are similar to Kariganuru where the people are suffocating with the iron ore dust and are living in appalling conditions. Here also the school is located dangerously close to the road where the dust, blasting and traffic of heavy vehicles are always a threat to the safety and health of the children. It is an irony that there is a boundary wall that provides no protection to the school. In the entire stretch of the highway between Hospet and Kallali village we found children working in the tea stalls, cycle shops, hotels and even in the private dispensaries rather than in the school. As Dr. Shankar C. Nair of the Community Health Centre (CHC), Hospet stated,

"Children are working everywhere, it is difficult to give an exact number. Rather, what is required is the acknowledgement of the alarming situation of the children working and living here."

Ironically, we found a child working in his own clinic, helping in the clinic activities.

The people in Kariganuru reported that although there is a local primary school, only children from the economically stable families attend school and only about 25 boys attend college in the nearby town of Hospet.

Children in Tent Schools

Organisations based in the area, like READS and Social Economical Educational Develeopment Society (SEEDS), run tent schools for children of mine workers, particularly the migrant families who have no access to regular schools. According to a survey conducted by READS in May 2009, there are 1,307 children out of school from 27 villages in Sandur *taluk*, and majority of these children are working in the mines.

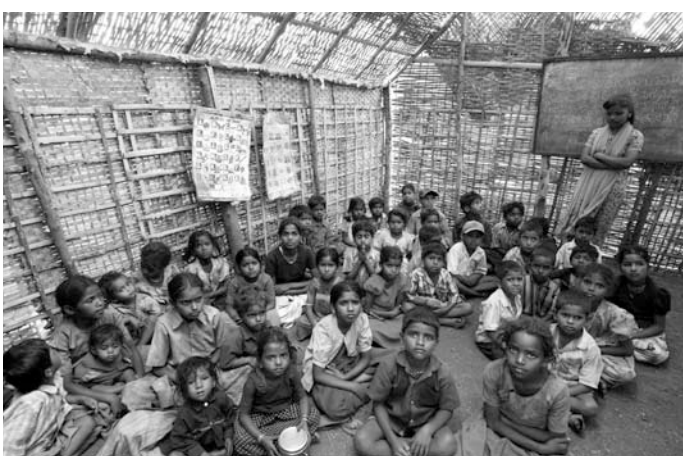
In Neerahalli village there are 40–42 families hired by contractors to work in illegal mines. The tent school has very young children who used to work in the mines until READS provided them this opportunity. Shivganga is an 8 year old girl who worked in the mines with her mother and also took care of her younger siblings. Bharati is another migrant girl who never went to school but has to continue working in the mines part time while she attends the tent school for a few hours each day. She earns Rs.30–40 per day for breaking iron ore and this money is important for her mother to raise the family. A 12 year old boy has to tend to cattle, so he has found his own solution—he sends the cattle to the grazing area near

Children of mine workers in a tent school at Neerahalli, Sandur run by READS, with support from TDH, Germany (Photo January 2010)

the tent school and keeps an eye on them while he attends the school. His parents work as daily wage labour in the mines.

These are just a few examples of the background of the children who come to the tent schools. Yet, while they provide a temporary relief from the mines, these schools are not an alternative to formal education that every child has a fundamental right to, nor do they keep the children away from mining work. Children such as these do not figure in the child labour statistics as they are attending school, but their part time work is not accounted for.

In the survey conducted by READS in 27 villages of Sandur *taluk* with respect to children of mine workers and on children not attending school, a total of five *gram panchayats* were covered having 27 villages and 3,665 families.



Tent School for Children of Mine Workers, run by SEEDS, Sandur with support from TDH, Germany–children attend the school and also work in the mines Photo taken by SEEDS

Table 2.02 shows the situation of children who come to the tent schools in this area while they also work either in the mines or in other activities at home or outside in Sandur.

Table 2.02: Survey on children not attending school in Sandur

Sl. No.	Description	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Total children	3,876	3,659	7,535
2	Regular school-going children	3,187	3,045	6,232
3	Age wise			
	• 3–5 years	980	885	1,865
	• 6–14 years	2,113	2,149	4,262
	• 15–18 years	783	625	1,408
4	School drop-out children	689	614	1,303
5	Nature of work			
	• Mines	250	186	436
	• Cattle grazing	110	30	140
	• Caring for siblings	133	278	411
	• Bonded labour	2	0	2
	• Agricultural work	194	120	314
	• Handicraft	49	18	67

Source: Data collected by local organisation READS, Bellary, May 2009

Thimmalapura is a small village of 20 SC and ST families in Sandur *taluk*. All families are migrants who have been living here for the last 4 years. In Thimmalapura camp school there were 40 children out of which 13 children were reported to be malnourished, by the teachers. The rest appear to be equally malnourished and anaemic. The survey done by READS shows that 39 children have dropped out of the primary school, which is located 4 km away from here in Metriki village. The tent school teacher said that the children suffer constantly from malaria, jaundice, cough and fevers, and they come to school with skin infections and rashes. The auxiliary nurse cum midwife (ANM) was said to visit them once a month for health check-up. The older boys from here work as truck drivers and cleaners as NMDC and Obulapuram mines are very close to this area.

Anganwadis

Very few mine workers' colonies have access to *anganwadis*. Where they exist, the infrastructure and facilities are far from satisfactory to cater to the needs of the children below 6 years. For example, in Rajapura there are 118 children in the age group of 1–6 years. Of the 40–42 children who attend the *anganwadi*, the records showed that 15 children suffer from Grade I malnourishment and 25 children are in Grade II level. The sanitation of the *anganwadi* including the kitchen was extremely poor and looked as if cooking a meal here would lead to food poisoning or ill-health of the children. The *anganwadi* has a toilet that cannot be used. The sewage water drains in front of the school serving as a breeding ground for mosquitoes. Some youth were found to be gambling with the money they just earned from the mining trucks, right outside the *anganwadi* with the *anganwadi* children peering over them with curiosity. The children reported that the only frequent visitor to the *anganwadi* is a snake that comes through the crack in the walls. The whole atmosphere reflected how the life of the children in the mining area was insecure and unhealthy, both physically and socially.

A group of youth gambling in front of the *anganwadi* with children as audience, at Rajapura in Sandur (Photo December 2009)

Child hanging to the weighing scale, which was lying rusted, at Sultanpura *anganwadi*. No record of children's growth maintained (Photo December 2009)

The *anganwadi* in Sultanpura showed 66 children enrolled although there are 85 children below 6 years of age in the village. On the day of our visit there were only 17 children present and the teacher hastily came to the *anganwadi*, upon hearing that a team was visiting. There were no records maintained by the teacher here and she could only show empty files. There were no educational materials found, and even the basic kits were not available. On our insistence, the helper took out the weighing scale which had no suspension belt to hold the children. The teacher asked the children to hang on to the hooks when we requested for them to be weighed. There was a space called a toilet but it was being used to store firewood. The taps had no running water and the general sanitation of the *anganwadi* was abysmal. The majority of the children looked very anaemic but as the *anganwadi* teacher is too careless to maintain any records, we could not get accurate data.

Health Problems

Dr. Shankar Nair of CHC hospital in Hospet said that most of the patients who come to the hospital were migrant mine workers whose economic condition is too poor to help them maintain a basic level of good health. He said that they suffered from TB, malaria, pneunomocosis, lung and skin diseases, and asthma. HIV/AIDs have increased after mining activities reached a peak.

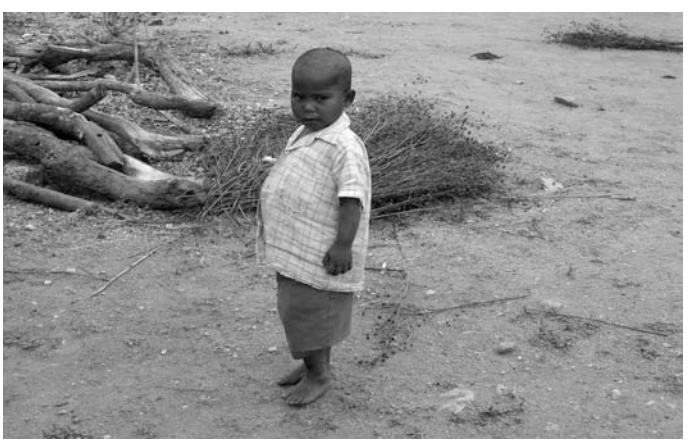
The doctors at the CHC in Toranagallu, Sandur, gave their medical observations of the health problems in the *taluk*. They felt that the large number of steel plants set up in Sandur have created air pollution with toxic fumes from the chimneys causing allergies and infections to the people in the surrounding areas. Children particularly, are exposed to this from birth and are therefore, having respiratory illnesses. The CHC records here show 59 cases of TB and 51 cases of HIV/AIDS, most of whom were mine workers. The hospital

Toilet being used to keep firewood at Sultanpura *anganwadi* in Sandur (Photo December 2009)

also commonly has cases of kidney stones from the areas close to the mine sites. The overall diagnosis of the doctors of the CHC shows that malnutrition is high among the mine workers and their children. The big companies like the Jindals run hospitals but they do not service the communities or workers as the medical costs here are high and only meant for the upper strata of the society in this area.

In Rajapura village, according to the *anganwadi* worker, 25 persons have TB, all of whom were working in the mines. Due to the hazardous nature of the work and physical strain, almost all the workers are addicted to some form of drugs, tobacco or alcohol. Even young children, mostly boys, are addicted to drugs in order to withstand the strenuous work and body pains. The easy access to drugs, supplied by peddlers who are known to have the blessings of mine owners, contractors and police, creates a vicious nexus that is an outright violation of the safety and security of the children of Bellary.

Kariganuru village has 7–8 private clinics which reflect the high rate of illnesses here. Although there was a government TB hospital, it is closed now. The common diseases found in



Malnourished child in a mining affected colony (Photo December 2009)

the village were cough, eye infections, fevers, allergies while chronic respiratory illnesses, malaria, TB were also reported. People also reported that there were many accidents near the village due to the heavy flow of trucks on the highway.

The village Neerahalli has no public services like electricity, drinking water, Public Distribution System (PDS), road, water or housing for the mine workers. They are not enlisted in the *gram panchayat*. There is no government school or *anganwadi* nearby and the PHC is 10 km away but the roads are in no condition for sick people, especially pregnant women, to travel. Similar is the condition of the villagers in Thimmalapura where, in addition to lack of basic services, there is a problem of flourosis. Here children and adults complain of joint pains. Four persons in this village have TB. The daily wage is Rs. 80 which is far from sufficient to provide for a basic diet of dal and vegetables. So the staple diet here is just rice and jowar rotis.

The dust pollution and depletion of groundwater forced many small farmers to sell their land to mining contractors as agriculture was made unviable. This has badly affected their food security and livelihood because of which children are directly affected in their health and nutrition. Many farmers themselves have been forced into mine labour with their entire families. This has affected the education of children and school drop-out is visible among local children whose villages surround the mining activities. Even if they do not work in the mining activities, the severe dust pollution and contaminated water have affected the general health of children. The doctors and chemist stores that we interacted with in Hospet, stated that chronic respiratory illnesses, allergies, lung diseases, diarroeah and asthma have increased among children not only of mine workers but of the general public.

Contaminated water having iron ore waste, the only sources of water for bathing, washing and drinking, Sandur (Photo December 2009)

Conclusions

Bellary district is a standing example of the indiscriminate and illegal mining, and how the entire governance machinery is made ineffective in dealing with the problems. It is also a glaring example of how such large numbers of children are working in stark daylight and yet, the helplessness of the people, the state and the civil society are clearly evident. It is an area that was once rich in agriculture and is today, totally destroyed by mining, over a large area. However, the recent political and bureaucratic pressures that are being brought on the mining activities hold hope. Bellary provides a strong reason for addressing the glaring loopholes in the law that related to private and small-scale/rat-hole mining, the need to develop guidelines for migrant labour and unorganised sector and the pre-conditions that need to be fixed before mining leases are granted. An urgent comprehensive assessment of the status of children of mine workers as well as of local communities and the status of the institutional structures for children have to be immediately taken up. Foremost is the need for strengthening the campaign against child labour in this region.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The above case studies were done mainly in partnership with Sakhi, an organisation working for the rights of women and children based in Hospet, Bellary. We would like to thank Dr. Bhagyalaxmi and her team for working with us all through the case study and in conducting field interviews on our behalf. We also wish to thank the organisations READS, SEEDS and Don Bosco for all their help in compiling information).

Rangamma's story: stone quarrying in India
February 3, 2010

Read Rangamma's story below and find out how you can help the Because I Am Girl campaign.

"My parents came here to Bangalore after working for two years close to our native place ," says Rangamma. "I couldn't go to school as my mother had to work and I had to look after the kids. Now mother is home I am working with appa (father). We wake up at 6am and I wash the dishes…. I help appa by breaking stones, filling them in the baskets and loading them into the trucks. We get 600 rupees for one lorry tipper. But we pay for the explosives used to blast the rocks. So appa makes 1000 to 1200 rupees (about $US20 dollars) a week."

Girls such as Rangamma regularly work up to 14 hours a day engaged in back-breaking work – digging, breaking and loading stones. They also help to process the ore in toxic and hazardous environments, without safety equipment.

"When we start we have a lot of blisters. Gradually they go away and the skin on your palms becomes harder," Rangamma confides. "The dust gets into your eyes and they become infected. We put some medicine. It goes away."

http://www.essentialbaby.com.au/parenting/my-life/rangammas-story-stone-quarrying-in-india-20100203-nbvq.html

Coal Pollution and India's Crippled Children
Wednesday 2 September 2009

There has been a dramatic rise in the number of Indian children being born with crippling birth defects as a result of massive levels of uranium pollution from coal-fired power stations. For some, their heads are too large or too small or their brains haven't developed properly most will live sub-standard lives and will die young. India has been hiding these crippled children, the victims of pollution, from the world and only now can the world see the full extent of this pollution horror.

Health workers from the Punjabi cities of Bathinda and Faridkot knew something was wrong when they saw a sharp increase in the number of birth defects, physical and mental abnormalities, and cancers among children. They suspected that children were being slowly poisoned. When a visiting scientist from South Africa arranged for tests to be carried it was found that the children had massive levels of uranium in their bodies, in one case more than 60 times the maximum safe limit.

If a few hundred children – spread over a large area – were contaminated, how many thousands more might also be affected throughout India?

http://www.ourfutureplanet.org/news/288-coal-pollution-and-indias-crippled-children

Uranium traces in Punjab children
30th April 2009 | Down To Earth | Savvy Soumya Misra

THEY are 149 in all—mostly children below 13 and a few adults. They are being treated for autism, cerebral palsy and mental impairment at the Baba Farid Centre for Special Children in Faridkot, Punjab. They are mostly from Punjab though there are some from Tamil Nadu, West Bengal and even abroad. They are in the spotlight now because traces of uranium have been found in hair samples of most of them.

"I am distressed that uranium has been found in the samples. I don't know what will happen to my child now," said Devinder Singh, father of seven-year-old Yuvaraj, who is being treated at the centre for cerebral palsy.

"Tests need to be done to see if uranium is one of the causes of autism," said Harish Babu, naturopath at the centre where treatment is done through naturopathy, neurotherapy and yoga.

http://www.downtoearth.org.in/full6.asp?foldername=20090430&filename=news&sec_id=4&sid=5

Maharashtra

State Overview

Maharashtra, the third largest state in India in terms of area, has a population of 96,878,627[29] (which is 9.4 per cent of India's total population). This makes the state the second most populated, after Uttar Pradesh. The state has a very large migrant population. Maharashtra is highly urbanised, with 42 per cent of the population residing in urban areas (the national level is around 28 per cent).[30] One of the richer states, with a GSDP for 2007-08 estimated at Rs. 5,910 billion, Maharashtra contributes about 13 per cent to the national income.[31]

Agriculture remains Maharashtra's largest employment sector, with around 55 per cent of the population directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture and allied activities for their livelihood.[32] This is then followed by industry. However, agriculture has not made the state self-sufficient in food grains. Instead, the tilt towards commercial crops has given rise to the agro-processing industry, though mostly limited to sugarcane and, to some extent, cotton and lately fruits and vegetables.[33] This focus on sugarcane in turn has reduced the scope for equity in sharing a precious resource—water for irrigation. Only 14.5 per cent of the net sown area (total crop area) in Maharashtra is irrigated, which renders the agricultural sector vulnerable to droughts. This is evident from the periodic fluctuations in farm output, which in a normal year produces only about 90 per cent of the state's food grain requirements.[34] As a result, the rural population is subject to a high degree of instability in income and, hence, forced into working as marginal labour and migrating to urban areas, such as Mumbai.

According to the Census 2001, 10.2 per cent of Maharashtra's population constitute SCs and 8.9 per cent are STs (the national averages being 16.2 per cent SCs and 8.2 per cent STs). The vast majority of the SC and ST population live in the rural areas of Maharashtra and are largely dependant on agriculture as their main source of income.

The poverty estimates provided by the Planning Commission, Government of India reveal that the poverty ratio in the state is 30.7 per cent, higher than the all-India average of 27.5 per cent. In absolute numbers, the population below the poverty line in Maharashtra stands third amongst major states in the country, after Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.[35]

The provision for healthcare in Maharashtra has struggled to keep up with the growth in the state's population. While the population has been rapidly increasing, the number of hospitals has actually gone down slightly from 1,102 in 2001 to 1,099 in 2007. However, the average life expectancy in Maharashtra is slightly higher than the national average, at 67.9 years as opposed to 65.8 for males and 71.3 years as opposed to 68.1 for females.[36] The number of deaths related to malaria has been on the rise though, from 61 recorded

29. Census of India, 2001.
30. Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2008-09. pp. 1. http://mahades.maharashtra.gov.in/files/noticeboard/eco_srurvy_2008-09_English.pdf.
31. Ibid.
32. Ibid.
33. Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2008-09.
34. Human Development Report Maharashtra (2002), Prepared for the Government of Maharashtra. pp.4.
35. Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2008-09. pp. 178. http://mahades.maharashtra.gov.in/files/noticeboard/eco_srurvy_2008-09_English.pdf
36. Ibid, pp. 209.

deaths in 2004 to 174 deaths in 2007.[37] There were 206 deaths officially recorded due to pulmonary tuberculosis in 2007 in Maharashtra as well,[38] though the actual figure may be much higher.

Literacy levels in Maharashtra are relatively higher as well (at 76.88 per cent) as compared to the national average (66 per cent).[39] Within the literacy levels however, there appears to be a serious gender divide—85.97 per cent of the male population were found to be literate, compared to just 67.03 per cent of the female population. There are also wide disparities amongst social groups, with literacy rates substantially lower amongst the ST and SC population. According to a survey conducted by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) on 'Participation and Expenditure in Education' during 2007-08, the female literacy rate for STs in rural areas was a mere 47 per cent.

Status of Children

According to the Census 2001, children (age group 0 to 14 years) constitute 32 per cent of the total population of the state. The child sex ratio in the 0–6 year age group, with 917 girls per 1,000 boys, is lower than the national figure of 927. Maharashtra's lower than national average sex ratio in the 0–6 population could be due to the strong son preference, female foeticide and neglect of the girl child after birth with consequent higher infant and child mortality. [40]

Maharashtra is facing a problem of out-of-school children due to various reasons such as unsuitable school timings, migration of children with their parents, difficulty in enrolling drop-out students in regular schools, etc.[41] According to official figures, there were 70,087 children aged between 6 and 14 years out of school in the state, as of March 2008.[42] However, according to Pratham's ASER 2008 survey, 1.5 per cent of children in that age group remain out of school, suggesting that the actual figure might be much higher than this.

Economic marginalisation is the prime reason behind a rapidly increasing sex-worker population in Maharashtra as well. According to estimates done in 2004 by Mukherjee, in a study supported by Ministry of Women and Child Development, 25 per cent of female prostitutes were under the age of 18.[43] According to the Census 2001, the number of children between 5 and 14 years working as child labour in the state was 392,186 main workers and 371,889 marginal workers. A large number of young girls and children reach India's trade capital, Mumbai, after being trafficked from some of the most backward—often coinciding with mining—regions in the country.

Child health outcomes in Maharashtra have only slightly improved in recent years. According to the the NFHS-3 the IMR fell from 44 in 1998-99 to 38 in 2005-06. The percentage of children below the age of three who are underweight has also decreased from 50 in 1998-99 to 40 in 2005-06. However, the trend in vaccination coverage for children between 12 and 23 months, who received all their vaccines, declined drastically from 78 in 1998-99 to 59 in 2005-06.[44]

Mining in Maharashtra

About 19 per cent of Maharashtra's geographical area is potentially mineral-bearing.[45] The principal mineral-bearing belts in the state are Vidarbha area in the east and Konkan area in the west. The state accounts for 4 per cent of the total forest land diverted for mining in the country.[46] There is, however, no data on how much land has been used for illegal mining. According to the Ministry of Mines, the value of mineral production in Maharashtra in 2007-08 was Rs. 51.1 billion, an increase of 16 per cent from the previous year. The state accounted for around 4.7 per cent of India's mineral production that year.[47] According to statistics released by the Ministry of Labour and Employment, in 2005, the mining sector in Maharashtra employed a daily average of 34,800

37. Compiled from the statistics released by : Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 100, dated 22.11.2006.
38. Ibid.
39. Census of India, 2001.
40. Assessing Vulnerabilities for Trafficking and HIV/AIDS Maharashtra – Draft Report 2005. Shakti Vahini. UNDP Taha Project. Pg. 7.
41. Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2008-09. Pg. 159. http://mahades.maharashtra.gov.in/files/noticeboard/eco_srurvy_2008-09_English.pdf.
42. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008, State-wise Number of Out of School Children (6-14 years Age) in India(As on 31.03.2008).
43. Assessing Vulnerabilities for Trafficking and HIV/AIDS Maharashtra – Draft Report 2005. Shakti Vahini. UNDP Taha Project. Pg. 23.
44. NFHS-3, 2005-06.
45. Analysis by Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 201.
46. MLPC, Organising the Unorganised, Bahar Dutt, 2005; Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 201.
47. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09. pp. 21.

Unsafe working conditions at stone quarries (Photo September 2009)

workers (down from 35,900 in 2004).[48] The 2001 Census indicated that there were a total of 168,112 main and marginal workers in the mining and quarrying sector. [49]

Maharashtra was the largest producer of corundum in 2007-08. The state is also the second largest producer of manganese ore after Orissa.[50] Other major minerals include limestone, bauxite, manganese ore, silica sand and laterite. Undersea oil deposits have also been found off the shores of Mumbai. The Indian mining industry is characterised by a large number of small operational mines. Out of 2,954 reporting mines, 154 are in Maharashtra (making it the ninth largest mining state).[51] While the state is among the top 10 contributors to the total mineral value of the country, the revenue collected by Maharashtra from the industry in the form of royalty, accounts for only 1 per cent of the total revenue receipts of the state.[52]

Sand mining and stone quarrying have been the focal points of Maharashtra's highly unorganised mining sector. These mines have taken a toll on the environment, contributing to pollution, water shortages and even failed crops. The stone quarrying industry alone, hires about 4–5 million workers in the state.[53] Being unorganised, and mostly illegal, it offers no special legal provisions to protect the interests of the workers, who live in dire conditions, with no basic amenities such as drinking water, electricity or health services.

In Pune's Wagholi village, with the help of Santulan, an non-governmental organisation (NGO), the mine workers had to actually take legal action against the government, under the Maharashtra Mining Development Fund resolution of 2002, for a provision as simple as drinking water.[54]

It is difficult to get an estimate of how many children work in the mines in Maharashtra. According to the Census 2001, there were 2,095 children aged between 5 and 14 years, and

Pune district: Key facts	
Total population:	7,232,555 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	2,176,374 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 80.45 per cent Male 88.34 per cent Female 71.89 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children(6–14 years):	0.9 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in *anganwadi* centre (AWC) or pre-school (3–4 years):	89.3 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	35,352 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	4 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

48. Data accessed on indiastat.com; compiled from statistics released by the Ministry for Labour and Employment, Government of India. Selected State-wise Average Daily Employment and Number of Reporting Mines in India. (2002–05).
49. Census of India, 2001.
50. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09. pp. 21.
51. Ibid, pp. 10.
52. MLPC, Organising the Unorganised, Bahar Dutt, 2005; Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008. pp. 202.
53. Ibid.
54. Kulkarni, Madhura. Stone Quarry Workers win the battle for Right to Drinking Water. Oxfam, Australia. http://www.solutionexchange-un.net.in/environment/cr/res03070701.pdf.

Nashik district: Key facts	
Total population:	4,993,796 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	1,737,036 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 74.36 per cent Male 83.65 per cent Female 64.35 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	1.9 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	93.9 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	55,371 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	87 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

11,758 between 5 and 19 years working in the mining sector in Maharashtra in 2001. However, given that the majority of the mining and quarrying in the state is in the unorganised sector, these figures could just be a bubble from the actual troubled waters.

The *Pashan* Children: A 'Stone' Deaf Government Hammers Their Childhood Away

Thirteen year old Santosh (name changed) works in a stone quarry in Moshi village of Pune district. He had to migrate with his family from Nashik and has been working in the quarry for more than a year now. He works from early morning till late in the evening breaking stones and loading them into trucks. He has four siblings one of whom is physically handicapped. He earns Rs.70–90 per day which is desperately needed to keep the family from starvation. When interviewed he said "I always wanted to study but our family is not in a position to send us to school and now it is too late for me to dream about it. I want to work hard so that I can use my wages to send my younger brothers to school".

Source: Interview in Moshi quarry, Pune, September 2009

Child worker in stone quarry in Pune (Photo September 2009)

As India is leap frogging into a frenzied development mode of fast track infrastructure to attract Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and private markets, one of the thrust areas is expansion of roads, national highways, airports, railways, ports and urban infrastructure for industries and for the fast growing urban populations. For example, the planned expansion of national highways of Government of India is an ambitious investment of Rs.2,35,430 crore for the National Highways Development Project. It is proposed that 12,109 km of four-laning, 20,000 kms of two-laning, 6,500 km of six-laning, 1,000 km of expressways, and over 16,600 crores of flyovers, ring roads, etc are planned under the Eleventh Five Year Plan. Further, in order to meet the insatiable energy requirements of the next decade, construction of large dams and power projects is another major area of investment underway.

For all these grandiose plans of India's development, the price paid by the country is, a skyrocketing number of quarries being dug up all over the country, with a high population of migrant and unorganised labour serviced by women and children. Ironically, the inclusive growth targets of India, to match the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are also in the areas of 26 monitorable targets like: (i) income and

poverty, (ii) education, (iii) health, (iv) women and children, (v) infrastructure, and (vi) environment.

There is certainly a mismatch in these development targets vis-à-vis the economic priorities. The case study presented from Maharastra is a standing example of this paradox.

The study was done in Pune and Nashik districts. In Pune two major stone quarries were visited—Wagholi and Shirur. The endless stretches of stone quarries and crushers across Pune and Nashik districts of Maharastra hide the truth behind the supply chain that feed the construction of the highways and the fast growing urban infrastructure, the proud icons of modern economy but no ivory towers for migrant child labour.

Almost all the quarries visited are very big quarries and have been in operation for more than ten years. Normally each quarry has multiple sites scattered around within the lease area with small groups of workers digging and shifting from site to site within this lease area. Sometimes they extend their digging outside the lease area illegally, depending on the mine owner's local muscle power and influence. Pune and Nashik are strategically urban nodes especially with their proximity to Mumbai and the expanding suburban cities. According to Mr. Bastu Rege of Santulan, an organisation that works for the rights of stone quarry workers, there are 500–1,000 quarries in every district. According to the District Mining Officer of Pune, there are 412 stone quarries, but the ground reality reports show that there are double this number operating illegally. It was unofficially accepted that between 25 and 40 per cent of all mines are illegal.

For example, in 1999-2001, the state had 1,777 stone quarries and the revenue collected was to the tune of Rs.1954.09 lakhs (16 districts). In 2008-09, the revenue increased to 2990.32 lakhs (covering only three districts). This increase is a reflection of the increase in the number of stone quarries, which further reflects the increase in unorganised sector workers.

In both the districts, the main caste groups working in the stone quarries are the *Vadar* community, whose traditional occupation is stone-breaking. Also, increasing poverty and failure of agriculture has forced backward castes, mainly the SCs to shift to the mining sector for daily wages. According to Mr. Bastu Rege, the membership in unions that are supported by Santulan constitute 54 per cent from the *Vadar* community and the rest belong to SC, ST and other backward castes (OBCs). Of these, 80 per cent are illiterate. Most of the workers are migrants from within Maharashtra and the neighbouring states of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. Mr. Rege observed that in each quarry, on an average, there are 75 workers.

The Living Conditions of Mine Workers' Children: A Sheet of Plastic Called a House and Six Feet of Living Space

Migrant stone quarry workers' 'houses' surrounded by dust from the quarries (Photo September 2009)

The nine stone quarries visited showed India's dis-respect both to the Constitutional provisions under Article 21 of Right to Life and to the international agreements. It showed how poor and unstable the living conditions of the workers were. If we found any amenities for workers, it was due to the efforts made by Santulan, in getting the workers into assertive collectives. Most of the mine workers' colonies were located away from the main villages, and they were not part of the village community, but settled wherever mine owners allowed them to temporarily set up shacks, close to the mines. In some places, vacant lands were temporarily given to the workers by the local *panchayat*, based on the negotiations between the mine owners and the *panchayat* leaders. Hence, the workers were at the mercy of the village leaders.

Houses are ad hoc shelters made of plastic sheets and quarry stones packed as walls. In a house of 8x10 ft space, or even sometimes 4x6 ft space, 7–10 members of a family are seen to share the space. Most of the cooking and living happens outside these sheds, so the women narrate how mine dust gets mixed with the food that is cooked and how the drinking water they consume, always has a layer of dust.

Water for both drinking and domestic use, is a serious problem for all workers. The workers showed how they collect the water from the mine pits and utilise this for their basic needs. As the workers are at the mercy of the villages, they find it difficult to get a decent share of water even for drinking especially as the villages themselves face water shortages. In

Basic housing and sanitation are absent in stone quarry workers' colonies–children consuming polluted water (Photo September 2009)

Mother awaits child returning home after a hard day's labour in the mines–each hammer weighs more than 10 kgs (Photo September 2009)

most of the sites the women complained that they often fell sick on consuming the water.

Children of the mine workers were found to be scattered all over the mine sites around the shacks, looking dirty and dusty. The mine site is their home, playground, sleeping area and is where the *Pashan Shalas'* (schools for children of quarry workers run by the organisation Santulan) are also located. In all the nine sites visited, we saw children looking unhealthy, suffering from cough, cold, runny noses, fevers, and skin infections. The women said that diarrhoea, jaundice and malaria are the most common health problems of the children, as the water is contaminated and the cesspools in the mine pits are breeding grounds for mosquitoes. There is no sanitation facility, so most of the infants and younger children were seen defecating around the living quarters. For the women, sanitation is a huge problem as there are no toilets and no areas for bathing.

Child labour In the Quarries: It *Exists*

In the nine sites visited, children are attending school only where Santulan, the NGO, runs the *Pashan Shalas*. The *Pashan Shalas* were created to rescue the children from working in the mines and currently there are 2001 children enrolled in these schools, scattered across five districts in Maharashtra. But for this intervention, all these 2001 children would have been working in the quarries or helping their parents in petty chores at the mine sites. At Gore Wasti *Pashan Shala*, the children shared information about their teenage brothers and sisters working in the mines and how most of them had joined work as children. For Santulan, it is difficult to motivate children and adolescents who are already working for some period to join the *Pashan Shalas*, as the lure of instant money, especially for boys, is too difficult to give up. As some of the boys, forced by circumstances, are addicted to *gutka*, gambling, mobile phones, movies and theft/crime, they find school a very boring place. They reported that they work in the tractors, garages, crushing units and in loading. Many of them said they started work as children due to ill-health and indebtedness of parents.

In Sai Stone Quarry (Magoan, Nasik), 60–70 girls out of the 150, are working in the stone crushers, breaking stones and loading. At Mahalaxmi Stone Quarry five children, around 13 years of age, were found to be working and in a nearby quarry, eight children, aged about 10 years, were working at the mine site. The children, who said they were migrants from Bihar, reported that they work in two shifts where four children work in the morning and four in the evening shift. In Matere Stone Quarry, seven children between the ages of 14 and 16 were found working. The women regretted not being able to send their children to the Santulan *Pashan Shalas* as their economic situation was really desperate. Moshi Stone

But for these *Pashan Shala* run by Santulan, children would end up in the mine sites breaking stones (Photo September 2009)

Quarry is a very big area spread over 10 km, and 26 workers' communities are settled here. It was difficult to count the number of children working, due to the presence of mine owners. In Samarth Stone Quarry, it was reported that 30 children were not attending the *Pashan Shala* but going for daily wage labour. In MT Patil Stone Quarry in Nashik, 20 children do not attend the *Pashan Shala*. In the nine stone quarries we found that there were around 352 children who would have all been child labour but for Santulan.

Problems in Attending School

Apart from the economic reason, children do not have education facilities as the colonies of the mine workers are far from the local village. So the school is too far from their homes, for the children. Parents also expressed their fears about the heavy traffic of tractors carrying loads and said that it was not safe for children to walk on these roads. As the parents leave for work in the early hours of the day and only return late in the evening, the older children have the responsibility of their siblings at the house as well as at the mine site, to watch over them for any blasting or hazardous activities in the surroundings. Besides, the children in the age group of 10–13 have to do most of the household chores, and they are always late for school or have to take their siblings along with them. At noon time, many of the children have to take food for their parents to the mine site.

Open cast stone quarries without any protection wall
(Photo September 2009)

Most of the children interviewed had terrifying stories to narrate about their experiences working in the mines, about the death or illness of their parents because of which they had to accompany other adults for work and how the only relief came in the form of the *Pashan Shalas*. For example, a 12 year old girl from Gore Wati said,

"My father died of some illness and therefore I had to go with my mother to the quarry."

and broke down into tears when asked to talk about her work there.

It was not possible to verify the education status of the children in the study area from secondary reports because none of the mine workers' colonies figure in the Census or school education records of the Ministry of Human Resource Development. As the children do not go to the village or *panchayat* schools, we have not included the school data from these government schools. Hence our only means of verification was the statements of the workers' families and interviews with children, which was extremely difficult, given the intimidating atmosphere that the children were working. Alternately, we went through the records of the *Pashan Shalas* run by Santulan as these records give a picture of the mining children who would have been out of school or be child labourers if the *Pashan shalas* did not exist. Table 2.03 provides information on some aspects of enrolment in *Pashan Shalas*.

Migration into the quarry regions in search of work is also a serious concern and affects the education of children. Table 2.04 provides some information on migrant shildren.

Table 2.04 gives a highly underestimated picture of the migrant children in each district in Maharashtra. The experience of Santulan, as reflected in their *Pashan Shala* records, clearly indicates that the situation is far worse than what is officially projected. The Assistant Labour Commissioner of Pune district admitted that it was only because of Santulan that many of the mine workers' children are attending school. They do not have a single NCLP school in Pune. According to him, they can only run an NCLP school if they have a minimum of 50 children at any given place and since this was difficult and as most children work in restaurants, mechanic shops and other petty stores, the government is not running NCLP schools. He informed that the government is taking the initiative to rescue child workers by setting up a task-force with the help of NGOs and child welfare committees, but this was, however, not very evident in the mine sites visited where there was no NGO intervention.

Wages

Mine labour is erratic and economically unviable, most times. Each worker gets Rs. 25–30 for a tractor load of stone, and seven to eight persons work together to fill one tractor. A

Table 2.03: Santulan *Pashan Shala* records of enrolment

S.No.	*Pashan Shala* School	Level of the School	School-going children (6–18 years)	Out-of- school children (6–18 years)	Children going for work (6–18 years)	Mid-day meal facility
1	Vagheshwar *Pashan Shala*	Nursery–class IV	110	None	None	Yes
2	Gore Wasti *Pashan Shala*	Class V–VII	80	None	None	Yes
3	Suyog Nagar *Pashan Shala*	Nursery	50	None	None	Yes
4	Datta Stone Quarry area *Pashan Shala*	Nursery–class IV	45	None	None	Yes
5	Mahalaxmi Stone Quarry *Pashan Shala*	Nursery	11	None	5	Yes
6	Mhatere Stone Quarry *Pashan Shala*	Nursery–class VII	30	None	7	Yes
7	Samarth Stone Quarry *Pashan Shala*	No school	Not a single child is going to school	30	16	No
8	MT Patil Stone Quarry *Pashan Shala* (Nashik)	Newly opened	26	Around 20	8	No
9	Sai Stone Quarry and other stone quarries *Pashan Shala* (Nashik)	New quarry	Not a single child is going to school	--	150	No
	Total		**352**		**186**	

Source: *Pashan Shala* records, Santulan, Pune

Table 2.04: District data on migrant children

Year	Total no. of children	District-wise migrated number of children					Total migration	Percentage
		Pune	Ahmadnagar	Kolhapur	Satara	Sangali		
1997-98	84	21	-	-	-	-	21	25
1998-99	148	26	-	-	-	-	26	18
1999-2000	186	63	-	-	-	-	63	34
2000-01	400	75	-	-	-	-	75	19
2001-02	534	150	-	-	-	-	150	28
2002-03	667	125	16	-	-	-	141	21
2003-04	1,388	352	8	-	-	-	360	26
2004-05	1,882	722	5	138	34	-	949	46
2005-06	2,028	591	13	165	3	20	792	39
2006-07	2,001	670	20	175	20	15	900	45
Total	**9,318**	**2,795**	**62**	**478**	**57**	**35**	**3,477**	**37.31**

Source: Dagad Phool, Santulan, 2007-08

family works as a unit and manages to fill around four tractors per day and earns Rs.700–800 per week per person. There are some variations in wage labour from site to site. In MT Patil Stone Quarry, men are paid Rs.130 per day and women are paid Rs.70, while at Sai Stone Quarry men are being paid Rs.90 per day, women Rs.50 per day and children Rs.30 per day.

Mine Accidents

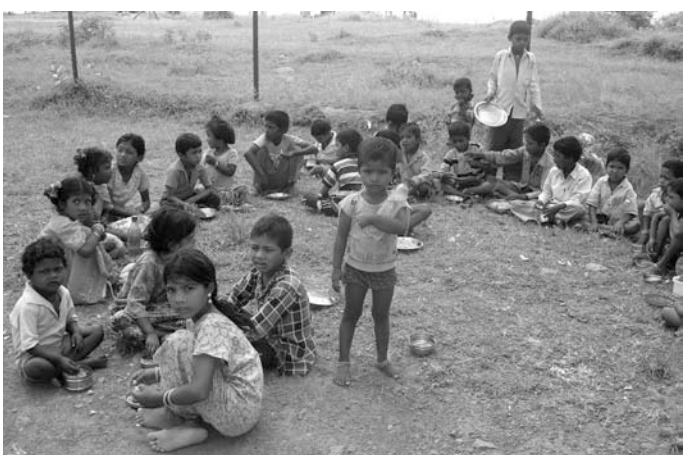
Santulan has recorded 31 cases of mine accidents in four years, of which three cases were reported to be below 18 years of age. However, this data is incomplete and therefore cannot be taken as an accurate reflection of the situation of mine accidents, as records are not being maintained properly either by the mine workers, mine owners or by local organisations. Most of the time, the mine owners provide first-aid and primary treatment but no long term treatment or compensation is provided, however serious the injury. In many cases, workers have been made permanently disabled and could not continue work which pushes the burden of family survival on the children. A 15 year old boy was killed but his family was sent back to their village with a small compensation. This is only a glimpse into the larger situation that could be the reality for stone quarries across Maharashtra.

Health Condition of the Mine Workers and Their Children

Dr. Shitre who is a physician helping Santulan on a voluntary basis, stated that, on an average he treats 200 mine workers per week. He informed that most of the health problems were related to lung diseases and respiratory problems due to the dust from the quarries. He said that workers are found to have all three stages of respiratory illnesses—bronchitis, asthmatic bronchitis and acute asthma. As they have to continue getting exposed to the dust inhalation, they try to get relief from alcohol and smoking but this aggravates the problem. According to the Pune-based Paediatric Unit of DY Patil Medical College, 50 per cent of the mine workers' children have reduced lung functions with symptoms like asthma, tightness in the chest, wheezing, cough and breathlessness. Children exposed to the dust for over 5 years were the most affected. Many of them were exposed to the dust right from birth.[55]

In Suyog Nagar *anganwadi*, records show that, of the 211 children enrolled, 123 children are malnourished, mostly under Grade I. In most of the mining colonies, there are no *anganwadis*, neither are there any crèches at the mine site. So infants are taken to the work place, thereby exposing them to the dust, pollution and risk of accidents, as the parents cannot keep a watch over the children continuously. Table 2.05 gives the *Bal Shikshan Kendras* run by Santulan in the absence of *anganwadi* centres in the mine workers' colonies between 1997 and 2007. This is a very small sample of children below 6 years of age who are not covered under the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) programme which is the basic support institution for nutrition and protection of children. At a state level, there could be a much larger section of this child population who do not have *anganwadis* and therefore, parents are forced to take them to the mine site with no safety or nutrition available for these infants.

Blasting in stone quarry areas at Nashik….unsafe for surrounding villages and mine workers' colonies (Photo September 2009)



Children of *Balshikshan Kendra*–in the absence of *anganwadis*, NGO provides mid-day meal (Photo September 2009)

55. Times of India (Pune) , by Umesh Isalkar 18 November 2009

Table 2.05: *Bal Shikshan Kendras* with children (1997–2007)

Year	Pune		Ahmad Nagar		Kolhapur		Satara		Sangali		Total	
	Cnts	Childn	Cnts	Childn	Cnts	Childn	Cnts	Childn	Cnts	Childn	Cnts	Childn
1997-98	1	35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	35
1998-99	2	51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	51
1999-2000	5	123	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	123
2000-01	9	320	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	320
2001-02	12	362	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	362
2002-03	15	375	1	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	405
2003-04	28	516	1	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	29	540
2004-05	17	464	1	18	1	26	-	-	-	-	19	508
2005-06	17	475	1	20	2	20	-	-	-	-	20	515
2006-07	18	469	-	-	3	88	1	31	3	42	25	630
Total		**3,190**		**92**		**134**		**31**		**42**		**3,489**

Source: Dagad Phool, Santulan, 2007-08

A *Pashan Shala* teacher also observed that many of the children have stunted growth and during summer, due to increase in dust, children suffer from more allergies. In Wagholi there are more than 60 private medical practitioners, which speaks for the high flow of patients from the mining area. They take advantage of the workers' ignorance as well as their desperate plight. A major spending of mine workers' families is reported to be on private medical services and is also the main cause for indebtedness. Dr. Shitre also informed that more than 40 per cent of children are suffering from anaemia and women are suffering from anaemia and prolapsis of uterus. The women constantly complain of back pain, joint pains and dizziness. He stated that TB is mainly found in adults but due to this debilitating condition, children are forced to work in the mines. A lot of the cases of TB are suspected to be/likely to be silicosis, but as there are no facilities for diagnosis, and as there is a lot of arm-twisting by the mining companies to manipulate records, it is difficult to prove this. He also commented that the workers and their children also look much older than their age because of the harsh conditions and poor health.

The PHCs are too far from the mine sites and the workers have to forego their wages for the day and also spend money for the travel and hospital charges. During the field visit, the researchers found atleast three women, in advanced stages of their pregnancy, working in the mines, and all of them reported that they did not get vaccinated as the PHC is too far for them to walk. Dr. Shinde, Medical Officer of Bosri Hospital expressed that it was difficult to provide data for HIV/AIDs and other illnesses of mine workers as most of them are migrant workers.

Migration: A Lack of Identity

Migrant labour is synonymous with quarrying. It creates a nameless community with no certainty of life, with the mine workers' greatest stress being lack of identity, stability and security. This lack of permanency deprives them of many of the basic amenities that are the rights for all citizens. Foremost among these is the problem of ration cards and below poverty line (BPL) cards. Very few own ration cards as they do not belong to the village community and do not have a proper proof of residence. In some sites, the workers informed that the mine owner keeps their rations cards (perhaps with the intention of keeping them bonded) and the mine workers have to purchase their ration in the open market. A 60 year old woman informed us that she finally got her ration card 4 months ago, but the PDS dealer has asked her to come back after 6 months as her name was not yet entered in his records. So mine workers end up spending heavily on paying the revenue staff but wait interminably to get their share of ration. This is also

Table 2.06: Class-wise distribution of *Pashan Shala* children (1997– 2007)

Year /Class	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
1997-98	84	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	84
1998-99	144	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	148
1999-2000	107	79	-	-	-	-	-	-	186
2000-01	332	52	16	-	-	-	-	-	400
2001-02	494	25	15	-	-	-	-	-	534
2002-03	502	146	19	-	-	-	-	-	667
2003-04	1,157	148	47	36	-	-	-	-	1,388
2004-05	1,316	268	134	118	46	-	-	-	1,882
2005-06	1,265	349	202	95	76	21	20	-	2,028
2006-07	1,102	297	189	162	140	79	16	16	2,001
Total	**6,503**	**1,368**	**622**	**411**	**262**	**100**	**36**	**16**	**9,318**

Source: Dagad Phool, Santulan, 2007-08

a reason for these poor families to be spending more on basic food, so therefore, their consumption is much below the basic daily intake required. Many of them stated that they had even stopped consuming tea, which is the most basic commodity, consumed as it keeps their energy high, since the price of sugar had suddenly shot up. The diet of mine workers' children consists of barely two meals of *rotis* with chillies and onions and rarely any vegetables or *dals*. Hence, most of the children seen appeared to be malnourished and anaemic.

Education is also severely affected and is reflected in the retention among children of mine workers. Table 2.06 shows the sharp decrease in class-wise retention among children of mine workers. It reflects on the highly migrant nature of these children who leave the schools because of the migratory pattern of their parents, whose livelihood in the quarries and mines is not guaranteed. Achieving the right to primary education for mine workers' children is a huge challenge, given the highly erratic manner of migration. As stated by Santulan, unlike other sectors where migrant families return to their native villages seasonally, in the mining sector, mine workers shift from one mine to another wherever the contractors find work for them. Therefore, there is no link with their native village for the children and this completely amorphous nature of life and the social disconnect, gives rise to insecurity and the lack of an identity so strongly felt by the mine workers and their children.

Further, a caste-wise break up of children in *Pashan Shalas*—as given in Table 2.07—from the mine workers' clusters, shows that while the *Vadars* are the majority population of mine workers, there is a signification increase in the SCs among the mine worker group. In the past, it was mainly the *Vadar* community who were traditionally involved in stone-breaking acitivities, but the crisis in agriculture in Maharashtra and neighbouring states like Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka forced agricultural labourers from SC communities to shift to mine labour.

Conclusions

The case study of Maharastra clearly brings out the need for addressing the serious violation of rights of the migrant and unorganised sector workers in the mining industry. The link between mining and violation of the rights of children is mainly because of the unviable economics of quarrying and small-scale mining as far as workers are concerned. Their life is bound by a vicious cycle of low wages, hazardous work, uncertain livelihood, poverty, indebtedness, lack of basic facilities, death and, therefore child labour and child abuse. A clear association between landlessness, migration, ad hoc-ness of the mine workers' lives which translates into lack of basic institutions and protections for the children of mine workers, is visible. The shocking state of their housing, lack of access to potable drinking water and lack of institutional support for children—*anganwadis*, primary schools or

Table 2.07: Socio-economic distribution of children in *Pashan Shalas*

District	*Taluk*	No. of stone quarry clusters	No. of centres	No. of children	Caste categories					
					SC	ST	VJ	NT	OBC	Open
Pune	Haweli	6	40	1,268	246	50	710	67	92	103
	Khed	1	6	186	38	--	116	11	15	6
	Shirur	3	4	120	12	--	83	8	14	3
	Daund	1	1	23	7	--	13	2	--	1
Ahamadnagar	Ahamadnagar	3	3	41	17	--	21	--	1	2
	Shrigonda	1	1	10	2	--	7	--	--	1
Kolhapur	Kaveer	1	8	134	21	1	81	8	1	22
	Shirol	1	4	117	52	11	27	2	8	17
Satara	Karad	1	2	37	1	--	34	--	1	1
Sangli	Tasgaon	2	3	19	3	--	8	--	2	6
	Total	**20**	**72**	**1,955**	**399**	**62**	**1,100**	**98**	**134**	**162**

VJ= *Vimukta Jati*; NT=Nomadic tribe

Source: Dagad Phool, Santulan, 2007-08

NCLP schools—to provide nutrition and prevent them from child labour, is seriously missing. NCLP schools, which were conceived to take care of this section of children, were non-existent in the areas visited by us. The health condition indicates a need for urgent action on malnutrition and mine pollution related problems that these children were medically proved to be suffering from. As Maharashtra proceeds with its high growth infrastructure model of development, it has to make a conscious effort at meeting its commitments to the children given in the Eleventh Plan as well as the MDG goals.

To achieve this, unless the regulations regarding quarrying and mining are reviewed to include viable living and working conditions for mine workers, the very economy of mining stands questioned. There have to be strong pre-conditions in terms of responsible mining towards workers as well as the environment, as the current processes of granting mining leases do not bring legally binding accountability. Especially as these are small in size and quantum of work, scattered in nature and therefore also provide scope for unchecked illegal extraction and processing, stringent measures for checks and balances are more necessary in this context. Our recommendations, in the context of small-scale mining and migrant labour, which are presented at the end of the report, are based on our experiences in Maharashtra, and other states that were a part of this study, which have a typical situation with regard to children affected by small scale mines and quarries.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The above case study was done in partnership with Santulan, an organisation working for the rights of mine workers in Maharashtra. We wish to thank Mr. Bastu Rege, Mrs. Pallavi Rege and the team of Santulan for providing us with information and for organising the field visits.)

Children in stone quarries hit by lung disease

Anuradha Mascarenhas | Posted: Jan 05, 2008 at 0000 hrs IST

Pune, January 4 With their play tools being stone, mud and dust, children living in stone quarries in Pune district are exposed to environmental pollutants and face a high risk of chronic lung disease. Checking on the health conditions of children living at stone quarries at Moshi and Moi, some 20 kms away from Pune city, medicos were taken aback at their dismal lung function capacity.

The peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR) of 150 children living at stone quarries at Moshi and Moi were examined and compared to those of children living in urban slum areas near Bhosari. The team of experts from the D Y Patil Medical College, Pimpri, who conducted the study and presented their findings at an international pediatric conference in Athens, were shocked to find a variation among the PEFR rates of children living at stone quarries and in urban slums.

Says Dr Sharad Agharkhedkar, head of the college's Department of Paediatrics, the average PEFR of children living at stone quarries was 92.98 litres per minute as compared to the children living in urban slum areas whose PEFR was an approximate 135.2 litres per minute. "The peak flow meter measures the patient's maximum ability to expel air from the lungs or the PEFR. Peak flow readings are higher when patients are well and lower when the airways are constricted," explains Dr Sampada Tambolkar, one of the coordinators of the study that observed the children for a period of three months. From changes in recorded values, patients and doctors can determine the lung functionality, severity of asthma symptoms and treatment options.

This constant exposure to particulate matter in the form of dust particles has shown that there is a significant variation in the PEFR among children living at stone quarries. Children in the age group 3-18 years were observed for three months. Another batch of 150 children was identified at a slum in Bhosari. ``We observed that they suffered from symptoms like recurrent cold and cough, runny nose and breathlessness," says Agharkhedkar who concluded in the study that exposure to dust particles has resulted in wheezing.

http://www.expressindia.com/latest-news/children-in-stone-quarries-hit-by-lung-disease/257713/

Ambaulim students face mining dust in classroom!

Saturday, December 12, 2009

Seen in the photo dust created at the speed breaker due to spread of ore and primary school situated by the side of the road. Photo by John Fernandes.

The students of Government primary School Ambaulim Chinchawada Quepem are constantly exposed to dust pollution created by the overloaded mining truck.

The Government primary school which is adjacent to the Quepem Ambaulim main road wherein 19 students are studying. That just opposite to the school, in order to regulate the speed of the mining truck the PWD has put up a speed breaker. All the mining trucks plying over this route are overloaded, the iron ore constantly drops on the road particularly at the speed breaker which gradually turns into dust. "The dust problem is so much that most of the school children has developed sinus problem as a result the student often are sick which result in drop in attendance" informed the teacher of the school when contacted on a condition not to publish her name.

http://mandgoa.blogspot.com/2009/12/seen-in-photo-dust-created-at-speed.html

Rajasthan

State Overview

Rajasthan, the largest state in India in terms of area, has a population of 56,507,188[56] and a total State Domestic Product (SDP) of Rs. 1,451 billion (2007-8).[57] According to the Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, the high growth rates that were seen in the state in the 1980s and 1990s have slowed down in the new millennium primarily due to a slowing down in the primary sector, mainly agriculture.[58] Agriculture is still the largest employment sector in the state, with around 80 per cent of the population living in rural areas and dependent on farming for their survival.

Agriculture accounts for the largest single share in Rajasthan's economy and was worth over Rs. 289 billion in 2006-07.[59] Rajasthan's other key sectors are manufacturing, construction, tourism and industries, such as textiles, rugs, woollen goods, vegetable oils and dyes. In the 1990s, there was a rapid increase in mining, unregistered manufacturing, communications and real estate. During the same period, there was a decrease in agriculture, forestry and registered manufacturing.[60] This fall in registered manufacturing and rise in unregistered manufacturing, along with an increase in mining and quarrying work, has been highlighted as particularly worrying in terms of the availability of quality employment in the state.[61]

In the face of repeated droughts, and with more agricultural land being turned over to mining and industry, many people have been forced to devise alternative adaptation strategies for survival, as agriculture is becoming increasingly difficult to depend on. The rapid growth in population in the 1980s has meant that there has been a 2 per cent growth in the workforce leaving large numbers of people in Rajasthan in dire need of jobs. Although significant strides were made in reducing rural poverty in Rajasthan in the 1980s and 1990s—rural poverty declined from 33 per cent in 1983 to 13 per cent in 1999—this has marginally increased again during the new millennium.[62]

According to the Census 2001, 17.16 per cent of Rajasthan's population are SCs and 12.56 per cent are STs. This is slightly higher than the national average of 16.2 per cent for SCs and 8.2 per cent for STs. The vast majority of the SC and ST population lives in the rural areas of Rajasthan and are traditionally dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods.

The provision of education and healthcare in the rural areas has struggled to keep up with the growth in the state's population. Whilst the population increased by 24 per cent between 1997 and 2006, the number of PHCs and sub-centres only increased by 10 per cent, from 1,616 to 1,712 respectively and from 9,400 to 10,515, during the same period. This may go some way towards explaining why the state still continues to perform poorly in terms of health outcomes.[63] In 2006, the average life expectancy in Rajasthan was 61.7, which is lower than the national average of 63.2 for the same year.[64]

56. Census of India, 2001.
57. http://statistics.rajasthan.gov.in/GSDP_NSDP_PCI.pdf.
58. Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, Prepared for the Government of Rajasthan by the Institute of Development Studies, Jaipur.
59. Indiastat.com, Net State Domestic Product at Factor Cost by Industry of Origin in Rajasthan.
60. Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, Prepared for the Government of Rajasthan by the Institute of Development Studies, Jaipur.
61. Ibid.
62. Ibid.
63. Ibid
64. Ministry of Finance, Government of India, Economic Survey, 2007-08, chapter 23, pp. 29.

Literacy levels are also poor in the state; according to the 2001 Census, 61.03 per cent of the population are literate which is significantly lower than the national average of 66 per cent. Within this figure, there are shockingly sharp gender divides—76.46 per cent of the male population were found to be literate, compared to a meagre 44.34 per cent of the female population. The situation for SC and ST in the state is even worse, with only 31.18 per cent of rural SC women and 25.22 per cent of rural ST women literate.[65]

Status of Children

The total number of children 19 years and under in Rajasthan in 2001 was 28,033,445 and the number of children aged between 0 and 14 years was 22,543,231.[66] This means that children constitute over 40 per cent of the state's total population.

Although the official number of children out of school is only 155,338,[67] the actual number is likely to be much higher than this. According to the 2001 Census, the number of children between 4 and 14 years working as child labour in the state was 1,262,570, constituting 10 per cent of India's entire child labour force and placing Rajasthan behind only Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh in terms of child labour numbers. The NSSO painted an even more frightening picture in 2004-05, suggesting that 3,488,000 children between 5 and14 years (over one in five children in the state) are child labourers. In stark contrast to this, despite the existence of 29 NCLP schools across Rajasthan, only 14,234 working children have been rehabilitated in the state through this programme.[68]

Children at MLPC day care centre (Photo July 2009)

Official figures on the number of children working in all hazardous sectors are ridiculously low. There were reported to be only 3,026 children employed in hazardous occupations in Rajasthan in 1999.[69] This is also contradicted by the Census data, which states that the number of children working in mining and quarrying alone in 2001 was 4,296.[70]

According to India's only private survey of school education, Pratham's ASER 2008 survey, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh were the only two states where the number of out-of-school children did not decrease between 2007 and 2008.[71] Their data indicates that 7.1 per cent of children between 5 and 14 years are out of school in the state, and that 37.6 per cent of children between 0 and 5 years are not enrolled in an *anganwadi* centre or pre-school.[72] Within Rajasthan, there are also wide variations between districts. Notably, the mining districts visited as part of this study—Jaisalmer, Jodhpur and Barmer—all have large proportions of children aged between 5 and 14 years out of school; this is respectively 15 per cent, 12.1 per cent and 11.4 per cent. This therefore constitutes a significant proportion of children available as labour pool in these districts.

Rajasthan also continues to experience high drop-out rates, with only 60 per cent of children who enrol in class I reaching class VIII. The drop-out rates are worst in the geographically difficult region (the desert area) and in the ST habited region (the south). In many areas, supply constraints continue to impede access to formal education for many children—facilities are poor, teachers frequently absent, and in 11 out of the 32 districts over 30 per cent of schools have only one teacher.[73]

Child health outcomes in Rajasthan are also poor. Around 80 per cent of children between six and 35 months are anaemic and 44 per cent of children under 3 years of age are underweight.

65. Census of India, 2001.
66. Ibid.
67. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.08, *State-wise Number of Out of School Children (6-14 years Age) in India* (As on 31.03.2008).
68. Ministry of Labour, Rajasthan, www.rajlabour.nic.in/childlabour.doc.
69. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2691, dated 9.8.2000.
70. Census of India, 2001.
71. Pratham ASER 2008 survey, pp. 50.
72. Ibid, pp. 64.
73. Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, Prepared for the Government of Rajasthan by the Institute of Development Studies, Jaipur.

Most worryingly, there has been no improvement in these figures between 1992 and 2005, despite economic growth.[74] Rajasthan is currently severely off-track in terms of reducing the IMR. According to the Ministry for Health and Family Welfare, Rajasthan's IMR in 2007 was 65 per 1,000 live births; this is significantly higher than the national average of 55 per 1,000.[75] The densely populated areas of the northeast and the *adivasi* districts of the south have in fact observed an increase in the IMR in recent years.[76] In spite of investments made in schemes such as the ICDS, the NFHS-3 found no decrease in child malnutrition in Rajasthan between its first survey in 1992-93 and its most recent survey, in 2005-06.[77]

Rajasthan's sex ratio also raises cause for alarm, revealing on-going gender discrimination in the state. According to the 2001 Census, the Rajasthan ratio is 921 females to 1,000 males; this is lower than the national average of 933 females to 1,000 males. Sex ratios in some of the western districts, such as Jaisalmer and Barmer, are particularly poor.[78] Child marriage also continues to be serious problem in Rajasthan, with frequent stories in the media of forced child marriages taking place across the state in breach of the Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929.

Mining in Rajasthan

Rajasthan produces almost all varieties of minerals found in India. There are 79 minerals present in the state, including metallic minerals such as copper, zinc, lead and silver, and non-metallic minerals such as limestone, sandstone and lignite. In 2006-07, 58 minerals were produced in the state.[79] Rajasthan has more mining leases than any other state in India—1,324 leases for major minerals, 10,851 for minor minerals and 19,251 quarry licenses for mining stones.[80] There are 207 reporting mines in the state. According to the Ministry of Mines, the value of mineral production in Rajasthan in 2007-08 was Rs. 49.31 billion, an increase of 6 per cent from the previous year.[81] The state accounted for around 4.6 per cent of India's mineral production that year.

Mineral production accounts for around three per cent of the state's total revenue.[82] Though minor minerals contribute more than 50 per cent in terms of the value of mineral production, their contribution to the total royalty received from mining in the state is just five per cent.[83]

More than 95 per cent of mining activities in Rajasthan are in the unorganised sector.[84] There are thousands of unorganised mines and stone quarries in Rajasthan, some as small as one-twentieth of a hectare. These minor mineral leases cover an area of over 50,000 ha.[85] Minerals are found across the entire state, but the majority of the mines and quarries are located across the southern and southeastern districts, one of the areas of the country most heavily populated by STs.

Rajasthan produces 10 per cent of the worlds' and 70 per cent of India's, output of sandstone.[86] Given that most of the mining and quarrying in Rajasthan is carried out on small, informal sites, and that illegal mining is reportedly rampant, it is difficult to estimate the actual size of the workforce in the state. According to the Census, there were 233,130 people (main and marginal workers) employed in mining

Lignite mining in Barmer district (Photo July 2009)

74. Ibid.
75. http://www.mohfw.nic.in/NRHM/State%20Files/raj.htm, uploaded: 28 July 2009.
76. Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, Prepared for the Government of Rajasthan by the Institute of Development Studies, Jaipur.
77. NFHS-3, 2007.
78. Human Development Report Rajasthan 2008, Prepared for the Government of Rajasthan by the Institute of Development Studies, Jaipur.
79. Department of Mines and Geology, Rajasthan, http://www.dmg-raj.org/mineral_reserves.aspx, uploaded: 29 July 2009.
80. MLPC, *Organising the Unorganised*, Bahar Dutt, 2005; Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 263.
81. Ministry of Mines, *Annual Report* 2008-09.
82. Analysis by Centre for Science and Environment, *Rich Lands, Poor People,* 2008, pp. 264.
83. Ibid, pp. 263.
84. Rana Sengupta and Sanjay Chittora, MLPC, The Sad Story of Child Labour in the Mines of Rajasthan.
85. Analysis by Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, 266.
86. P. Madhavan and Dr. Sanjay Raj, *Budhpura 'Ground Zero' Sandstone quarrying in India*, December 2005, pp. 7.

and quarrying in the state. Of these, 4,296 were reported to be children in the age group 5–14 years, and 29,498 were children up to 19 years.[87]

However, estimates suggest that closer to 2.5 million people work in Rajasthan's mining sector, many driven there by the state's persistent drought and the failure of agriculture. Of these, around 95 per cent are SCs and STs, 37 per cent are women and 15 per cent are children.[88] This estimate would place the number of children working in mining in the state at around 375,000.

Research carried out by Mine Labour Protection Campaign (MLPC) in Bundi district found around 55,000 people working in the sandstone mines there. Of these, 85 per cent were migrant labour, 94 per cent were SCs and STs, approximately 20 per cent were children and 43 per cent were women who had been widowed. In total, around 90 per cent were in debt to their employers ('contractors') so can be considered 'bonded labour'.[89]

Working conditions and wages are poor. Mine and quarry workers in the informal sector are provided with no basic safety or protective gear and accidents are frequent. Most accidents go unrecorded, but one report estimates that there are around 460 deaths a year in the mines[90] and many more injuries. Workers are paid according to what they produce in a day, but almost all earn under the Rs. 100 a day that is the minimum wage in Rajasthan, and women and children earn much less than men, as they are not able to do the heavy work of breaking stones and instead are involved in tasks such as removing mine waste.[91]

Barmer district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,964,835 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	847,335 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 58.99 per cent Male 72.76 per cent Female 43.45 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	11.4 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	38.8 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	58,320 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	407 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Jodhpur district: Key facts	
Total population:	2,886,505 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	1,170,568 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 56.67 per cent Male 72.96 per cent Female 38.64 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	12.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	48.6 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	51,206 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	249 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

87. Census of India, 2001.
88. MLPC, *Organising the Unorganised*, Bahar Dutt, 2005.
89. MLPC
90. MLPC, *Organising the Unorganised*, Bahar Dutt, 2005.
91. Interviews carried out with mining communities in Rajasthan, July 2009.

Jaisalmer district: Key facts	
Total population:	508,247 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	216,264 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 50.97 per cent Male 66.26 per cent Female 32.05 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	15 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	60.5 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	12,869 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	332 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

A complete lack of social security means that contractors pay nothing towards medical costs for mining-related accidents and illnesses, and workers are forced to take unpaid time off frequently due to ill-health. Workers end up in debt to the contractors as they need to borrow money for medical costs, and this cycle of indebtedness is often passed down through the family. The mines and quarries of Rajasthan are primitive workplaces, with no drinking water or basic sanitation provided and often located far from the nearest medical facilities.

Situation of Children in the Mining-affected Communities of Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Barmer Districts

Rani (name changed) is 10 years old and working in the sandstone mines in Jodhpur, Rajasthan. She earns Rs. 70 a day, cleaning mine waste from 9.00 am till 5.00 pm. She works about 15 days in a month, because she gets tired and needs to rest, and sometimes is unable to find work in the local mines. She has been to school (an MLPC-run crèche) for just 2 days in her life. She is already addicted to gutka and fights with her mother to spend money on soap and gutka for herself.

Shristhi (name changed) is 16 years old and works in a mine site. Her father, who was a mine worker died of illness nearly 5 years back. She has one older sister (married), a younger sister who is at home, three brothers at school and one brother older than her is also a mine worker. Her mother too works in the mines. Shristhi earns about Rs. 100 a day working from 9.00 am to 5.00 pm. She said that she had been working for nearly 4 years now as they needed the money to run the house. Around 2–3 days in a month she does not go to work as she rests at home. She suffers from leg and backache. Shristhi has never been to school.

Source: Interviews carried out in Bhat Basti and Gandero Ki Dhani, Jodhpur district, October 2009.

Background to the Research

Given the backdrop of the status of children's overall health and literacy levels in the state, the case studies undertaken in the mining areas in Rajasthan, are reflective of these poor indicators and the denial of basic rights of the child in an environment of hazardous work, living conditions, social insecurity and lack of protection from violence and crime.

The research team visited three districts in Rajasthan in July 2009—Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Barmer. Visits were made to mine sites and quarries, villages engaged in mining, villages located close to mine sites, *anganwadi* centres and PHCs.

Women and young girls walk long distances for mine work and for water (Photo July 2009)

Follow up interviews were carried out in Jodhpur district in October 2009. Although a huge variety of minerals are produced in Rajasthan, time constraints of the project meant that the team focused on sandstone, limestone and lignite for this study.

Demography

The communities involved in mining in both Jodhpur and Jaisalmer districts are mostly SCs and STs. All interviewed across the districts confirmed that the vast majority of the mine and quarry workers are from these groups and almost all are landless.[92] Some of the mine workers interviewed in Jodhpur district had migrated from other parts of the state. These migrant workers were living in makeshift housing, close to the stone quarries. Most communities interviewed, however, had been living in these areas for many years and were previously engaged in agriculture. Residents of Gandero Ki Dhani village, a predominantly SC village in Jodhpur district, explained how they were the second generation engaged in mining work; prior to this, the village survived on agriculture and livestock herding. [93]

Residents of an ST village in Jodhpur district, Bhat Basti, located close to Kaliberi mining area, explained how they used to be nomadic, but because of the increase in population in Rajasthan and less land availability, they could no longer find land for livestock grazing. As a result 20 years ago they were forced to sell their animals and move to this site, close to the mines in the hope of finding work.[94] There were around 40 households living in this community, with around 8–10 children per family. All of the adults, and most of the children over 12 years, work in a mine, approximately 1.5 km away.

Houses of stone quarry workers in Jodhpur. (Photo July 2009)

In Jethwai village, 12 km from the city of Jaisalmer, there were around 300 households. Villagers reported that 70 per cent of the people working in the limestone quarries here had come from outside the area (e.g. from Jodhpur district) and the remaining 30 per cent were from this area. Approximately 90 per cent of the inhabitants of Jethwai work in mining. The remaining 10 per cent own some livestock or work in Jaisalmer city.

Economic Context

Increasing amounts of land previously used for agriculture had now been converted for mining and quarrying activities. This is an extremely worrying situation, given that around 80 per cent of the state's population still live in rural areas and are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods. Many of the communities interviewed across all the districts had previously relied upon agriculture or livestock grazing for their survival, but were now working as daily wage labourers in the mines due to lack of available land.

"We used to be rich, but now we have nothing."
- Village leader from ST community, Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district

In Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, residents explained how the land used to belong to the government, so they could use it to graze their animals on, but now it was all privately owned or encroached illegally by mine owners. There was no free land left, they explained, as people were even occupying the government land and mining there.[95]

In another village, Joga, in Jaisalmer district, there were around 2,500 inhabitants, 90 per cent of whom were dependent on agriculture and livestock. However, since industrial mining of limestone started on their doorstep 15 years ago, problems in the village had increased. The dust from the mines had destroyed their crops, and their livestock was dying after eating the dust-covered leaves.[96]

92. Interviews with mining communities in Jaisalmer and Jodhpur, July 2009.
93. Interviews carried out in Gandero Ki Dhani village, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
94. Interviews carried out in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
95. Interviews carried out in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
96. Interviews carried out in Joga village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.

According to their plans, the private companies operating there were meant to use water sprinklers to prevent the dust from spreading. However, the villagers claimed this never happens so dust was spreading all over the area. In addition to this, the flowing water that they previously had for agriculture, had been blocked off by the large plant close by, and by the walls formed once the mining company began digging stones. Before, they could cultivate their land twice a year; now they cannot cultivate at all.[97]

The campaign for National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) began in Rajasthan and is regarded by many as working more effectively there than in any other state, to provide work for the rural poor who lack alternative livelihood options. The Act states that in every family, one person is entitled to 100 days of work per year at the minimum wage. In several of the villages visited, people explained that in addition to mining work, a number of residents were employed in NREGA work. However, they argued that the NREGA was not operating properly in this area, as people were not being paid the full wages (Rajasthan's minimum wage is Rs. 100 a day). The kind of work they were doing was road construction and building canals, but they are only being paid around Rs. 40–60 a day and being told that they have not worked properly or hard enough to earn their full Rs. 100.[98] In Joga village, also in Jaisalmer district, over 100 people were reported to be getting work from the NREGA, but they also got less than the minimum wage of Rs. 80–90 per day.[99]

There were also problems in terms of delayed payments for work carried out under the NREGA. In Meghwal Basti, a SC community about 16 km from Jodhpur, all 13 households have a job card. It is mostly women who are the job cardholders. The reason given for this was that the NREGA payments were sometimes delayed beyond the 15 day payment period (the last payment had been delayed by 2 months). As the households were depedent on daily wage labour for their survival, if the men also worked under the NREGA there would be days when they would not receive any money. So the men continued to work as daily wage labourers in the mines and the women took up the NREGA work.[100]

Thermal Power Project in Thumbli village (Photo July 2009)

Displacement

Rajasthan has the second largest deposit of lignite in India after Tamil Nadu. Lignite, which is often referred to as 'brown coal', is used for steam electric power generation. In Barmer district, western Rajasthan, the state-owned Rajasthan State Mines and Minerals Limited has been expanding its lignite mining operations in recent years and now operates a huge open-cast mine near Giral village. Locals reported that many people have been displaced from this land. In keeping with the displacement policy for public sector companies, the displaced were offered only Rs. 2,000 for one *bigha*[101] of land. However, locals explained that they were asking for Rs. 17,000 per bigha for their land and three villages in the area—Thumbli, Akali and Jalela—were now embroiled in a court case.[102] Without their land, some former farmers were now forced to work as contract labour at the mine site and were employed in roles such as security guards and labourers there. At a public meeting on the land dispute in June 2009, locals were advised by officials that they should just accept the Rs. 2,000 being offered to them as: "The government is going to take your land by force anyhow, so it is better to take the compensation which the government is giving now."[103]

"The government is telling us that this mining is going to be profitable to the country and that this is for India's development. But if this is India's development, are we not a part of India? Why is the government not considering us?"

- Resident, Thumbi village, Barmer district

97. Ibid.
98. Interviews in Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
99. Interviews in Joga village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
100. Interviews carried out in Jodhpur district, October 2009.
101. One bigha is equal to 2,500 sq m in Rajasthan.
102. Interview with local farmer, close to Giral mine site, Barmer district, July 2009.
103. Ibid.

At Thumbli village, residents explained how they were threatened with displacement by the lignite mining company, along with 15–20 other villages in the area.[104] Each village has an average of 50 families, which amounts to around 3,000 children affected. The lignite mining began in 1994. Prior to this, all families were dependent on agriculture. In Thumbli, there are 15 families who lost all of their land to mining. Residents explained how within the next year, none in the village will have any land left as it will all have been taken by the government mining company. People are being told by the company that the government had subsoil rights wherever there is coal.

In addition to the poor compensation being offered, local people claim that they were not getting jobs in the mines and factories, and were told that they lack the necessary skills, as their traditional work is agriculture. People were being forced to migrate from their homes to find work—one person from each family was found to be moving to states such as Gujarat and Maharashtra to look for work on construction sites, thus causing a breakdown of family and community structures. This displacement has a serious impact on children, who are pulled out of school and forced into work when the economic situation of their family worsens.[105]

Lack of Alternatives to Mining

"The mine for us is agriculture. There's nothing else".

- Female self-help group (SHG) member, Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district

"The good work was earlier— agriculture and animal husbandry"

- Resident, Joga village, Jaisalmer district

In all the villages and mines visited, the same message was repeated over and over—there are no alternatives to mining work. If alternative livelihood opportunities were available to them, they were exhausted by the destruction of land and water resources due to mining activities. Otherwise people would leave the mines and quarries immediately, as this work is not viewed as 'good work'. In some villages, people expressed concern about what will happen when the stones finish. In Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, residents explained how the mines have been operating in the area for around 50 years, but now the stones are starting to get exhausted. The mine next to their village was likely to close in around five years time, leaving them with no form of employment, and therefore unable to support their families. Residents explained how some mines had already closed down around other villages in the area, such as Sipla, 38 km away, leading to a huge increase in unemployment, especially amongst the youth.[106] The people of Jethwai are anxious to remain in the village, but fear that if the mining stops and no other work is made available to them, then they may be forced to migrate from the area. The impact of this, as explained later, has been on the local schools losing their children for mine work, given the poverty of the families here.

Status of Education

"The main problem is the lack of education here. We are telling the government that we will give land and a building, but please give us a decent school. The mines can close anytime but if our children are educated, they can find a job elsewhere."

- Mine worker, Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district

Across all three districts, parents recognised the importance of quality education for their children and highlighted this as a major concern in the mining areas. However, in all the communities the same crucial issues around education were raised—the lack of basic facilities in schools, teacher absence, the lack of secondary schools in the area. Parents expressed frustration over the fact that their children have

Children of stone quarry workers in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur
(Photo July 2009)

104. According to residents in Thumbi, the villages most affected are: Thumbli, Giral, Jalela, Khejadli, Sonadi, Vishalaghot, Badres, Gotia, Kapurdi, Bhonaniyoki Dhani, Akali and Jalipaa.

105. Interview with residents of Thumbli village, Barmer district, July 2009.

106. Interview with residents of Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.

been attending government schools for a number of years but were learning very little in these schools. One mine worker explained how his three children had been attending the government school, but there was no teaching there. So despite his extremely low wages, he was in the process of enrolling them in a nearby private school, where he hoped that the standard of education would be higher.[107]

In Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, a similar situation could be observed. The residents explained how they had a government school up till class VII, but the teachers do not turn up. Because of this, drop-out rates have been high; earlier there were 120–130 children enrolled in the school, but now there are only 70–80. Some of these drop-outs can now be found working in the mines nearby. The villagers had filed complaints to the government about the teachers several times, but claim that the government does not listen. Some of the residents have now started a private school in the village with their own money, where 40 children are currently enrolled, but not all parents in the village can afford the Rs. 100 a month contribution.[108]

In Barmer district, similar problems were highlighted. A resident of Akali village explained how the teacher comes to the school but does not bother to teach anything, despite always taking his salary on time from the government.[109] In Thumbli village, there has been a school since 1965, but this only runs till class VIII and the villagers explained how they did not have the money to send their children outside the village for education beyond class VIII.[110] In Joga village, Jaisalmer, the school also only runs till class VIII, and out of 15 students, maybe only two or three go on to higher studies in one of the larger towns, leaving the majority of children without alternative career options but to work in mining.[111]

In a ST community in Jodhpur district, parents explained how the younger children were now attending the MLPC-run crèche close by, but that none of the older children were attending school as the nearest one was too far away (over 3 km) even though the parents are keen to educate their children. Some of the children stay at home all day in the village with the older women. Most of the children over 12 years old go to work in the mines with their parents. None of the approximately 350 children in the community were able to read or write.[112]

With little or no education, the children living in the mining communities around Rajasthan grow up with no alternative but to work in the mines and quarries like their parents. This will ensure that the cycle of poverty continues for these families. All the parents interviewed recognised the importance of education for their children, and many were making sacrifices on a daily basis to keep their children out of work and in school. But tragically the poor education that they are receiving in these government schools will ensure that for the vast majority of them, they will be left with no option but to follow their parents' footsteps and work as daily wage labourers in the mines.

Child Labour

Thousands of children in the state are out of school and working in the mines and quarries. With the informal nature of the sector, and the vast number of mine and quarry sites across the state, it is difficult to accurately estimate the number of children involved. However, in just one mine in Kaliberi, Jodhpur district, mine workers reported that there were more than 100 children—over 50 of whom are girls—working in the mine and that children tend to start work there when they reach 12 years of age.[113] Children are employed to fill tractors with stones and earn around Rs. 80 for every tractor filled. Children under 12 years of age are

Child engaged in stone quarry at Kaliberi (Photo July 2009)

107. Interview with mine worker, Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
108. Interview with mine workers in Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
109. Interview with local farmer, close to Giral mine site, Barmer district, July 2009.
110. Interview with residents of Thumbli village, Barmer district, July 2009.
111. Interviews carried out in Joga village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
112. Interviews carried out in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
113. Interviews with child and adult mine labour in Kaliberi mining area, Jodhpur district, July 2009.

usually not strong enough to carry out this work, but in Bhat Basti residents explained how some of the younger children (around 9–10 years old) run away sometimes to the mines to earn around Rs. 10 for a day's work.[114]

Mine workers in Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district, said that children aged 15 years old worked in the mines where they work. Some mine workers said that their children were also employed in other forms of labour, such as in tea shops and hotels. When a mother or father dies, children are generally taken out of school to go to work in the city.[115] Illness and death of a parent also results in children being forced to take up work in the mines. Two sons of Aarti (name changed) in Bhuri Beri aged 15 and 12 work in the sandstone mines while another 12 year old grazes goats. Bimla Devi's husband died of TB and she herself was being treated for the same. In Gandero Ki Dhani, another widow Sonu (name changed) who is diagnosed with TB has a 12 year old son working in the mines.

Several children between 12 and 15 years old were interviewed in the mines around Jodhpur district. Most said that they had been working there for a few months, since they had dropped out of school and earned between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 a day, filling trucks and doing other similar heavy tasks.[116] Most adult mine workers interviewed said that children earned around Rs. 50–60 per day working in the mines. Several villages explained that only children from the very poor families are working; the others send their children to school. In one village, for example, residents estimated that around 90 per cent of the children in the village attend school; the remaining 10 per cent (around 250 children) were out of school. In this area of Jodhpur district, several children were spotted driving stone-filled trucks; none of these children looked more than 14 years old. None of the children either had any work safety gear that could protect them from the risks of accidents, injuries or even minor bruises. For the children, there is no choice and the risks are high especially during the initial years of work when they had not yet gained the expertise to handle the mining work. The workers reported that they were easily susceptible to eye injuries, mine-slips and mine collapse, breaking of limbs or their back due to falling, or from stones crashing over them.

Meeting with stone quarry workers, including child labour at Kaliberi (Photo July 2009)

Health Impacts

"The younger people in the mines are OK, but as you get older the breathing problems start."
- Mine worker, Kaliberi, Jodhpur district

Across the state, mine workers reported numerous health problems, particularly breathing problems caused by dust inhalation. Every village and mine site reported widespread cases of TB, which seem to emerge once a worker is not even around 40 years of age. In several places, people talked about lung problems but did not know if they were suffering from TB or silicosis. Others claimed that when people do suffer from silicosis, the government says that it is TB anyway and they are treated for TB.[117] The mine workers and their children regularly suffer from coughs, colds, fevers and eye infections. In a PHC close to a mining area in Jodhpur district, the nurse reported that he treats a large number of respiratory illnesses. They had 27 people undergoing treatment for TB at the time of the interview, and he stated that even more cases were being treated in the sub-centres in that area.[118] The nurse explained how they also have cases of silicosis but this was much more difficult to diagnose with only only four or five cases having been diagnosed in this PHC, so far.

Women explained that they continued to work until they were eight months pregnant, carrying out heavy work like lifting mine waste and loading trucks. Due to a lack of any kind of maternity benefits, and due to the extreme poverty at

114. Interviews carried out in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
115. Interview with female mine workers, Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
116. Interviews with child labour in Kaliberi mining area, Jodhpur district, July 2009.
117. Interviews with mine workers in Jodhpur and Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
118. Interview with nurse, PHC in Fidusar Chopar, Jodhpur district, July 2009.

Stagnant water in mine pits, breeding mosquitoes, Kaliberi (Photo July 2009)

home, they are forced to return to work within 15–20 days after delivery. One pregnant woman interviewed complained of intense pain in her chest. Besides, the distance to the PHC being too far, the women cannot afford to give their time and money to travelling to the PHC for any treatment.

Across all the mining areas, people told of an increase in malaria due to the stagnant water in the mines. This was supported by the PHC in Jodhpur district, where the nurse explained that the water level increases in the mines in the rainy season, allowing mosquitoes to breed and leading to an increase in malaria cases. According to the nurse, the area had been identified with a 'red dot' by the World Health Organisation to show that it was a highly malaria affected area.

It is not just mine workers who are suffering from increased health problems in the area. In Thumbli village, Barmer district, villagers reported an increase in health problems amongst the communities living near the lignite mines. The plant works day and night, covering the whole area with dust. People said they were now bringing up black phlegm when they cough. The village was also witnessing an increase in malaria, which they attribute to the wastewater from the mining plant. In Fidusar Chopar PHC, the nurse also reported a large number of liver problems from alcohol abuse and claimed that more than 90 per cent of male mine workers consumed alcohol every day. He also explained how more than 200 mining trucks passed through this area every day and many of these truck drivers have sexual relations with local women. However, they only recently started HIVtesting in the PHC, so they did not yet have data available on this.[119]

As well as malaria, the most common child health complaints across all the districts were pneumonia, coughs, colds and diarrhoea (from the lack of clean water and sanitation available). In all the communities visited by the research team, people said that their children had been vaccinated against polio but most were unsure if their children had had any other vaccinations, and check-up following birth seemed to be rare.

Many of the children in the mining areas seemed to be suffering from malnutrition. *"We don't know what we will eat tomorrow"* explained one female mine worker, living in Bhuri Beri, in Jodhpur district. One woman interviewed was carrying a small baby who looked no more than 9 months old, but she claimed he was 2 years of age. In several villages, women said their children had never been weighed or their growth, measured. Residents of Thumbi village, Barmer district, claimed that there had been an increase in children's illnesses, particularly malnutrition, malaria and fever since the lignite mining plant began operations 15 years ago.[120]

Interviews carried out by MLPC with Salumber PHC, in Morilla village, Udaipur district revealed that levels of child malnutrition were also high in the mining area there. The PHC staff explained how most of the children in the area were malnourished; among the families involved in mining, all their children were found to be malnourished.[121]

It is hardly surprising that child malnutrition levels are said to be increasing in these areas. With the breakdown in agriculture, many people interviewed said that they had almost no vegetables in their diet. They eat twice a day and their meal consists of roti and occasionally *dal*, though often just chillies. Before, people grew their own vegetables; but now they have to buy them in local towns and these are very expensive. Many families just could no longer afford to buy vegetables.

Malnutrition coupled with hazardous work results in the children suffering from several chronic and persistent ailments. Body pains, respiratory infections and dizziness were the common complaints that children working in the mines stated. In order to withstand these, it was also clear that they were addicted to gutka and alcohol. We saw child labourers quarrelling with their mothers to give back some of their wages in order to purchase these drugs.

119. Interview with nurse, PHC in Fidusar Chopar, Jodhpur district, July 2009.

120. Interview with residents of Thumbli village, Barmer district, July 2009.

121. MLPC interview with Salumber PHC, Morilla village, Udaipur district, October 2009.

Inadequate Health Facilities

Several villages said that although there was a government PHC close by, these often have no doctors and lack essential medicines, such as those for malaria treatment. Instead, they are forced to travel to private clinics and pay for treatment when they are seriously sick or injured. Residents from Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, explained how before the PHC was too far away but they lobbied with the government and provided space in a building so the PHC was moved to their village. However, there was no doctor's post there and the nurse was said to be absent most of the time. If they fell sick, they have to take the bus to the government hospital in Jaisalmer.[122] There is also a PHC in Joga village, but the doctor only comes once a month and the nurse has studied only till class IV, as told by the villagers. Their nearest hospital is 60 km away in Jaisalmer and a bus service was started only a month before the study team visited the village.[123]

Access to Water

Continuous drought for the past 20 years has created enormous water problems in Rajasthan. The recent failure of agriculture in the state has been largely attributed to the lack of rainfall, particularly in the western part of the state. Increased mining activity has also added to this pressure, with a number of villages reporting that their water had been siphoned off by companies for mining activities. Just outside Joga village, a wall was built by a mining company next to the agricultural land previously cultivated by the village. This meant that the water no longer flows down onto the agricultural land leaving no water for irrigation.[124]

"All of our money is spent on water."
- Female mine worker, Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district

Other villages reported that they were forced to spend a significant percentage of their meagre earnings from mining on water for their basic needs. In Bhat Basti village, there is no water supply so they have to pay for tankers. One tank of water contains 3,000 litres and costs Rs. 400. A woman interviewed in Bhat Basti explained how water was so scarce in their village, that she was unable to bathe her children.

In crisis ridden Jaisalmer, poor water management and seepage (Photo July 2009)

Her six daughters were covered in dust and grime, and when she was asked about their health and hygiene she explained how water was so scarce, she could not afford to waste it on bathing her children.[125]

In Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district, female mine workers explained how despite the dirty, dusty work they carried out, they were unable to bathe every day due to water scarcity in the area. They reported that they get their water from a hand pump but this regularly breaks down and does not get fixed for weeks. They pay Rs. 50 a month to get salty water for washing their clothes.[126]

Conclusions

It is clear from the interviews carried out in Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Barmer, as well as from the large number of NGO and media reports available on mining in Rajasthan, that child labour continues to be a huge problem in the stone quarrying sector in the state. Despite the fact that child labour is so visible in the stone quarries across Rajasthan, there is no concerted effort by either the government or mining operators there to address the problem.

In addition to child labour, there are other serious but less well publicised issues affecting children in the mining areas of the state. Malnutrition was a serious problem in all mining-affected communities visited, and this appeared to be getting worse with the reduction in available agricultural

122. Interview with residents of Jethwai village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
123. Interview with residents of Joga village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
124. Visit to Joga village, Jaisalmer district, July 2009.
125. Interview carried out in Bhat Basti, Jodhpur district, Rajasthan, October 2009.
126. Interview with female mine workers, Bhuri Beri village, Jodhpur district, July 2009.

land as more and more is acquired for mining and quarrying. The provision of healthcare and education in the mining areas was also found to be seriously lacking. Health centres without doctors and schools without teachers were frequent problems reported by the communities.

As with other case study areas, an urgent comprehensive assessment of the status of children of mine workers, as well as of local communities, and the status of the institutional structures for children have to be immediately addressed in the state. A review of the nature and scale of mining in Rajasthan has to be urgently taken up so that indicators of Rajasthan's growth are not just calculated from the trade in stones but also from the human development, and especially child development indicators which are in a shameful state in mining affected Rajasthan.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The above case study was done in partnership with MLPC, Jodhpur which is working for the rights of mine workers in the villages from where the data was collected.)

Many of the Workers in the Mines of India are Children

News & Communications, DUKE UNIVERSITY
Tuesday, November 8, 2005

DURHAM, N.C. -- When we arrived that morning in Bhat Basti, a crowd of excited children swarmed around our jeep before I could even open the door. One of them was a pretty 12 year-old girl named Raju. She spends her days toiling in the cavernous quarries of India.

Bhat Basti is a cramped mining village that's sprung up on the scorched earth where the desert meets the city of Jodhpur. That day, I visited with my colleagues from GRAVIS, the local non-governmental organization where I've been working as a researcher for the past four months.

Persistent droughts forced Raju's family to migrate to the city for work. But after laboring in the mines, her father died of silicosis, or occupational lung disease. When her mother fell sick earlier this year, the burden of supporting the family fell to Raju.

She now earns 50 rupees (US $1.25) for each 12 hour day of clearing rubble from the bottom of the mine. Because her low caste status limits her opportunities and the dominating mine owners limit her freedom, it's unlikely that Raju will ever escape this cycle of poverty.

Yet Raju's story is hardly unique: Of the two million mine workers in Rajasthan, an estimated 20 percent are children.

http://news.duke.edu/2005/11/child%20labor.html

Reckless In Raniganj

From Tehelka Magazine, Vol 5, Issue 50, Dated Dec 20, 2008

Life here is a step away from catastrophe — but desperation forces many into activities that undermine their own future, says TUSHA MITTAL

EIGHT-YEAR-OLD Muskaan is kneeling close to a patch of fresh, hot coal. She is sorting charcoal pieces that she will pile into a bamboo basket for her father to carry across the town of Raniganj. Everyday, groups of other men, women and children join her at this coal-burning ghat, only a few kilometres from the city's main market. The coal that comes to them is mined and sold illegally. The irony is that Raniganj sits in the heart of India's coal belt, yet residents rely on illegal coal to cook their daily food. If caught, Muskaan can end up in prison for months without trial, but a lonely constable in khaki from the Central Industrial Security Force (CISF), watching passively at the sidelines provides the much-needed assurance.

But as Muskaan bends over, she doesn't know that the ground below could be a hollow cavern, a void created by the same illegal mining she's a part of. Today, after years of unscientific coal mining, Raniganj is suspended over a thin crust of land; over a labyrinth of vacant galleries. Locals live in fear that someday, the entire town with its 35,000 plus population could cave in. As they ply through the town's dense alleys, no one knows where, or when, the feeble earth will crumble.

http://www.tehelka.com/story_main41.asp?filename=Bu201208reckless_in.asp

Madhya Pradesh

State Overview

The total population of Madhya Pradesh in 2001 was 60,348,023.[127] In 2006-07, the state had a GDP of Rs. 962.5 billion. Although almost half of the GDP came from the tertiary sector (including railways, trade, hotels and restaurants) the largest single sector was agriculture, accounting for Rs. 230 billion of the state's GDP.[128] More than 80 per cent of the population in the state depend on agriculture for their livelihood. The state is heavily forested, with forest cover of around 1.7 million ha. In 2006-07, Rs. 13.9 billion of its revenue came from forest products. However, in the period between 1980 and 2008, a total of 11,970 ha of forest land in the state were diverted for mining.[129] Mining accounted for Rs. 35 billion or 3.66 per cent of the state's GDP in 2006-07.

The Human Development Report 2007 for Madhya Pradesh described the general state of human development as 'progressive but backward in Madhya Pradesh'.[130] The rural areas and parts of the southwest, southeast, northwest and central belts are described as being more backward than the rest of the state. These are also the regions that are forested and have a large ST population. Overall, the state has a very high number of STs as a proportion of the total population—12.23 million or 20.4 per cent of the total state population. There is also a large SC population in the state—9.15 million or 15.2 per cent of the total population.[131] Around 38.3 per cent of the state's population lives below the poverty line; this is far higher than the all-India average of 27.5 per cent. Amongst the SC population, these figures are even higher—67.3 per cent of SCs in urban areas live below the poverty line and 42.8 per cent in rural areas.[132]

Literacy rates also reveal the continued practice of widespread discrimination and marginalisation in the state. Although 63.74 per cent of the state's population is literate, only 55.39 per cent of SCs living in rural areas and 41.16 per cent of rural ST population are literate. The figures are even worse for women, with only 28.44 per cent of ST women being literate.[133] Life expectancy in Madhya Pradesh is also lower than the national average – 57.4 years, as compared to India's average of 63 years.

Status of Children

In 2001, there were 23,252,416 children aged 14 years and under in Madhya Pradesh, and 28,943,033 aged 19 years and under[134], meaning that children constitute over 40 per cent of the state's population. According to official statistics, there were 181,424 children aged between 6 and 14 years out of school in the state.[135] However, the state government claimed

127. Census of India, 2001.
128. Uploaded from indiastat.com; data from Central Statistical Organisation, as on 9 February 2009.
129. Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 234, dated 20.10.2008, Selected State-wise Forest Land Diverted for Mining by Ministry of Environment and Forests in India (25.10.1980 to 30.09.2008).
130. Government of Madhya Pradesh, Human Development Report, 2007, http://www.mp.gov.in/difmp/mphdr2007.htm.
131. Census of India, 2001.
132. Accessed at indiastat.com; Data taken from Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 4530, dated on 24.04.2008.
133. Census of India, 2001.
134. Census of India, 2001.
135. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008.

that 296,979 children aged between 5 and 14 years were out of school in 2006-07. [136] Pratham's ASER 2008 survey estimates that 1.9 per cent of children in that age group remain out of school in the state, and around 8.8 per cent of 3–4 year olds are not enrolled in an *anganwadi* centre or pre-school. [137]

According to Census data, there were 1,065,259 children aged between 5 and 14 years working as child labourers in Madhya Pradesh in 2001.[138] There is very little data available on the number of children working in hazardous occupations in the state. In 1999, the central government reported that there were 11,259 children employed in hazardous occupations in Madhya Pradesh,[139] but this may well have increased since then, as the list of hazardous occupations has been expanded. The NCLP is currently operating in only 17 out of the 50 districts in Madhya Pradesh. In 2006-07, there were 2,824 children rescued and rehabilitated under the scheme, bringing the total number of children rehabilitated in the state by May 2007 to 3,519.[140] This is likely to be a very small percentage of the actual number of children employed in hazardous occupations across the state. Census data shows that there were 2,747 children between 5 and 14 years working in mining and quarrying in the state in 2001, and a total of 12,655 children 19 years and under working in the sector. [141]

The situation of child health in the state is also worrying. Madhya Pradesh has IMR and under five mortality rates far higher than the national average—69.5 per 1,000 live births and 94.2 per 1,000 live births respectively, as against the national figures of 57 and 74.3.[142] The state also made the headlines in 2008 for having the highest levels of child malnutrition in India. According to NFHS-3, around 60 per cent of children in the state are malnourished. This means that the rate of malnutrition in children has actually increased by 5 per cent in the state in the past decade, a situation exacerbated by poor rains and the global food crisis.[143] Madhya Pradesh also has a low sex ratio—920 girls to every 1,000 boys—indicating that female foeticide and girl child preference are likely to be prevalent in the state.[144]

Mining in Madhya Pradesh

Madhya Pradesh is the sole producer of diamonds and slate in India. The state is also the leading producer of copper concentrate, pyrophyllite and diaspore. In 2007-08, the value of mineral production in the state was Rs. 80.62 billion, an increase of 17 per cent from the previous year.[145] Madhya Pradesh accounted for 7.4 per cent of the total mineral production in the country, making it the sixth largest mineral producer in India. There were 319 reporting mines in the state in 2007-08. In terms of general trends, the production of coal and manganese ore in the state has increased over the years, but the production of bauxite and copper ore has decreased.

Stone quarries and diamond mines exist together in Panna (Photo August 2009)

According to figures provided by the Ministry of Labour and Employment, there were 54,000 people officially employed in 160 reporting mines in the state in 2005. This is a slight decrease from 57,300 employees in 2002. However, other figures also provided by the Ministry suggest the number may be slightly higher, indicating that 30,000 people are employed in underground mines in the state, 10,000 in open-cast mines and 16,000 in above ground mines.[146] The actual number of people working in mining in the state is likely to be substantially higher than this, because of the existence of

136. Rajiv Gandhi *Shiksha* Mission, Government of MP; quoted in Government of Madhya Pradesh, Human Development Report, 2007, http://www.mp.gov.in/difmp/mphdr2007.htm.
137. Pratham ASER 2008 survey.
138. Census of India, 2001.
139. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2691, dated 9.8.2000.
140. Data accessed on indiastat.com; Compiled from the statistics released by: Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 3759, 09.05.2007, Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 994, 20.08.2007 and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2415, 03.12.2007.
141. Census of India, 2001.
142. NFHS-3, 2007.
143. BBC News, Malnutrition getting worse in India, 10 June 2008.
144. Data accessed on indiastat.com; taken from National Commission for Women, 2001.
145. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report, 2008-09.

Panna district: Key facts	
Total population:	856,558 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	349,322 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 61.36 per cent Male 73.33 per cent Female 47.97 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	1.5 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	89.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	13,303 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	587 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

artisanal and small-scale mining. According to the Census, there were 177,249 people working in mining and quarrying (main and marginal workers) in Madhya Pradesh in 2001. Of these, 2,747 children aged between 5 and 14 years were working in mining in the state in 2001, and 12,655 in the age group 5 and 19 years.[147]

An estimated 31.7 per cent of the country's diamond reserves are located in Panna district, Madhya Pradesh.[148] The diamond belt covers around a 1,000 km area. The NMDC, a government-owned company, is the only organised producer of diamonds in the country, from its Majhgawan mine, 20 km from Panna town. Majhgawan is the only mechanised diamond mine in Asia and was discovered in 1827. In January 2001, the mine and plant was upgraded for 84,000 carats production per year, which was a huge increase from 15,000 carats in 1984. Every year, the land is leased to prospective miners by the government agency. The diamonds are then collected by the district magistrate of Panna, and auctioned four times a year. However, a large quantity of diamonds are mined illegally and smuggled out of the state to polishing units in Surat in Gujarat and Mumbai in Maharashtra. There are over 3,000 illegal mines in the district and an estimated 90 per cent of diamonds mined in the area are sold illegally.[149]

Diamond mining is the only source of livelihood for many people living in the district. However, as with most artisanal diamond mining areas across the world, the labourers get a tiny fraction of the value of the stones they find.

Diamonds Are Not a Girl's Best Friend: 'For Her, Who Digs, Cuts and Polishes, Diamonds Are Forever a Curse'

"My name is Sudeep. I am working with my father here in the stone quarries since 3–4 years. Now I am 18 years old. I come from Panna village. There is no fixed rate of payment for the work I do. For digging out one plate of stone we get Rs.70–120 per day. In a day we can take out 5–6 plates of the stone, as a group. I can say that I earn Rs.100–120 in one day. But I can only work for 12–15 days in a month as the work is very strenuous. I have never been to school".

Source: : Interview carried out in Purna Panna stone and diamond quarries, Panna, August 2009

This is the story of the glittering refractions of a piece of carbon that fragment the childhood of the poor dalit and *adivasi* children of Panna. Panna district was originally a *Gond* settlement until the thirteenth century and became geographically of strategic value after the importance gained to the minerals found here. Panna is famous for its diamonds which are located in a belt extending for 80 km across the district. It also has many stone quarries that stretch across the entire district and yet, Panna is one of the poorest districts in the state, graded as 'C' category.

146. All figures accessed on indiastat.com; provided by Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India.
147. Census of India, 2001.
148. Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 'State of India's Environment: 6', 2008, pp. 216.
149. Ibid.

This case study covered two minerals–stone quarries and diamonds–both of which are found together in Panna district. At present the major diamond mining is assigned to a Government of India undertaking, the NMDC Diamond Mine Project. The belt starts from Paharikhera Northeast to Majhgawan Southwest and has a width of around 30 km. There are several small-scale open-cast diamond mines in Panna. There are at least 121 leases in Panna district[150] for diamond extraction. The villages covered for the study were Bador, Jhallar, Janawar, Umraban, Chainsingh Dharampur, Hardua Rakseha and Gandhigram, all falling under Panna and Ajaigarh blocks in Panna district.

Demographic Profile of the District

Panna is a district in the state of Madhya Pradesh. The town of Panna is the district headquarter. The district is a part of Sagar Division. Panna district was created in 1950, shortly after India's independence, from the territory of several former princely states of British India, including the states of Panna, Jaso, most of Ajaigarh, and a portion of Paldeo. It has five blocks and six towns. The proportion of the ST population in the district is a little above 13 per cent and that of the SC population is marginally higher, at 15 per cent. The major *adivasi* group in the district is G*ond*.

Despite its rich mineral wealth and its status as the sole producer of diamonds in India, Panna remains one of the least developed districts in the state of Madhya Pradesh. The district has a HDI ranking of 0.479, meaning that it ranks fifth from the bottom in the state. This is considerably lower than Indore, at the top of the list with a ranking of 0.710.[151] Per capita income in Panna is also strikingly low—0.274 on the HDI ranking scale—the fourth lowest in Madhya Pradesh. The district has serious challenges to face in terms of providing its population with basic amenities. Only 34.6 per cent of households have electricity and a dismal 11.1 per cent of households have a toilet. A tiny 6.8 per cent of households in the district have electricity, a toilet and access to safe drinking water.[152]

Panna also has a lower than average sex ratio for the state—907 girls to 1,000 boys, as opposed to 920 for the state as a whole.[153] This suggests a high degree of female foeticide and discrimination against girls in the district. In 2002, it was reported that over 61 per cent of women in the district marry before they reach 18 years of age.[154] Not surprisingly, both the IMR and under five mortality rate is high in Panna— respectively 93 per 1,000 live births and 132 per 1,000 live births. [155]

According to the Census, 13,303 children between 5 and 14 years were working as child labourers in the district in 2001. As the NCLP is not currently active in Panna, there are currently no government programmes to address child labour in hazardous occupations in the district.

How Diamonds Are Mined

Increasing amounts of land previously used for agriculture had now been converted for mining and quarrying activities. This is an extremely worrying situation, given that around 80 per cent of the state's population still live in rural areas and are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods. Many of the communities interviewed across all the districts had previously relied upon agriculture or livestock grazing for their survival, but were now working as daily wage labourers in the mines due to lack of available land.

Children working in diamond mines under contractor's supervision (Photo August 2009)

150. Secretary, PKMS

151. Government of Madhya Pradesh, Human Development Report, 2007, http://www.mp.gov.in/difmp/mphdr2007.htm.

152. District Factsheet, Government of Madhya Pradesh, Human Development Report, 2007, http://www.mp.gov.in/difmp/mphdr2007.htm.

153. Data accessed on indiastat.com; taken from National Commission for Women, 2001.

154. District Factsheet, Government of Madhya Pradesh, Human Development Report, 2007, http://www.mp.gov.in/difmp/mphdr2007.htm.

155. Ibid.

Impact of Displacement and Resettlement on *Adivasis* in Panna in the Context of Mining

From the claws of the tiger to the clutches of the mining mafia, the *adivasis* in Panna fell prey to India's development policies that pit conservation against human rights. Villages displaced by the Panna Tiger Reserve were either forcibly relocated by the government or had to migrate out and find land for themselves. Whereas earlier the *adivasi* communities had large areas of land to cultivate and were traditionally involved in agriculture and forestry, they are now confined to small patches and are unable to sustain their livelihoods through farming alone.

Besides, the resettlement area is uncultivable land, unlike their earlier fertile lands. The money that was allocated for land development was barely utilised for this purpose as the government retained the money and did not implement the activities properly. There were two phases of relocation and different packages of rehabilitation that left some with only monetary compensation. In the first phase, the local organisation, Pathar Khan Mazdoor Sangh (PKMS) informed the study team that, each displaced family was given Rs.36,000 and 5 acres of land. In the second phase Rs.10 lakhs was given as cash compensation, but only Rs. 9 lakhs was directly given to the people and a lakh was retained by the government for land development. However, the people complained that they did not receive most of this money which was lost in paying the different levels of administrative machinery that processes their compensation money.

Displacement, has adversely affected the livelihood of the communities as many of the families including children, now work in the stone quarries and diamond mines or are migrating to far off places like Delhi, Amritsar and other towns in Punjab, or Goa.

Status of *Adivasis* After Displacement

The *Gonds*, who are the main *adivasis* here, have to now live with other mainstream castes like *Yadavs* and *Mahars* who are more dominating and have better access to land as the *Gonds* came here only recently and are a more diffident community. A village elder stated bitterly that as there is no work in the village, many of the younger people were migrating to other areas. In addition, with the introduction of NREGA there has been an increase in corruption that has destroyed the peace in the village. The people seconded his comments adding that they do not get even 10–20 days of work in a year, so it really does not provide them any guaranteed employment. Moreover, the *Thakurs* and *Yadavs* dominate the villagers and grab whatever schemes reach their village, whether it is BPL cards or NREGA job cards. Wages according to the NREGA is currently Rs.85 per person day.

Adivasi child from displaced family, axe at his side, has a frugal meal before leaving for the mines (Photo August 2009)

Umraban village is a stark example of what displacement means to people. This is an *adivasi* village having a population of around 200. According to the villagers about 15 families migrated out of the village. Most of the youth here work as construction labour or are involved in other manual labour in mining.

Another example is Janawar area *gram panchayat*, which was the first to be displaced by the Panna Tiger Reserve. There are 54 families here, and, at the village meeting that was attended by most of the adults and children, people spoke about the poor rehabilitation. They said that 17 of the displaced families are yet to be rehabilitated. New Jhallar village, which is a resettlement site of the displaced from the tiger reserve area, is an example of how the *adivasi* farmers have been left completely landless and without any livelihood after losing their lands. They had to shift close to forest land which is not considered 'legal' for them to own and they do not have the skills of working in the mines either. Hence, they have no alternate source of livelihood and may end up as mine labour very soon if government does not take up rehabilitation, or if the forest land is not given to them under the recently enacted Scheduled Tribes and Other

Traditional Forest Dwellers (Recognition of Rights) Act.

In Gandhigram too, as in the surrounding area, all the displaced *adivasi* families suffer discrimination from the upper castes as they have been forced to live with them after relocation. At the village meeting, the people reported that around 40–50 persons from the village have migrated out to the cities, for lack of sustenance.

Status of *Anganwadis* and Schools

The mining activities, compounded by the displacement of *adivasi* villages for the Panna Tiger Reserve have led to a breakdown of institutional mechanisms, or where they exist, they are made irrelevant to the child in the current situation of impoverishment. The study team visited the *anganwadi* centres and primary schools which are the main institutions of support for education and nutritional development of the child.

Of the total population of 200 in Umraban village between 60 to 70 persons are below 18 years of age. The primary school in the village has an enrolment of 39 children of which 21 are boys and 18 are girls, all of whom are STs. Of these children around eight, mainly girls, do not go to school but accompany their parents for work in the diamond mines and quarries or to take care of their younger siblings while their parents are at work. As this village is not very close to the road, the teacher is not regular and because of this, absenteeism among children was also reported. According to the survey conducted by PKMS, there are over 40 children below 6 years of age in this village, but there is no *anganwadi* facility in Umraban.

In Mannor village, according to his survey, there are 126 children enrolled in the primary school of which 60 are boys and 66 are girls, all from ST families. There is no school building at present and children were found to be studying under a tree. However, a new school building was under construction at the time of this study. Only about two children have studied upto class V in this village.

Mannor has mining activities very close to the village and hence 20–25 children of the age group of 8 years and above work regularly in the diamond mines and stone quarries. In this village, there is an *anganwadi*, which has an enrolment of 127 children between 0 and 6 years of age. However, only 25–30 children regularly go to the *anganwadi*, as the rest are taken to the mine sites by the parents because the *anganwadi* does not take care of the children all through the day.

Bador village has a population of 650, as stated by PKMS, of which 200 children are enrolled in the primary school. There are 112 boys and 88 girls, with ST boys numbering 78 and ST girls numbering 66, and the rest are SC (three boys and one girl) and OBCs (49) and General (3). However, when the team visited the school there were only 30–35 children attending and the headmaster said that majority of the children go for mine labour work. The *anganwadi* in this village has an enrolment of 96 infants but only 80 attend the *anganwadi* regularly. There are 40 children in the age group of 0–3 years and 40 children in the age group of 3–6 years. The *anganwadi* is mainly managed by the *sahayaka* or assistant who is an *adivasi* girl but the *anganwadi* teacher, who is from the *Yadav* caste neither attends regularly nor treats the children with care. Hence, the women said that they are not too happy to send their children to the local *anganwadi*. The *anganwadi* worker said that three infants were identified by her, as severely malnourished, and she got the children admitted at the district hospital at Panna. In reality, the PKMS, expressed that most of the children are malnourished and do not have adequate diet or sanitation.

Purana Panna is a *gram panchayat* village with a large population. It has a primary school with strength of 154 children, of whom 71 are boys and 83 are girls. Here again, as the mines are close to the village 15–20 children regularly go for work in the diamond mines, which are privately run by contractors, and do not attend school. The *anganwadi* in this village has 124 children, with 56 girls and 68 boys. Ten pregnant women and 16 women who have just delivered, are registered here. Of the children enrolled in the *anganwadi*, only 25–30 children go to the *anganwadi* regularly as the others are taken to the mine sites by their parents. Hence, most of the infants were seen to be in the mine sites, exposed to the dust from the quarries and this is a serious hazard to their health, particularly with respect to respiratory infections.

Half the *adivasi* population who were displaced from Jhallar relocated to Janawar and settled in the forest land behind the village. This new resettlement colony, called New Jhallar, has a mini-*anganwadi* which is linked to Panna *anganwadi* and has 23 girls and 20 boys enrolled here. It is mainly taken care of by the *sahayaka* who cooks the supplementary food allotted to this colony. There is a primary school here but without a building (as it is forest land and they do not have permission to construct a building) but there are 15–20 children of school-going age here. There is no teacher appointed here,

but a teacher is sent from the primary school of Janawar village for an hour every day to teach the children. In Jhallar village, the *sarpanch*, who was instrumental in preparing the rehabilitation policy, said that there is only one primary school to which five girls and 10–12 boys go regularly. He stated that the literacy rate of the village does not exceed 5 per cent. The *sarpanch* also admitted that atleast 10–20 children below the age of 18 years are working in the mines or in tea stalls or other petty shops besides doing additional work at home like agricultural labour or grazing the cattle.

In Gandhigram village the population is 250, and children enrolled in the primary school which is attached to Janakpur *gram panchayat*, is 135. However, only 70–80 children regularly attend school and the rest are involved in working in the diamond mines and stone quarries. The village is surrounded by both stone quarries and diamond mines on a very large scale and therefore the incidence of child labour working in the mines is higher. The *anganwadi* is closed, reportedly because of a case against the *anganwadi* worker. Children are, therefore, unable to access any supplementary nutrition in this village.

Table 2.08 presents the official data, District Information System for Education (DISE report card 2008), regarding school enrolment in some of the villages where the above primary information was collected. There are variations in the primary and secondary sources of information which shows that secondary data is not completely accurate and in many places, there is no data available. However, there is more variance between the enrolment figures of children and the actual numbers regularly attending school which only reflects that if children are not in school, they most certainly are found in the mine sites or in other places of work.

Child Labour in the Diamond Mines and Stone Quarries

The people in the villages the study team visited, described how they find that mine labour is unsustainable in several ways because their children are forced to work in the mines. In village Bador, a *Gond* explained how two of his sons, both below 18 years of age, were forced to work in the stone quarries and diamond mines, as a result of his illness. The man used to work in the mines but had become ill with malaria and TB. Therefore, the boys started working in order to support the family and to purchase medicines.

Most of the boys and girls start working by the age of 10 or 12, with more girls found in every site. They keep shifting from mine site to mine site, wherever the contractors give them work, either in the stone quarries or in the diamond mines. The parents said that as future bread-winners of the families, they have no choice but to learn the work early in life as they do not anticipate any other opportunities for their children, given their situation of poverty.

In Janawar village the elders reported that every child in the village is involved either in mining activities or in domestic chores as the land given by government is not fertile and it has made them impoverished. Officially the rehabilitation project has provided substantial cash compensation, but in reality the displaced families are found everywhere

Table 2.08: Primary school enrolment data for some villages in Panna district

District	Block	Village	Total enrolment	SC	ST	OBC	Others
Panna	Panna	Jhallar	21	0	1	20	--
		Janawar	113	2	18	92	13
		Umraban	Data not available	--	--	--	--
		Gandhigram	232	82	23	111	107
		Mannor	73	3	21	38	51
		Hardua	173	25	47	58	75
		Rakseha	517	18	56	272	24

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim

Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

Sources: DISE report card, September 2008

in the mine sites ekeing out a living as daily wage labour. This calls for a review of the process of resettlement and compensation.

A teenage boy interviewed, stated that he has been working in the mines from the age of 10 and he now gets a daily wage of Rs.70. The stone quarry near Gandhigram village provided evidence of child and adolescent labour. The boys, who were around 17 years of age, explained that they work under a contractor who pays them Rs.35–40 for one piece of stone broken. The boys earn, on an average, Rs.70–100 per day and the material, to their understanding, is sent to the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan and to the city of Bhopal in Madhya Pradesh. They reported that working hours vary from contractor to contractor, but on an average, each boy works for 10 hours daily. All the boys interviewed belonged to the *Gond* tribe and they have been working for a few years now.

Young boys digging for diamonds (Photo August 2009)

Chainsingh Dharampur is an example of the nature of diamond mining taking place in Panna district. It is village of *Gonds*, close to the diamond mines of many private contractors who explore for diamonds illegally. In a meeting held in the village during the field visit, which was attended by about 19 *Gond* families, they complained that, on the one hand, government is allotting small areas (25x25 ft) for mining leases to private contractors, and on the other hand, non-*adivasi* local people were lured by the contractors to give their land informally on lease for diamond mining activities. The contractors pay them around 10 per cent of their profit for this land. Therefore, it is spreading like rat-hole mining in the whole area with agriculture and forest land being seriously affected. The women complained that earlier they could work as agricultural labourers, but now there is no work. The people here also complained that most of the illegal mining is happening in forest land and that there are atleast 5–10 times more illegal mines than legal ones.

According to these *Gond* families who work in the mines as contract labour, the wages are very low. The men are paid Rs.50–60 per day and the women get Rs.40. They also clearly stated that there are many children working as labour in diamond mining. While most of the women take their infants with them to work, the children start taking part in the mining activities from the age of 10. The women informed that young boys go as deep as 70 ft underground, into the mine pits in search of diamonds, sometimes for 8–10 hours at a stretch. According to villagers of Dharampur there are more than 500 children (age group 10–16 years) working in illegal mining activities in Dharampur and surrounding areas. As children are cheap labour for the contractors, they are hired to work in the mines. The women said that majority of the child labour are also girls who start working from the age of 12–14 to supplement the family wages.

In one of the diamond mines visited by us, six children were found working with their families. Four of the children were below 12 years of age and were helping the adults throw the soil away. The parents stated that the children are enrolled in school but they work for half a day in the mines and also attend school in the afternoon. When questioned, the children said that they do not have money to buy notebooks and they fear the wrath of the teacher, so they preferred to accompany their mothers to work.

In Hardua village that is home to 30 *Gond* families, around 12 families participated in the group discussion we held regarding the diamond mining activities. None of these families have land and all of them are dependent either on mining, which takes place for 4–5 months in a year, and the rest of the year they either sell wood from the forest

Malnourished and out-of-school, children of mine workers in Panna (Photo August 2009)

or migrate to Delhi, Kanpur, Jhansi or Haryana. Here also the people explained that they earn Rs.50–60 per day in the mining activity. Women and children are also working in the mines and earn Rs.30–35 per day. Children are mainly involved in sorting the stones and digging up soil and have to stay for many hours inside the mine pits in order to find diamonds. Children are also working in sandstone mining and their main tasks here are, breaking the stones and loading them into trucks. In this village, we found children who were 8 years old, also working in the diamond mining activity.

The villagers complained that NREGA works are not available for more than 30–35 days in a year and that they are cheated in wage disbursal. Because of this, they have to go out of the villages for work.

Voluntary organisations like PKMS have been fighting for the rights of the displaced *adivasi* families and against the use of child labour in the mines. They state that the nexus between the law enforcement departments and the mining mafia is very strong and as the communities are too poor they are forced to take their children for work. When the team asked them about the future of their children, they replied that they had no time or luxury to think about the children's future. They have to survive for today. As an 8 year old boy stated, 'there is nothing in the school to study, we are here to support our family, holding diamonds in the same frail hands that never held a fistful of food!

Health Problems

Women workers stated that they work in the mines even during the late months of pregnancy as they have no other work available. They expressed that children are born very anaemic and are malnourished. Both women and children looked malnourished when we visited the area. Child marriages are common in this area, which is also an added reason for early motherhood and malnourishment among women and children. We found young mothers, not older than 20, holding one or two children, and they all looked very anaemic. The common health problems that children working in the diamond mines suffer from are respiratory illnesses due to dust inhalation, skin diseases due to standing in the stagnating mine pits for several hours to dig the pits. Diarrhoea and fevers, particularly malaria, is very high among the children here, given that the mine pits are abandoned without any reclamation after the exploration for diamonds and have stagnant water with mosquitoes. These abandoned mine pits also pose risk of accidents especially in the rainy season. Recently, four mine workers were said to have perished in the mine debris while digging for diamonds.

Among adults, TB is a very common occupational health problem among the mine workers. Dr. Tiwari, the Chief Medical Officer of the Panna District Hospital, stated that malnourishment and TB were very high among the mine workers in Panna district. In Hardua village, we were informed by the people that 3–4 people had died of TB. The PHC of Hardua Rakseha, which we visited in August 2009, had no doctors posted here and this was reflected on the notice board of the PHC which did not display the names of any medical personnel. The PHC was merely manned by a paramedic (compounder) who was found distributing the same medicine to all the patients who were present at the hospital during our visit. The people complained that although it is a government hospital and there is no doctor appointed, they are forced to pay for their medicines and treatment.

Water and Sanitation

The women complained that they face severe water problems and the water supplied by NMDC is far from adequate to meet their needs because, out of the four hand pumps given in one village, only one functions. The children, therefore, live in conditions of poor sanitation and hygiene and appeared very unhealthy when we visited the villages. Almost all the children we saw looked anaemic, with distended bellies and pale faces, and appeared undersized for their age. The women said that as they were away at the mine site most of the day and did not have the time or sufficient water, they are unable to bathe their children regularly or keep them clean. Most of the children were defecating around the houses as there are no toilets. The unhealthy condition of the children was a clear indication of the lack of economic support for their families, inspite of the mining boom.

The women and children of Gandhigram have to walk a distance of 4 km to fetch water and as they have a major water shortage, the burden of collecting water is on the girls. People complained of water-borne health problems and stated malaria, TB and inadequate food as the major problems. The team saw 4–5 people suffering from TB here. Malnutrition is very high among the children. There are only two families who own BPL cards although the entire village is eligible. Mannor village too had no drinking water and the youth said that many of them have TB but they suspect it to be silicosis.

Conclusions

Panna, once a rich *adivasi* belt, is today ravaged by the greed of the diamonds. Panna is a district of tragic development paradoxes. It is one of the districts that figure in the national statistics for the poorest human development indicators. It has some of the lowest levels of literacy in the country and also lowest health indicators. Panna district has the highest number of malnourished children in the country, according to reports. Yet this district exports diamonds to the world from India and the mineral revenues from diamond alone comprise a substantial per cent of the total revenues from mining. As in South Africa, Sierra Leone and other African countries which supply diamonds to the world market and yet have some of the worst indicators of growth, particularly with respect to children, Panna holds a similar story in India. The case study here showed how self-sufficient *adivasi* farmers who were involved in subsistence farming and could provide food security for their children, have become landless labourers in the stone quarries and diamond mines. This situation also forced their children to end up in the mines instead of attending school. In most of the *anganwadis* visited, they are either dysfunctional or their purpose of addressing the nutrition and health of infants, is far from being met. Panna is a glaring example that mining, even in the case of a precious stone like diamond, has serious negative impacts on children's development. Unless there is official acknowledgement of this and a review of the mining processes in this region and a review of the development policies adopted here, especially with respect to displacement of *adivasis* for the sake of conservation of wildlife, there is little hope for the future of the children.

(***Acknowledgements:*** This case study was done in partnership with PKMS, Panna. We acknowledge all the assistance in field data collection and facilitation of community meetings given by Mr. Yusuf Baig, Secretary of PKMS and his organisation which works for the rights of mine workers and their families in Panna district.)

Chhattisgarh

State Overview

Chhattisgarh, carved out of Madhya Pradesh in 2000, ranks tenth amongst India's states in terms of area and has a population of 20,833,803[156] (which is 2 per cent of India's population). The GDP of Chhattisgarh for 2006-07 is estimated at Rs. 59,321 crore and, at constant price, it has recorded a growth of 9.41 per cent over 2005-06, which is comparable with the all India growth of 9.6 per cent.[157] Agriculture is the dominant industry in the state, employing around 76 per cent of the total labour for the state.[158] The norm is single cropped and rain-fed agriculture, and with paddy as the main kharif crop, in about 80 per cent of the net sown area,[159] the central plains of Chhattisgarh are known as the 'rice bowl' of central India.

Chhattisgarh is predominantly rural, with only 20.1 per cent of the population residing in urban areas (the national level is around 28 per cent).[160] The rate of urbanisation in the state is 17.4 per cent as against the national average of 29 per cent.[161]

For Chhattisgarh, natural resources are its greatest strength. Some of the key thrust sectors where Chhattisgarh holds advantage over other states are mining, power, cement, iron ore and steel.[162] According to the state government, Chhattisgarh is one of the richest states in India in terms of mineral wealth, with 28 major minerals discovered so far, including diamonds. Chhattisgarh is also currently one of the few states in India that has surplus power. The state has huge reserves of coal and hence an enormous potential for coal-based thermal power generation. As per the state government's official website, Korba is really the 'Power capital of India'. The state is also the iron and steel hub of the country. The Bhilai Steel Plant of Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL) produces more than 4 million tonnes of iron and steel per annum. Substantial capacities have been set up in the private sector as well.[163]

A condusive labour environment, cheap power, sufficient water resources and availability of land at a lower cost make Chhattisgarh a favourable location for industrial investments. The state provides targeted incentives for industrial investment in the form of various subsidies. Other industries with potential growth in Chhattisgarh are the food processing industry, herbal and medicine industry, gems and jewellery industry[164].

Chhattisgarh is a Scheduled Area state and has a very large *adivasi* population. According to the Census 2001, 11.6 per cent of Chhattisgarh's constitute SCs and 31.8 per cent are STs (the national averages being 16.2 per cent SCs and 8.2 per cent STs). The vast majority of the SC and ST population live in the rural areas of Chhattisgarh and are largely dependent on agriculture as their main source of income.

Despite the abundant resources that Chhattisgarh has been blessed with, the poverty estimates provided by the Planning

156 Census of India, 2001.

157 The Hindu. "Chhattisgarh posts 9.41 p.c. GDP growth". February 23, 2008. http://www.thehindu.com/2008/02/23/stories/2008022354350500.htm.

158 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 45-46.

159 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 53.

160 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 45-46.

161 Chhattisgarh-September 2009, Prepared by India Brand Equity Foundation, http://www.ibef.org/states/chhattisgarh.aspx, Accessed on December 14, 2009.

162 Ibid.

163 Ibid.

164 Ibid.

Commission, Government of India, reveal that the poverty ratio in the state is 40.9 per cent, significantly higher than that of all India (27.5 per cent). In absolute numbers, the population below poverty line in Chhattisgarh ranks third amongst the major states in the country, after Orissa (46.4 per cent) and Bihar (41.4 per cent).[165] With only 18.7 per cent of households having access to proper sanitation facilities, Chhattisgarh is ranked the lowest among the major states in India.[166]

The literacy level in Chhattisgarh, at 65.1 per cent, is slightly lower than the national average of 66 per cent.[167] Within the literacy levels, there seems to be quite an extensive gender divide—77.9 per cent of the male population were found to be literate, compared to just 52.3 per cent of the female population. However, the female literacy rate for SCs (at 49.2 percent) and STs (at 39.4 per cent) is even lower.[168]

Another challenge for Chhattisgarh is the public health sector. As per the Chhatisgarh Human Development Report 2005, health infrastructure in the state needs a considerable upgrade, both in terms of coverage and reach as well as in quality of services provided. The demand for more PHCs as well as sub-health centres (SHCs) and CHCs is mentioned in nearly every district report.[169] According to the NFHS-3 data, the reason a majority of the households did not access government facilities was not necessarily due to poor quality of care, but because there were no such facilities nearby.[170]

The state has a high incidence of TB, malaria, leprosy and jaundice. There is only one TB hospital in Raipur district and two leprosy hospitals in Raipur and Dakshin Bastar, Dantewada district.[171] Many district reports in the state speak of poor levels of nutrition, and managing two square meals is an issue for most people. In the village and district reports, people repeatedly say that not having enough to eat is one of the most important issues for them and that the lack of adequate food is one of the biggest causes of ill-health.[172]

Status of Children

According to the Census 2001, children (age group of 0–14 years) constitute 37 per cent of the total population of the state. However, Chhattisgarh's number of live births registered (at 384,815)[173] is amongst the lowest of the major states in India. The child sex ratio in the 0–6 age group, with 975 girls per 1,000 boys is not only higher than the national average of 927, but the highest amongst India's states.[174] However, this sex ratio has actually gone down from that of 1991 (985), with more boys being registered at birth than girls.

The NFHS-3 estimates the IMR in Chhattisgarh as 70.8 per 1,000 live births and the under five mortality rate as 90.3 per 1,000 (down from 80.9 per 1,000 live births and 122.7 per 1,000 live births respectively in 1998-99). The state does have the highest level of perinatal mortality (64) and its vaccination percentage of 48.7 is only slightly higher than the national level.[175] Proper vaccination coverage is crucial to reducing infant and child mortality. Malnutrition for children under 3 years of age remains high in Chhattisgarh, at 52.2 per cent (ranking the state fourth among the major states in India).[176]

Acute Respiratory Illness (ARI) is a major problem amongst younger children (below 5 years) in the state, followed by diarrhoea. The percentage of children with ARI symptoms who actually received antibiotics was the lowest in Chhattisgarh (1 per cent).[177] As per the NFHS-3, the percentage of children in Chhattisgarh who are offered more liquids once diagnosed with diarrhoea (at 3.2 per cent) is also amongst the lowest of India's states, well below the national average of 10.5 per cent. Majority of these children are given the same amount of fluids as they were before diagnosis. This coupled with ARI and fever, results in high mortality among children. Diseases such as smallpox, polio and plague are also mentioned as illnesses that took a heavy toll of life in the past, but the incidence of such diseases has declined substantially today.[178]

165 Economic Survey of India 2008-09. Pp. 263.

166 Ibid.

167 Census of India, 2001.

168 Data accessed on indiastat.com. Source: Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 4090, dated 20.12.2005.

169 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 131.

170 NFHS-3 3, 2005-06. Pp. 438.

171 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 129.

172 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 126.

173 Data accessed on indiastat.com. State-wise Number of Live Births Registered by Sex and Residence in India-2005. Source: Office of the Registrar General, India.

174 Census of India, 2001.

175 NFHS-3, 2005-06.

176 Economic Survey of India 2008-09. Pg. 263.

177 NFHS-3, 2005-06. Pp. 236.

178 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 123.

It is hard to gauge the state's performance in terms of providing education for its children. The total enrolment for primary education in 2001-02 was 723,180 children, of which 323,500 or 44.7 per cent were girls. In 2002-03, enrolment increased to 820,234 of which 385,315 or 47 per cent were girls.[179] The increase in the enrolment of girls has been higher than the enrolment for boys. However, despite encouraging statistics like the above Chhattisgarh's Educational Development Index[180] of 0.521 ranks it amongst the lowest of India's states. Conflict with the Maoists (extremist groups also known as Naxals) has also severely impacted the education of displaced children as well. According to a Human Right's Watch report, a survey conducted by a local NGO indicates that around 40 per cent of the children between ages six and 16 residing in camps are not attending school.[181] According to the government, there were 169,753 children officially out of school in March 2008.[182]

According to the Census 2001, 364,572 child labourers work in various sectors in Chhattisgarh. According to the state government's official website, there are 20,723 child labourers in non-agricultural enterprises in the state (13,836 boys and 6,987 girls)[183] The children of Chhattisgarh face an added complication: Residing in a conflict area, as per the Human Rights Watch, all parties to the conflict—the Maoists, state-supported anti-Maoist vigilante groups (known as Salwa Judum) and government security forces—have recruited children in different capacities that expose them to the risk of injury and death.[184]

Mining in Chhattisgarh

Chhattisgarh is one of the richest states in India in terms of mineral wealth, producing 28 major minerals. According to the Ministry of Mines the value of mineral production in Chhattisgarh increased by 17.5 per cent at Rs.105.1 billion in 2007-08 from the previous year. This has allowed the state

Coal mining area, Raigarh (Photo November 2009)

to be ranked second in total value of mineral production in India, after Andhra Pradesh.[185] The important minerals produced in the state in 2007-08 were coal, bauxite, iron ore, dolomite and limestone, which together accounted for about 99 per cent of the entire value of mineral production in the state.[186] Chhattisgarh is the sole producer of tin concentrates in India, accounting for 38 per cent of tin ore resources for the country. The state is the second leading producer of coal and dolomite and iron ore, with a share of 20 per cent, 23 per cent and 15 per cent respectively. Over one-fifth of iron ore in the country is mined here and one of the best quality iron ore deposits in the world is found in the Bailadila mines in the south of the state, from where it is exported to Japan and other countries.[187] The state also accounts for about 28 per cent diamond resources of India.[188]

According to statistics released by the Ministry of Labour and Employment, in 2005, the mining sector in Chhattisgarh employed a daily average of 46,200 workers (similar to those employed in 2004).[189] Whether the labour employed in mines is entirely local or not is not well known, although indications are that there is substantial migrant labour from outside the state.[190]

179 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 91.

180 Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India. Annual Report 2007-08. Pp. 53-54. Developed by the National University of Educational Planning and Administration to track the progress of the States towards Universal Elementary Education the EDI was developed keeping in mind four broad parameters of access, infrastructure, teacher-related indicators and outcomes.

181 Human Rights Watch. "Dangerous Duty: Children and the Chhattisgarh Conflict". September 2008. Pp. 50.

182 State-wise number of out of school children in India, as on 31 March 2008, Source : Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008.

183 Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Chhattisgarh, Chhattisgarh At a Glance-2002, Pg 22, http://chhattisgarh.nic.in/statistics/details.pdf, accessed on 14 December 2009.

184 Human Rights Watch. "Dangerous Duty: Children and the Chhattisgarh Conflict". September 2008. Pp. 4.

185 Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09. Pp. 10.

186 Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09. Pp. 16.

187 Chhattisgarh- September 2009, Prepared by India Brand Equity Foundation, Pp. 33 http://www.ibef.org/states/chhattisgarh.aspx, Accessed on December 14, 2009.

188 Ibid.

189 Data accessed on indiastat.com; compiled from statistics released by the Ministry for Labour and Employment, Government of India. Selected State-wise Average Daily Employment and Number of Reporting Mines in India. (2002 to 2005).

190 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp. 58.

The top five most mined districts are Korba, Koriya, Surguja, Raigarh and Durg.[191] With simplified mining laws and quick processing of lease applications being given high priority, Chhattisgarh's mining policy is quite conducive to private and foreign investment. This has, unfortunately, triggered a violent reaction from the Maoists who have resisted the state's attempts to acquire and exploit people's land to serve the multinationals. [192] The state also regularly loses millions of rupees to illegal mining; nearly 1,500 illegal mining cases were detected in Chhattisgarh in 2001 alone. Of these, 587 cases were of illegal mining and 834 of illegal transportation of minerals.[193]

For this newborn state, mining undoubtedly has enormous economic benefits. But in its overdrive to tap into the huge resources that mining offers, the state government is ignoring the disastrous impacts mining has on the environment and people. Chhattisgarh is facing environmental challenges such as destruction of forests (as per the state's official website, 44 per cent of the state's land is under forests, of which 90,000 ha is now under mining of major minerals) and pollution of rivers, which is the main source of irrigation for the inhabitants of those lands, as well as detrimental impacts on land productivity. Some reports have pointed out that illnesses related to breathing and respiration, falling levels of immunity, weakness and ill-health are all outcomes of pollution. In some cases, people have been forced to migrate due the adverse impact of pollution on their health.[194]

The Mining Curse On the Children of Chhatisgarh

Sunil (name changed) who refused to be photographed is from the village Mudagaon, in Tamnar block. He suffers from skeletal disorder and weakened bones due to the high fluorosis in the drinking water. He is about 18 years of age but he has had a withered body and dysfunctional limbs since the age of 9 years. He cannot walk or sit up straight. He is completely dependent on his family for all his needs. The villagers reported that there are several children like Sunil who start showing skeletal and dental flourosis from a very early age and by the time they reach their twenties most of them become completely disabled. Education reports from the Block Resource Coordinator (BRC) show that over 120 children are physically and mentally handicapped for various reasons, in Tamnar block.

Source: Interview conducted in Mudagaon village, Raigarh, November 2009

"My name is Rakesh (name changed). I am about 17 years old. I dropped out from school 5 years ago. At present I am doing some part-time work in the mines and the rest of the time I take care of my family's cattle. We have been compensated by Raipur Alloys which took our land for the coal mines. They paid us Rs 130,000 per acre but most of the compensation money has been spent. The company promised to resettle us, but we are still waiting for rehabilitation. As a manual worker in the mines, I earn Rs. 80–100 per day".

Source: Interview carried out near open-cast coal mines of Raipur Alloys, near Kosampali village, Raigarh, November 2009

Raigarh district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,265,529 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	140,095 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 70.16 per cent Male 82.7 per cent Female 57.62 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	3.2 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	77.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour:	364,572 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	443 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

191 Analysis by Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, Pp. 122.

192 Srivastava, Devyani, Mining War in Chhattisgarh, Institute of Peace and Conflict Studies, May 23, 2008. G:\Mining - PT\Chhattisgarh\Research\Mining War in Chhattisgarh.htm, accessed on January 4, 2010.

193 Analysis by Centre for Science and Environment, Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, Pp. 123.

194 Chhattisgarh Human Development Report 2005, Prepared for the Government of Chhattisgarh. Pp 31.

The case study was done in Raigarh district of Chattisgarh, which has extensive mineral deposits of coal, dolomite, iron ore and limestone. The case study was mainly undertaken in the area where the power projects are located which have been creating displacement as well as pollution related problems to the people.

District Profile of Raigarh

Raigarh district in Chhatisgarh is a major producer of steel, with Jindal Steel and Power being the biggest producer. Raigarh consumes about 20,000 tonnes of coal per day. Chattisgarh and Jharkhand states together have almost all the coal deposits in India, which has led to their 'power hub' strategy. Raigarh district has an area of 6,836 sq km of which 585.63 sq km is forest area. Gharghoda sub-district where the current case study was conducted has a population of 148,903 of which 83,657 are *adivasis*.[195] The major tribes in this area are Birhor, Hill-Korwah, Kolpa, Rathiya Kamar, Gorh, Kanwar, Uraon and Dhanuhar. The tribes in Raigarh are mainly dependent on agriculture and forest produce, mahua being the principal produce.

The case study was conducted in Tamnar block of Gharghoda sub-district and is one of the most industrialised areas in Raigarh as mining giants such as Jindal, Raipur Alloys and Monnet Ispat have their plants here.

Raigarh has seven sub-districts, and the research covered the villages of Milupara, Khamariya, Gare, Korked, Kosampali, Sarasmal and Mudagaon in Tamnar block. In this block there are three coal and power plants, which are Jindal Steel and Power Limited, Raipur Alloys and Steel Limited, and Monnet Ispat. Monnet Ispat has underground coal mining that extends over 40 acres of land. Jindal Steel and Power Limited as well as Raipur Alloys and Steel Limited, have open-cast coal mining in Tamnar block.

The Backdrop of the Study: The Mining Agitation in Raigarh

At the time of this study (16 November 2009), a major agitation was taking place against the proposed Jindal Power Plant in Gare village. On 5 January 2008, a public hearing was held amidst strong people's protests as the affected communities were opposed to the project and they had no prior project related information. Inspite of this, the district authorities conducted the public hearing by bringing in people

Coal filled agricultural land in Tamnar block
(Photo November 2009)

from elsewhere and engineering the proceedings. Police were brought in and people were lathi-charged (beaten) where seven persons were grievously injured and about 200 were partially injured. False cases were booked on the leaders who mobilised the protest; such is the abuse of the Jindals in Chattisgarh and interviews with the community leaders revealed the anger of the people for the manner in which democracy was being suppressed by the mining companies.

There were several flaws and misinformation that was being passed on to the public regarding the proposed project. For instance, according to Mr. Ram Kumar Agrawal, a former Member of the Legislative Assembly of Raigarh, five villages—Lamdarah, Saraitola, Gare, Khamariya and Karwahi—will be the most affected but the Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) report only shows five households as likely to be displaced. The core zone, which is the area leased for mining, and the buffer zone, which includes the area around the core extending up to 10 km, has 93.64 ha of forest land, which will be destroyed completely. In the buffer zone, around 30 per cent is forest land, which will be indirectly affected. Also, it is believed that the EIA report does not study the cumulative impact of the various industries present in the region. According to the protestors, they were agitating because there are already, several projects operating in the area like the Jindal's 1,000 mw power plant, and a number of coal mines that have destroyed the land, livelihood and quality of air, forest, the groundwater and rivers in this region.

The EIA for the proposed project estimates that 13,945 cu m of groundwater, equivalent to 20 per cent of the requirement of Raigarh's population, will be pumped out each day. However, it underplays this impact on the regional water balance and the affect on agriculture and forest.

195 raigarh.nic.in/

Local livelihoods destroyed due to mining activities
(Photo November 2009)

Another serious issue, as stated by an activist from the Raigarh-based Jan Chetana People's Movement[196], is that mining companies are simply acquiring rich agricultural land on which farmers are dependent for their sustenance, even if they do not do mining. This is the case of Jindal Steel and Power Plant, which got the lease in June 2006 but has not undertaken any mining activities till date. Technically, the lease should be cancelled as per the rules of the Ministry of Environment and Forests, but the Jindals continues to hold control over the land because of its sheer muscle power over the state machinery.

There are several other contentious issues that the local population is angry about, as they are already experiencing severe crisis in water, agriculture and health. Our visits to the villages reflect some of these concerns, particularly in the context of children and why there is a strong mood of protest and violence from the people, given their history of exploitation by the mining companies.

Status of Children's Education in Tamnar Block

One of the main villages studied was Gare village in Tamnar block. It has a total population of 741 with 150 households of which 400 are below the age of 18. The total ST population is 438 and SC population is 44. The village has two primary schools, one middle school and one *anganwadi* centre. Table 2.09 gives details of children attending the primary school in Gare village, which is in a poor condition, both in terms of infrastructure as well as in teaching. There are only two teachers and they are new to the school and neither of them are qualified. The Jindals did set up a school but it is far away from the village and too expensive for the local people to send their children. Only the children of employees of Jindals, therefore, attend this school.

Table 2.09: School enrolment data in primary school of Gare village

Class	Total Number	Boys	Girls	SC	ST	OBC	General
I	11	9	2	2	6	2	1
II	9	6	3	3	6	--	--
III	12	6	6	--	7	4	1
IV	12	4	8	2	7	2	1
V	11	3	8	1	5	5	--
Total	**55**	**28**	**27**	**8**	**31**	**13**	**3**

Source: School teacher of the primary school, Gare village

196 Mr. Rajesh Tripathi

Table 2.10 gives the government elementary education data for Gare village.

Table 2.10: Elementary education in Gare village

District	Block	Village	Total enrolment	SC	ST	OBC	Others
Raigarh	Tamnar	Gare	109	11	68	26	0
		Milupara	385	56	183	133	13
		Khamhariya	81	14	35	29	0
		Kodkel	127	11	89	27	0
		Kosampalli	80	1	70	9	7
		Sarasmal	24	0	20	4	0

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim

Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

Source: DISE report card, September 2008

Anganwadi or godown? A *sahayaka* manages the *anganwadi* in Khamhariya village (Photo November 2009)

In Khamhariya village there are 250–300 children below 18 years of age. There is one primary school and one middle school. Although there is an *anganwadi*, the people reported that only around 10–15 children attend it regularly. This is because the *anganwadi* centre is dilapidated and people said it was too dangerous for children to sit inside as the roof may collapse any time. When our team visited it, the centre looked like it was being used as a godown to store bags of cement and bricks. On record there are 28 children and four infants less than one year, but on the day of the visit only two children were present. According to the *anganwadi* worker, there is one child with Grade III malnourishment, eight children in Grade II and 23 in Grade I. There were nine pregnant women and nine lactating mothers in the centre's list but the *anganwadi* worker reported that since the last 2 months there was no supplementary nutrition provided to these women. She also stated that since 2 years she has not been supplied any medical kits.

In Khamhariya middle school, as per the school register, there are 52 children enrolled from three villages. This is a very low figure considering that children come from three villages. In Khamhariya itself there are 250–300 children below 18 years of age, which means that majority of the children are out of school in the three villages. There are three government teachers and two temporary teachers paid by the Jindals. The company's other contribution is to construct a boundary wall for the school. The BRC informed that in Tamnar block there are 162 primary schools, 56 middle schools and 11 high schools. Totally there are 310 teachers but 80 per cent of them are *shikshakarmis* (temporary teachers) and only 20 per cent are regular government teachers. Table 2.11 gives data on enrolment of children in primary and middle school in Tamnar block.

Table 2.11: Enrolment of children in primary and middle school in Tamnar block

Group Gender	SC	ST	OBC	General
Age group 6–11 years (primary school)				
Boys	639	2,859	1,616	186
Girls	532	2,851	1,518	161
Total	1,171	5,710	3,134	347
Age group 11–14 years (middle school)				
Boys	304	1322	990	81
Girls	255	1400	910	83
Total	**559**	**2,722**	**1,900**	**164**

Source: BRC, *Sarva Siksha Abhiyan*, Tamnar block

According to the teachers and the BRC there is no drop-out but it was casually mentioned that 120 children do not attend school as they are physically or visually handicapped.

Child Labour

Children affected by fluorosis in Mudagaon village, Tamnar block (Photo November 2009)

Although within the company premises of the large companies there is child labour engaged, the definition of child labour has to be questioned here, because we were informed that many adolescent boys and girls between the age of 15 and 18 work in the peripheral activities related to mining like loading, road construction, as cleaners in trucks and other daily wage labour hired by the local contractors. Besides, very few from the local communities are engaged in mining related work and we were informed that a lot of migrant labour from Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand and Bihar are working in large numbers. The people reported that as migrant labour are less likely to protest or demand, the companies bring labour from outside. This again shows that having been displaced by mining and power projects, local people have also lost their means of any alternate livelihood.

Health Problems of Children and Local Communities Due to Mining Activities

In every village people complained that children suffered from illnesses due to water contamination. Some of the villages like Milupara are close to the mine sites and hence suffer from both water and air pollution. The most common illnesses reported among the children were malaria, diarrhoea, hydrocele, pneumonia, skin ailments, bronchitis, gastroenteritis, abdominal pains, arthritis, jaundice and other respiratory ailments. Hydrocele is reported to have increased in the last 5 years. The villagers observed that water contamination is affecting reproductive health as children are observed to be

Closed PHC Sub center, Khamhariya (Photo November 2009)

born either weak or with physical disabilities. The notoriety of mining companies in Chattisgarh, especially the muscle power of the Jindals is well known, so the people are unable to get the authorities to take action on the water contamination due to mining activities.

It was reported that in 1998, an *adivasi* woman, Satyabhama went on a hunger strike to protest against the water contimanation of Kelo river but she was allowed to die with no action taken by the authorities who feared repercussions from the companies. After more than a decade since this incident, smoke from the plants like the chimneys of Raipur Alloys and Monnet Ispat are causing dust allergies and respiratory problems. The people in Kodkel village also reported that the Bendra Nala contains a layer of toxic waste and is creating health problems like diarrhoea, stomach disorders and fevers. Mine accidents and damages to houses due to blasting operations often occurs, according to local people. Women complained that there were a few instances of sexual abuse and hence they fear for the safety of adolescent girls.

The children's population catered to by the PHC at Kodkel is given in Table 2.12. The nurse shared information that there is 5 per cent IMR on record, but stated that in reality this was much higher.

Table 2.12: Age-wise distribution of people at Kodkel Public Health Centre

Age group	Male	Female
0–5 years	181	182
6–14 years	149	172
14 and above	1,082	1,126
Total	**1,412**	**1,480**

Source: Sub-centre, PHC, Kodkel

The health department personnel at the PHC admitted that there are far more number of patients approaching the centre now than before and this is because of the health problems being created by mining. The women stated that they prefer to have deliveries at home than at the PHC because of the condition of the roads and poor transport. Earlier there were incidents when women delivered on the way to the PHC due to the strenuous journey on these roads. The nurse also mentioned that three out of five women are suffering from anaemia. The health staff reported that fungal infections and hepatitis are on the rise mainly due to infections from polluted water

Malnourished child at Mudagaon village
(Photo November 2009)

The Blackened Waters of Kelo River

On discussions with people, one of the most serious problems expressed was the contamination of the Kelo river which is the only source of water for the people. Raigarh district once acclaimed to be the rice bowl of the state, has been degraded due to over-industrialisation and diversion of the innumerable rivers that flow through Chattisgarh, to serve the needs of private industries. Kelo river was the source of irrigation and drinking water to a large area in the state. However, the Jindals and Monnet Ispat mining activities have contaminated the river with mine tailings.

The people in all the villages covered under the study, universally declared that the water of Kelo river cannot be used either for drinking or even for bathing. In the last 3 years, the people have observed how the Kelo river has almost turned black with coal dumping. The people complained that the livestock is also seriously affected due to the water contamination. Besides the depletion of water due to borewells dug up by the

Kelo river in Gare village, life source of an entire region polluted by coal dust
(Photo November 2009)

companies for their power plants, has affected agriculture in the entire block. For example, in Khamhariya villagers showed the three borewells that have no water as most of the acquifers are affected by coal extraction. The villagers expressed fear that their agricultural lands and cultivation will be further destroyed, going by their experiences since the mining started in this region. Given that malnourishment is significantly high in this region as reflected in the state reports, the critical state of water and agriculture have direct impacts on children whose food security is imminently in danger. The anger of the people is visibly evident in the agitations that are reverberating in the area, in opposition to the new projects being set up by the Jindals and others.

Conclusions

Chattisgarh, a state created in the name of the development of the *adivasis*, has turned into a state for indiscriminate plunder of mineral resources by mining corporates. Corporate violations and abuse on activists as well as community leaders are known to all, but it is difficult to legally hold them accountable. On the other hand, the corporates have gained notoriety for booking false cases on activists and community leaders who question this destruction and harass them ceaselessly. Poverty of the communities, pollution of the water bodies and air, encroachment of rich agricultural lands for mineral exploitation were glaringly visible but the thin lines between legitimacy and illegitimacy of activities, difficulties that communities have in surmounting legal and technical definitions of proving their health problems that relate to mining allow companies to escape and continue with rampant plunder of the land and destruction of water bodies. The shocking state of children's education and health due to the abysmal services provided by the state compounded by ill-health due to mining induced pollution and starvation, do not reflect an economy that provides a just and healthy development for the children living in this region. Mining has put in disarray, not only the land and livelihoods, but also the resources and services that have made achievement of MDGs for children in the mining region of Chattisgarh, a far fetched goal. Again Chattisgarh has proved that, mineral 'rich' states, with a prolonged history of mining, overlap with some of the poorest human development indicators in this country.

(***Acknowledgements:*** This case study was done in partnership with Jan Chetana Peoples Movement of Raigarh which is working on the human and environment rights violations by mining companies and industries in Chattisgarh. We acknowledge the support and assistance of Mr.Ramesh Agarwal and his team in facilitating the field visits and compilation of primary data.)

EIA for Jindal coal mine in Chhattisgarh ignores threats

Sujit Kumar, Source: Down To Earth
Date: 15th feb 2008

The 4 million tonnes per annum opencast mine project called Gare IV/6 is sited in Tamnar block in highly industrialized Raigarh. During public hearing on January 5, about a hundred tribal people were injured in police lathicharge. People allege that Jindal supporters provoked violence when they raised objections to the EIA report and the hearing that was organized later than the stipulated time and without informing the panchayats, even though Tamnar falls under the Panchayat Extension to the Schedule Areas Act, 1996. People are angry that the hearing continued despite the fact that most of the people gathered for discussion had left after the lathicharge. The same day an FIR was filed in Tamnar police station against unknown people for damaging property at the hearing venue. Interestingly, the complainant was not the state pollution control board, which organized the public hearing, but the company. People have since resorted to road blockades and sit-in protests, demanding that the hearing be quashed.

file:///D:/office/media%20reports/all%20mining%20astes/Chattisgarh/EIA%20for%20Jindal%20coal%20mine%20in%20Chhattisgarh%20ignores%20threats%20%20%20News%20%20%20Down%20To%20Earth%20magazine.htm

Fairy-tale ride for child miner

Friday, June 12, 2009, Shreya Roy Chowdhury
Times News Network

On Friday, June 12—the World Day Against Child Labour—he will address a gathering at the International Labour Conference in Geneva. In a journey that's especially remarkable for someone so young, Manan has gone from being a child labourer to being a child activist, and has already rescued eight children from exploitation.

Working in the mica mines is ugly, but according to Manan, the residents of his village, Samsahiriya, cling to it tenaciously. Given their large families—his own has ten members—every rupee helps. Kids are put to work to supplement the family income. "More than half the children in our village are engaged in mining mica, and so are their parents. The youngest labourers are six or seven years old," he says.

http://www.ummid.com/news/June/12.09.2009/fairy_tale_ride_for_child_miner.htm

Clay mines kill

Children pay for illegal mining operations in West Bengal
Salahuddin Saiphy, Source: Down to Earth
Date: 14th March 2009

THERE are about 20 mines, mostly illegal, in Salanpur village in Burdwan district. The district has rich deposits of coal, fire clay and iron ore. One among the 20, a fire clay mine, claimed two young lives on February 8 in the West Bengal village. Four and five year

Jharkhand

State Overview

The state of Jharkhand was formed in 2000, when it was carved out of southern Bihar. According to the 2001 Census, the state has a population of 26,909,428. Jharkhand has experienced very fast economic growth rates in the past few years; in 2004-05, the economy grew by a staggering 33.83 per cent.[197] The state is extremely rich in mineral resources, with the largest supplies of iron ore, copper ore and mica in the country, as well as 29 per cent of India's coal reserves. It also has some of the country's most industrialised cities, such as Jamshedpur, Ranchi and Bokaro Steel City. A number of large companies, such as the Tata Iron and Steel Company, are based in Jharkhand. Despite this rapid industrialisation, almost 75 per cent of the population remains dependent on the agricultural sector, with the main crops including rice, wheat, potatoes and pulses.

Regardless of its economic growth, the state still faces huge challenges in terms of human development. Over 40 per cent of the population lives below the poverty line, which is significantly higher than the national average of 27.5 per cent. There are also vast gaps between the urban and rural parts of the state. Whilst only 20.2 per cent of the population lives below the poverty line in towns and cities, in the rural areas this figure is 46.3 per cent. Overall, more than two out of every five people cannot meet their basic needs in Jharkhand. High poverty is reflected in all other measures of socio-economic development. [198]

The state has a very large ST population, with 26.3 per cent of the population comprising STs. The average adult literacy rate is 53.56 per cent, the second lowest in the country above Bihar. For the SC and ST populations, the literacy rates are even worse. Only 37.56 per cent of people from SCs are literate in the state, and for SC women living in the rural areas, the figure is a shocking 17.73 per cent. In the case of the STs, the situation is not much better—40.67 per cent of STs in Jharkhand are literate, whilst the figure is 24.38 per cent for ST females in rural parts of the state.[199]

The Jharkhand Development Report 2009 reported that the percentage of main workers in the total population in Jharkhand is considerably lower than the India average. In fact, Jharkhand has the minimum percentage of people having full employment as compared to all the other states considered. This may indicate a lack of regular and stable employment opportunities for the population in the state.

Status of Children

As can be expected in a state where general human development indicators are poor, the status of children in Jharkhand is also very worrying. The total child population is 10,708,694 (14 years and under), and 13,208,344 (19 years and under).[200] According to the 2001 Census , there were 407,200 child labourers in the state (aged 14 years and under). Although there are no figures for the number of children working in hazardous occupations as a whole, the figure is likely to be high. The NCLP is currently operating in nine districts in the

197. Central Statistical Organisation, as quoted in: Indicus, Jharkhand Development Report, 2009.
198. Indicus, Jharkhand Development Report, 2009.
199. All literacy figures are taken from Census of India, 2001.
200. Census of India, 2001.

state, and by May 2007, had rehabilitated a total of 12,464 children, according to official data.[201] In September 2009, the International Labour Organisation's International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour launched a convergence project to tackle child labour in five states of India with the largest child labour problem, one of these being Jharkhand. It also aims to tackle the trafficking and migration of children from these states.

As of March 2008, there were 143,143 children (age group between 6 and 14 years) officially out of school in Jharkhand.[202] Pratham's ASER 2008 survey indicated that around 5.6 per cent of children in Jharkhand are not in school.[203] This would suggest that around 416,587 children in that age group are in fact out of school in the state. The ASER figures also show that nearly a third (30.1 per cent) of children aged 3–4 years are not enrolled in an *anganwadi* or pre-school. According to the 2001 Census, 71 per cent of girls living in rural areas in the state are married by the age of 18 years.

Unsurprisingly, child health data in the state also indicates a need for urgent action. The sex ratio in the state is 941 girls to every 1,000 boys, suggesting a high level of male child preference and female foeticide. The NFHS-3, conducted in 2005-06, showed that IMR in the state are 69 per 1,000 live births. Very worryingly, this was actually an increase from 54 per 1,000 live births when the NFHS-2 survey was conducted in 1998.[204] The figure for rural areas is even worse, where 73 out of every 1,000 children do not survive past their first year.

Mining in Jharkhand

In 2007-08, Jharkhand was the leading producer of coal and kyanite, and the second leading producer of gold in the country. The state accounts for about 35 per cent of rock phosphate, 29 per cent of coal, 28 per cent of iron ore, 16 per cent of copper ore and 10 per cent of silver ore resources of the country. In 2007-08, the value of mineral production in Jharkhand was Rs. 95.28 billion, an increase of 11.5 per cent from the previous year. In terms of value, over 90 per cent of the state's mineral production comes from coal. The state accounted for 8.6 per cent of the total value of mineral production in the country in 2007- 08.

The burning coal from CCL mines, Hazaribagh (Photo September 2009)

Uranium is being mined and processed by Uranium Corporation of India Limited (UCIL) for use in the country's nuclear power reactors through four underground mines, an open-cast mine, two processing plants and a by-product recovery plant, all in Purbi Singhbhum district.[205] The district is also famous for Jamshedpur, the first steel city of India, where Tata Steel has its operations.

Mining continues to be the source of many controversies in Jharkhand. Despite the fact that the state is extremely rich in mineral resources, the population, particularly its large ST population, have failed to benefit from this wealth. The district of Paschim Singhbhum is blessed with large reserves of iron ore and manganese. However, this has not led to improved living conditions for the population. Almost half the population is below the poverty line, and the percentage of households with a toilet in the district is a measly 26.6 per cent. Similarly, only 13.9 per cent of children aged between 12 and 35 months are fully immunised in the district, and the literacy rate remains very low, at 46.45 per cent.

Forests in Jharkhand cover around 29 per cent of the state's total geographic area.[206] Much of the state's mineral resources are located under these forests. For the mostly *adivasi*

201. Accessed from indiastat.com, Compiled from the statistics released by: Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 3759, dated on 09.05.2007. and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 994, dated on 20.08.2007 and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2415, dated on 03.12.2007, Selected State-wise Number of Child Mainstreamed under National Child Labour Projects (NCLP) in India, till May 2007.
202. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008, State-wise Number of Out of School Children in India, as on 31 March 2008.
203. Pratham, ASER 2008 survey.
204. NFHS-3, Factsheet Jharkhand, 2005- 06.
205. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09.
206. Government of Jharkhand's website, http://jharkhand.nic.in/about.htm

population who live in these forests and depend upon them for their livelihoods and survival, the state government's rapid drive for industrialisation through mining has meant they have been displaced from their land and forests.[207] Estimates suggest that 55 per cent of the people who have been displaced for coal mining are STs, and just 25 per cent of these have been resettled. A report by PANOS looked at the impact of coal mining on *adivasis* in Hazaribagh district of Jharkhand. Based on oral testimonies from people displaced by coal mining activities, it reveals how damaging the breakage of links between the *adivasi* communities and water, forest and land resources has been. The population depended on these forests for their livelihoods, as well as for many products used in their everyday life.[208]

According to the Census, a population of 317,197 were working in mining and quarrying in the state in 2001.[209] Of these, 2,862 were children aged 14 years and under, and 13,146 were children aged 19 years and under. In 2005, 130,800 people were employed in the formal mining sector in the state, a drop from 149,100 in 2002.[210]

Lack of livelihood opportunities has forced many people to engage in illegal coal mining in the state. A report released by the Mines and Geology department in Jharkhand estimates that 45,000 people in the state are involved in illegal mining, and that this is leading to a loss of over Rs. 1 billion a year for the state and coal mining companies.[211] This form of mining is dangerous and unhealthy for the illegal miners; their life spans are allegedly cut short by 7 years because of this difficult work.[212]

Some of the country's highly industrialised cities such as Jamshedpur, Ranchi, Bokaro and Dhanbad are located in Jharkhand owing to its large mineral resources. The following is a glance of the state's achievements in the industrial sector: Jharkhand is the largest fertilizer manufacturer in India of its time with production at Sindri, has the first iron and steel factory at Jamshedpur, has the largest steel plant in Asia—the Bokaro steel plant, has the biggest explosives factory at Gomia and the first methane gas well in the country. Minerals ranging from (state's rank in the country given in brackets) iron ore (1), coal (3), copper ore (1), mica (1), bauxite (3), manganese, limestone, china clay, fire clay, graphite (8), kyanite (1), chromite (2), asbestos (1), thorium (3), sillimanite, uranium (Jaduguda mines, Narwa Pahar) (1), gold (Rakha mines) (6), silver and several other minerals are found in the state. Large deposits of coal and iron ore support concentration of industry in centres like Jamshedpur, Bokaro and Ranchi.[213]

The Jharia coalfields, in Dhanbad district, are infamous for their coal fires—underground fires that have been raging here for decades. The state company Bharat Cooking Coal Limited (BCCL), a subsidiary of Coal India Limited, estimates that it has a total of 67 fires in its concession.[214] The fires have raged here for nearly 100 years since coal mining first started in the district. This underground inferno is threatening the homes and health of millions in the area. The intense heat coming up from the earth has caused subsidence in homes, and the ground below one village has already collapsed, engulfing houses and killing a whole family. This land now used for coal mining was previously forests and farmlands, and the local population were farmers. Now, they have been forced to become coal miners, with many children as well as adults toiling away in the mines in dangerous conditions. The villages surrounding Jharia have complained of serious health problems, particularly lung diseases and respiratory problems caused by air pollution. Although BCCL provides free healthcare for its employees and their families, the rest of the population is forced to fend for itself, living in increasingly dangerous conditions. BCCL is advising the local population to relocate, but the Rs. 2,000 per household compensation they are offering is not enough for them to find a new home. [215]

Jaduguda, located in Purbi Singhbhum district, is an underground uranium mine, which began operations in 1967. The mine workforce (largely *adivasi* contractors) works 1,600–2,000 ft below the surface without any protective clothing.[216] The ore is brought from the mines to the Jaduguda mill in open trucks. Every day, around 200 trucks, mostly uncovered,

207. Centre for Science and Environment, State of India's Environment: Mining, 2008, pp. 164.
208. PANOS, 'Black Green: The impact of mining on the masses', 2002.
209. Census of India, 2001.
210. Figures accessed on indiastat.com; provided by Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India.
211. Indo Asian News Service, Jharkhand loses over Rs. 1 billion to illegal mining, 18 June 2008.
212. Ibid.
213. http://jharkhandonline.in/profile/economy/
214. Unreported World, India: Children of the Inferno, Series 2009, Episode 7.
215. Ibid.
216. Centre for Science and Environment, State of India's Environment: Mining Rich Lands, Poor People, 2008, pp. 183.

pass through the town loaded with uranium ore.[217] Although the government insists that there is no threat of radiation to the local people or health hazards from the uranium mining, local residents tell a different story. A number of studies have documented high levels of health problems in the local community ranging from miscarriages, to children born with physical and mental deformities. A survey conducted by Indian Doctors for Peace and Development showed a significant increase in congenital deformities among babies of mothers who lived around the uranium mining area.[218]

In the mica mining areas of Giridih and Koderama, an NGO has reported large numbers of children working in the mines. An estimated 18,000 children in these two districts are involved in mica picking most of them coming from STs.[219] The Santhal *adivasis* have occupied the forests for many decades now. However, since mica mining took over the area in 1980, many of the local people have lost their traditional forms of livelihoods and now collect scrap mica to make a living. The majority of the labour force consists of women and children. Accidents are reportedly common, and occupational health diseases, such as asthma and TB, have been observed in both child and adult workers.[220]

It is depends on the availability of coal to load one truck of coal. But on an average we get 10–12 days work in a month. I earn about Rs. 800–1,000 per month but this is not enough to support my family."

Source: Interview carried out in Potanga village, Hazaribagh, September 2009

Jharkhand is a state predominantly having an *adivasi* population living in the midst of the curse of mineral abundance. Central Coalfields Limited (CCL) is a public sector coal mining company in Jharkhand. The case study presented here is about the children living in the coal mining region. It is not only about their life as child labour or as communities who have been displaced from their lands and forest-agriculture based economy into an economy revolving

Boys walk with cycle loads of coal for 3–4 days at a stretch, to sell coal in the big towns Hazaribagh (Photo September 2009)

Hazaribagh district: Key facts	
Total population:	2,277,475 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	937,835 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 57.74 per cent Male 71.81 per cent Female 42.87 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	1.5 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	91.4 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	26,004 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	193 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Hazaribagh: Children of Black Gold

"My name is Helena (name changed) and I am 17 years old. I am from the local village of Potanga. I have been working in the coal dumping site for the last 5–6 years. There is no fixed wage for us.

217. Ibid, pp. 184.
218. Infochange, Moushumi Bashu, Jadugoda: No expansion until promises are met, May 2009.
219. Alternative for India Development Jharkhand, Tribal Children Trapped in Mica Mines, http://www.aidjharkhand.org/giridih.html, uploaded: 22 November 2009.
220. Ibid.

around coal, but to also provide a glimpse into the lives of children, which could be similar to those living in coal mining regions in other parts of the country as well. The case study is drawn from visits to specific mine sites in Hazaribagh which is one of the largest coal mining belts in the country. Mining is often projected as leading to economic growth and progress of the local population. The case study was undertaken to analyse the extent to which these assumptions are accurate from the perspective of the status of children living and working in the coal mining region.

The case study was undertaken in some of the mine sites of CCL in Jarimari region of Badkagaon block, Urimari project area in Hazaribagh district. Field visits include meetings with community leaders, women's groups, mine labour, youth, school teachers, and other community service providers like ANM, *anganwadi* teachers, *sarpanchs*, and also officials from the company, the district authorities, forest, revenue and labour departments in order to understand the impacts *vis-à-vis* children's access to food, safe drinking water, social security, education and health.

History of the Coal Mining Project

CCL is included in the mini-*ratna* group of companies. The coal projects of CCL in Hazaribagh area are divided into south Urimari project and north Urimari project. CCL was re-organised in the year 1986 into two separate companies—Northern Coalfields Limited and Mahanadi Coalfields Limited (MCL). At present CCL has 11 areas, 65 mines, (26 underground and 39 open-cast), seven washeries (four medium coking coal and three non-coking coal), spread over 2,600 sq km of Ranchi, Hazaribagh, Giridih, Bokaro, Chatra and Palamu districts of Jharkhand state, having coal reserves of 33.562 billion tonnes (medium coking coal 14.023 billion tonnes and non-coking coal 19.539 billion tonnes). During 2006-07, CCL produced 41.35 million tonnes, its highest ever production.

The Urimari project of CCL is one of its open-cast mega projects. It was established in 1973 with a maximum productive capacity of 1.3 million tonnes per year. From 1973 onwards it is situated in Jerjera *gram panchayat*, which is the south Urimari project. This project spreads across 14 *adivasi* villages. The major areas under this project are Potanga, Jerjara and Urimari, which account for 60–70 wards as a whole. There are at least 84 revenue villages in the Badkagoan block of Hazaribag district.

The Mining Activities and Its Impact on Children

The local people, the officials of CCL and the local NGO, Swaraj Foundation all agreed that coal mining is expanding and more areas of land are coming under coal extraction. The once rich agricultural belt has today been converted into large coal pits where no other livelihood is possible other than mining. As these are open-cast coal mines, the continuous digging for coal on vast stretches of erstwhile agricultural lands in the thick forests of the Eastern Ghats, is said to have caused serious environmental and health problems for local communities, especially children.

Coal extraction is considered as one of the most polluting mining activities and has serious implications on climate change concerns. Yet India's agenda of coal expansion in the coming decade to meet its energy demands with 70 per cent of this being met from coal-based power, implies that a large population of children, especially *adivasis* and *dalits*, who live in the coal mining region of the central Indian belt, in the south like Tamil Nadu and parts of the northeast like Meghalaya, will suffer from serious long term impacts. Moreover, most of the coal is found in some of the most backward states and regions like Chattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, the santhal region of West Bengal, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh.

Child Labour in the Hazaribagh Coal Mines

Very few employees of the Urimari project are from the local *adivasi* villages. On the other hand, the local people work as casual labour and many of the mine workers are children and youth from the surrounding villages who were displaced from their land. They are involved in loading and unloading the trucks. Each day 70–80 trucks ply on this road making 300–350 trips in total. Each truck requires 15–18 labourers to load the coal where groups of families from the surrounding villages or migrant families work together. It was observed that in almost every group four to five workers were below the age of 18 and the majority were barely 20. Many of these adolescent workers were *adivasi* girls and also young mothers who bring their infants to the mine site. Interviews with the workers revealed that majority of the workers are drop outs from school and rarely does one find a youth who has gone up to the level of class XII.

The 'coal boys' – young boys enrolled in school, but out all the time Hazaribagh (Photo September 2009)

The workers reported that the company provides 10 trucks per day for the local people as a source of livelihood for which they get Rs.1,200–1,300 per truck for loading 12 tonnes of coal. This is shared among all the members of the group. On an average, the workers load 18–20 tonnes per truck and get an additional wage of Rs.100 for every tonne. However, their income is entirely dependent on the availability of coal, which is erratic and hence the workers do not earn any money on some days.

When questioned, the officials of CCL denied the presence of any child labour in their mine sites but commented that as child labour exists all over the country they are not to be blamed.

"There is no child labour in the site and we prohibit that in the mining site. The issue of child labour is not new and not related to mining alone. Mining is not responsible at all for the rising trend of child labour and there is no relationship between mining and the issue of child labour".

–As stated by the General Manager and Superintendent of Planning and Implementation (SOP) of CCL

On further questioning the officials admitted that children accompany their parents to the mine site and they may be involved in assisting the adults in some of the activities due to poverty. However, visits to the mine sites in the area revealed that children were clearly a large section of the mine workers and the officials preferred to turn the other side, almost as a favour to the mine workers' families for allowing the children to work and eke out a living.

Women and children from almost every household collect raw low-grade coal from the surroundings of the mine sites for getting a subsidiary income. They burn the coal at home, which is then purchased by petty traders at their doorstep for paltry amounts of Rs.20–30 per bag. The traders, in turn, sell this to poor domestic consumers and hotels in the town for Rs.100 per bag. Therefore, it was found that women and children are continuously working but earning very low incomes. The constant exposure to the smoke due to burning of coal at home is causing respiratory problems among these women and children.

Displacement and Rehabilitation

In Urimari, 14 villages with 95 per cent *adivasi* population were displaced by CCL and apart from monetary compensation the villagers reported that they did not receive any other benefits from the company. The young girls working in the mine sites complained that although they were opposed to the expansion of the coal mines, their villages are like islands around mine pits and the mining companies are eating into their village lands till they have no choice but to allow land acquisition.

Children play with coal in mining affected community in Urimari Project area, Hazaribagh (Photo September 2009)

There is not even public transport facility provided either by the company or by the government. There is a school that was set up by the company but it is dysfunctional. The only other facility provided is electricity, which is very erratic. Medical facilities are mainly provided to employees of the company and not to the local community or to the contract workers.

Discussions with the village headman of Burkhundwah village are testimony of the manner in which the village leaders are bought over by the company to agree to the mining projects and to ensure that the people do not protest. The village is to be displaced and the village headman has already entered into an agreement with the company for it to be relocated to another place, with little or no consultation with the affected families, or with the women. The village leader was reluctant to express any negative impacts of the coal mining.

Status of *Anganwadi* Centres and Children's Health

As part of our study, we enquired about the status of child protection institutions like *anganwadis* and primary schools. Not all villages are covered by the *anganwadi* centres. In some places we were told that there were only mini-*anganwadis* which is almost equal to not having an *anganwadi*. For example, Burkhundwah village does not have an *anganwadi* but is covered by the *anganwadi* in Potanga village. The *anganwadi* worker stated that she has 125 children in her register although the capacity of the *anganwadi* is only 40 children. Obviously only children from Potanga village access it as infants and little children cannot come to the main centre. Although the record shows only five children as being malnourished, the worker admitted that majority of the children she visits are malnourished. As the *anganwadi* has no infrastructure, the *anganwadi* worker is running it from her house. Only 20–25 children attend the *anganwadi* regularly as most of the children are taken to the mine site by their parents.

The *anganwadi* worker stated that the main health problems of the children were skin diseases, malaria and TB but there is no medical facility, hence a lot of dependence is on local healers whose traditional knowledge is also getting diluted by external influences, and people said they were not totally confident in these healing practices.

The ANM of Jarjara when interviewed shared her health records with the team. She serves a population of 18,350 which has 23 *anganwadis* in all. According to her records, atleast 20 per cent of the reported cases of TB come directly from people working in mining activities and this has impacts on children. Not only adults, children are also very malnourished, with absolute malnutrition cases among children reported by her being 500–700, and among children between the ages of 3 and 6 years, she has reported more than 1,000 cases. There is no PHC in the vicinity and the *anganwadi* worker stated that the ANMs and health personnel do not regularly visit the *anganwadi* to conduct health check-up for the children. The poor conditions of the roads due to mining trucks and lack of public transport to this area serves as an excuse for the health personnel not to visit the villages.

The local communities do not have access to any of the CCL hospitals but have to mainly depend on private practitioners in the town. Due to the difficult geographical terrain and lack of access to transport, very few women are able to go to the PHC for institutional deliveries. The worker also expressed concern over the fact that most of the women are malnourished and the likelihood of complications in deliveries, infant mortality and children being born with low birth weight, complications after delivery and ill-health during the first year of birth are high due to this. Besides, the condition of the roads is so bad with pot-holes made by the constant movement of trucks that it is dangerous for pregnant women to travel by these roads.

In Potanga village, the discussion with the *anganwadi* worker revealed the terrible health condition of the children. Of the 40 children who are enrolled in the centre (which still does not have any infrastructure and activities are conducted under a tree), five are absolutely (grade IV) malnourished, and 15 come under the Grade II and III categories of malnourishment. Of the seven births recorded in the current year, only two have been institutional deliveries.

Displaced women, with children at their side, scavenging for coal, the only source of livelihood today, Hazaribagh (Photo September 2009)

Three to five cases of TB have been identified recently in Burkhundwah village and the people attributed this to the mining activity of CCL. The women in this village complained that alcoholism has become a serious problem after mining started and said that 80 per cent of the income is spent on alcohol by the men. Because of this the women said that they have to work harder to make a living and therefore, are unable to find the time and stamina to take care of their children. They also stated that because the men do not share their majority earnings at home, they are unable to cope with the rise in prices of food commodities and are not able to maintain even a basic diet for their children.

The CCL officials denied that there are any cases of TB or silicosis among mine workers, whether permanent or casual, and said that the company was taking precautions to prevent these diseases. They attributed the health problems to consumption of alcohol by the workers.

Water: A Looming Crisis for Women and Children

One major problem discussed by the women was the depletion of groundwater and the lack of access to water for drinking and domestic purposes. Their local streams are highly contaminated and they complained that they cannot use this water for drinking, for bathing or even for use by animals. Hence, they have to walk long distances to fetch water unlike in earlier times. The study team found that in some of the relocated villages, the drinking water supply is totally dependent on the company. The water trucks usually come at midnight and women were found walking to the collection point at 12 a.m in the night and waiting for hours before the truck arrived. This supply is also erratic and sometimes the women have to walk back with empty cans when the truck does not turn up. Hence, women are working 24/7 whether directly in the mining activities or overburdened with domestic chores created due to mining.

In Potanga village where CCL works in Piparwar, between Tanwah and Chatra areas, the young girls have to walk for 1.5–2 km in the middle of the night for collecting drinking water and here again it is the same story. Only limited and erratic water is supplied to the people and as this is the only source, the rest of the water bodies being too contaminated for usage, the people have to fight amongst themselves. The *panchayat* leaders do not respond to the appeals of the women about the water problems as they are accomplices to the company agents.

The water shortage as well as the contamination has been creating an unhygienic atmosphere for the children. They cannot afford to bathe regularly nor can they wear washed clothes. Because of this, children in this area were found to have skin diseases and diarrhoea. One of the reasons for malnourishment could also be due to the worms in the stomach as a result of poor sanitation among the children.

No *anganwadi* for this child– the mine site is his playground
(Photo September 2009)

The dust from the coal mines was found to cover the entire area including the houses, the people, the water bodies, and the food and water consumed. Probably, it is because of this that the women complained that children suffered from cough, cold and fevers regularly and respiratory illnesses appear to be high among the minors while incidence of TB is high among adults.

Education

A visit to the primary school in Bhurkhundwah village revealed that there is only one para-teacher who works regularly and the regular teachers are either not posted here or are allotted other non-teaching work by the government like taking care of mid-day meals, undertaking voters' surveys, and other government duties and hence, are rarely found doing their job. The total strength of the school, which has classes I to V, as per the school record, is 130 children, but the teacher admitted that not more than 30 or 40 students attend regularly. As the para-teacher is the only teaching staff available and there is barely any infrastructure to have separate classrooms, the children of all the classes are made to sit together and taught simultaneously. This is a reason for lack of interest among students to come to school especially as the poverty at home demands their presence in the mine-sites. Hence drop-out rate from school is high.

The team managed to find the school headmaster in the main town of Jarjara, and discussed with him the status of education among the children. He was of the opinion that because of the mid-day meal, the teachers' attention was diverted to non-teaching activities and therefore, this was the main reason for the drop-out rate. Although he was initially reluctant to show the school registers and denied any drop-out rate or poor attendance for fear of being held responsible, he later admitted that the mining activities have a serious affect on the children's education as mining has created landlessness and poverty and hence more children are having to work in the mine sites as casual labour.

The Jarjara High School serves the children of three villages—Urmari, Potanga and Jarjara—covering an area of 50–60 wards within a radius of 15–20 km. The total strength of the school, as per the register is 345 from classes I to X, although the DISE reports show only 306 enrolled. The headmaster expressed that due to lack of adequate teachers and distraction

due to multiple government duties, the government school is unable to provide quality education.

He noted that the mining company gives grants to the private schools in order to build their public image but they do not give the government schools such grants. He further stated that the drop-out rate is very high from class VIII, as, young boys and girls are engaged in coal loading and transportation work in order to support their families. However, the headmaster shared that technically they do not consider that there is any drop-out as the students attend school a few days in a week and work in the mines on the other days. Many of them sit for the exams at the end of the year in order to ensure that their names are not cancelled from the registers. Nevertheless, very few manage to pass the exams due to poor quality time given to studies.

There is not a single NCLP school in the area although there are many child labourers. This is probably because there is no official acknowledgement of child labour in the area.

In Potanga village the women complained that children, especially teenagers, do not go to school regularly, and instead, are influenced by anti-social elements of the mining communities. The mothers complained that they are addicted to drugs, tobacco, alcohol, waste their money in gambling, video games and mobile phones, instead of giving their earnings at home for household needs. Therefore, women have to work harder and depend on the uncertain wages from the mines. The headmaster of the high school in Potanga village also complained that the mining activities are not good for children and the quick money they earn from mining, gives them the freedom to be deviant and not attend school. Table 2.13 gives the enrolment data for Badkagaon block.

Conclusions

By year 2025 it is estimated that another million people will be displaced by proposed coal mine expansion, according to a study conducted by Central Mine Planning and Design Institute (CPMDI). The large-scale displacement of people will be caused by land requirement for coal mining which will reach 2,925 sq km in 2025 from the current 1,470 sq km, as stated by B. Dayal, General Manager, CMPDI. The study conducted by us only touched the tip of the iceberg in a few villages in Urimari project, but even this glimpse revealed the harsh realities of the lives of children living in the coal belt. Here again, the mining activities are under the public sector company which has also won a mini-*ratna*. Yet little regard has been paid to the quality of life of the children and to their development needs.

While the state services of *anganwadis*, primary schools and health centres fail to meet the needs of the children, mining has aggravated the situation of children by creating ill-health, malnutrition, displacement, poverty and child labour. Every mining area in every state visited provided the harsh ground realities—India is reeling under child malnourishment in every mine site visited. Lack of food security is a major concern in these regions as mine labour is erratic, sometimes with high wages and sometimes none at all, but most of all, the working life of a mine worker is short-lived with their remaining life being spent in suffering from various occupational illnesses.

Especially in regions like Jharkhand where *adivasi* communities led subsistence economies traditionally, with a fair amount of food security thanks to the wide variety of crops and forest produce that was at their disposal, the shift to a mining economy seems to have benefited only GDP figures

Table 2.13: Village-wise data for Badkagaon block, Hazaribagh

Block	Village	Total enrolment	SC	ST	OBC	Others
Badkagoan	Bhurkhundwah	Data not available	--	--	--	--
	Jarjara	306	7	270	29	46
	Potanga	362	35	302	25	0
	Badhkagaon	3,936	618	169	3,043	848

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim

Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

Source: DISE report card, September 2008

but not the actual economic lives of the *adivasis* and their children. Unless the Ministry of Mines imposes a strict clean-up by its public sector companies in the existing mines, with clean-up starting from responsibility to the basic needs of the children, mining can never translate into any real socially sustainable development framework.

It is common knowledge that mining is not sustainable for the communities or the environment, but when the state policies are geared towards exploiting these resources for meeting the nation's energy requirements, the least that the state is duty-bound to take care of, is to reduce the negative impacts and destruction of the lives of the people living here. Children should be the first priority for this instead of disputing their suffering. Here again, the state has to demonstrate its respect for the laws of the Constitution laid down for the protection of the Scheduled Areas, whether it is the Fifth Schedule laws, the 73 Amendment/*Panchayat Raj* (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act, the United Nations Declarations on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples or the Environment Protection Act of 1986. All these Acts and agreements are universally being violated by the state. Every mining project in our *adivasi* areas is an example of this violation.

(***Acknowledgements:*** This case study was done in partnership with Swaraj Foundation, Hazaribagh which is working for the rights of *adivasis* and displaced communities in this region. We acknowledge the assistance of Mr. Arun Anand and his staff in coordinating the field visits for the data collection and field interviews.)

Uranium Corporation of India Limited: Wasting Away Tribal Lands

by Moushumi Basu, Special to CorpWatch

"I have had three miscarriages and lost five children within a week of their births," says Hira Hansda, a miner's wife. "Even after 20 years of marriage we have no children today." Now in her late forties, she sits outside her mud hut in Jadugoda Township, site of one of the oldest uranium mines in India.

The Uranium Corporation of India Limited (UCIL) operates that mine, part of a cluster of four underground and one open cast mines and two processing plants, in East Singbhum district in the Eastern Indian state of Jharkhand. The deepest plunges almost one kilometer into the earth.

Radiation and health experts across the world charge that toxic materials and radioactivity released by the mining and processing operations are causing widespread infertility, birth defects and cancers. A 2008 health survey by the Indian chapter of International Physicians for Prevention of Nuclear War (IPPNW), found that "primary sterility was found to be more common in the people residing near uranium mining operations area."

Jadugoda residents Kaderam Tudu and his wife, Munia, considered themselves fortunate when their infant was born alive, until, "I found that my baby son did not have his right ear and instead in its place was a blob of flesh," says Tudu, a day worker in his late thirties. Their son, Shyam Tudu, now eight, has a severe hearing impairment.

Even children who appear healthy are impacted. "The youths from our villages have become victims of social ostracism," says Parvati Manjhi, and cannot find spouses. "And a number of our girls have been abandoned by their husbands, when they failed to give birth," Now middle-aged, Parvati and her husband, Dhuwa Manjhi, who used to work for UCIL, are childless.

http://www.global-sisterhood-network.org/content/view/2360/59/

Child labour used in cosmetics industry

The Sunday Times, July 19, 2009

Nicci Smith

Deep in the jungle of Jharkhand state in eastern India, at the end of a rutted track passable only by motorbike, a six-year-old girl named Sonia sat in the scorching midday sun, sifting jagged stones in an open-cast mine in the hope of earning enough money for a meal.

Sonia was halfway through her working day and she was already exhausted and dishevelled. Her hair was matted and her pretty flower-patterned dress spoilt by dust.

She barely had enough energy to glance at her eight-year-old cousin Guri, toiling intently beside her as they searched the stones for pieces of mica, a shiny material whose many uses include putting the sparkle into make-up.

If the girls spotted enough mica, they might earn 63p each for a 12-hour day. If they found none, they would probably go hungry.

http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/world/us_and_americas/article6719151.ece?token=null&offset=0&page=1

Tribals make poor progress, stay at bottom of heap

New Delhi, January 16, 2010 : The first ever UN State of the World's Indigenous Peoples Report (2010) finds that indigenous people across the world suffer disproportionately high levels of poverty, illiteracy, poor health and human rights abuse. The poverty levels of India's tribals have remained persistent over time and are lower than those of Scheduled Castes, on a par with those of sub-Saharan countries, says the report" "Indigenous children face obstacles in their access to education and the teaching in schools is often irrelevant to their culture, while traditional knowledge is not respected by educators. Large dams and other big infrastructure projects have displaced indigenous peoples across the world without adequate compensation, the report notes, citing the example of the displacement of tribals in Manipur by the building of hydroelectric dams and of Santhal *adivasis* in Jharkhand by mining companies.

http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/india/Tribals-make-poor-progress-stay-at-bottom-of-heap/articleshow/5450938.cms

Orissa

State Overview

Orissa has a population of 36,706,920[221] and the state's total GDP was Rs. 1,033 billion in 2007-08. In terms of the number of people living in poverty, it is the poorest state in India. Currently, almost half or 46.4 per cent of its population are classed as living below the poverty line.[222] With 85 per cent of the population inhabiting rural areas, the vast majority of the people living in poverty, 15 million, can be found in the rural parts of the state. Orissa has not been a focus of investment by the central government, causing its infrastructure and development indicators to lag behind the rest of the country. In rural areas, less than 35 per cent of the population has access to safe drinking water.

Forest and agricultural land threatened by mining in Kasipur (Photo October 2009)

With its abundant natural resources and a large coastline, the state has recently started to attract vast amounts of private investment, particularly in steel mills, power plants and alumina refineries. The state contains a fifth of India's coal, a quarter of its iron ore, a third of its bauxite reserves and most of its chromite.[223] The central government has agreed to accord SEZ status to eight sites in Orissa. However, these plans are facing strong resistance from the local population, who mainly depend on agriculture for their livelihood and who are experiencing widespread displacement. Agriculture continues to constitute the major contribution to the state's economy and forms the chief occupation in Orissa, with around 76 per cent of the total working population engaged in agriculture.

Orissa is one of the largest producers of rice in India, growing almost 10 per cent of the total rice produced. The state also produces pulses, coconuts, sugarcane, tea, rubber, cotton, potatoes and numerous other crops. Orissa has fertile soils, but shortage of water in many areas. Lack of irrigation facilities in drought prone areas currently creates a serious obstacle for many people working in agriculture. There is a serious disparity between the investment in agriculture and the investment in industry in the state as priority is being given to the development of industries. Large-scale displacement of rural and *adivasi* populations in the state is having a serious impact on agriculture and livelihoods, pushing the already struggling population further into poverty. Orissa has one of the largest concentrations of STs in the country. Over one-fifth of the population or 22.13 per cent are STs and 16.53 per cent are SCs. This is substantially higher than the Indian average—only 8.2 per cent of the total population of India constitute STs. There are 62 different *adivasi* groups living in Orissa and some are exclusive to the state. The vast majority of them live in forest areas and are engaged in subsistence

221. Census of India, 2001.

222. Planning Commission, Government of India, Number and Percentage of Population Below Poverty Line By States, 2004-05.

223. Industrial Growth and Status of Orissa, http://www.amazingorissa.com/INDUSTRIES.HTML, uploaded: 5 September 2009.

farming and forestry. It is the *adivasi* population which is bearing the brunt of the drive for industrial development, particularly mining. With the erosion of customary rights and access to forest resources, their food security has been adversely affected. This is leading to increased migration, loss of traditional occupations and dismantling of social institutions and culture.[224]

Displacement figures from various sources give an idea of the extent of the problem. Moreover different sources give different figures. Up to the year 2000 the total number of displaced families is given as 133,500.[225] More recent figures give the total number of affected villages as 2,170 from several displacement projects including mining.[226] Another source quotes those affected by development projects in the state in the last decade to be 2 million of which half a million were physically displaced. Statistical figures indicate that dams/irrigation projects have contributed to 70 per cent of displacement, industrial projects 12 per cent, mining 3.37 per cent, and wildlife sanctuaries, thermal and urban development projects the remaining. On the whole over 1.4 million people, mainly *adivasis*, have been displaced by developmental projects in Orissa alone.[227]

Orissa has a HDI ranking of 0.579, which is lower than the national average.[228] Within Orissa, there are wide variations amongst districts in terms of human development indicators. The districts with the lowest HDI rankings are located in the south and southwest part of the state, where there are the highest concentrations of *adivasis*. The incidence of poverty among the SC and ST populations in these parts of the state is extremely high. The literacy status amongst the SC and ST population is also very worrying. While 63.09 per cent of the overall population in the state is literate, only 40.33 per cent of SC women are literate, and only 23.37 per cent of ST women are literate (the average for STs is 37.37 per cent).[229] This in itself speaks volumes in terms of access to education and opportunities to participate in the state's newfound industrial 'success'.

The situation in terms of health is also a major concern in the state. Although life expectancy in the state is close to the national average (58.9 years), there are wide rural and urban disparities, with the rural life expectancy being 58.3 years, compared to 66 years in the urban areas. It is estimated that nearly half or 48 per cent of women in Orissa suffer from nutritional deficiency. The numbers are much higher in terms of illiterate women (54.6 per cent) and ST women (55.5 per cent).[230] Malaria is a serious problem in Orissa, with the state contributing to 23 per cent of malaria cases and 50 per cent of malarial deaths in the country.[231] The illness is particularly endemic amongst the ST population in districts such as Koraput located in the south of the state.

Malnourished mother with malnourished child-mining affected in Damanjodi (Photo January 2010)

Status of Children

The number of children in Orissa (age group 0–14 years) in 2001 was 12,207,872 and 19 years and under was 15,739,256, meaning that children comprise around 40 per cent of the state's total population.[232] Around 86 per cent of these children live in rural areas. The official number of out-of-school children

224. Government of Orissa, Human Development Report, 2004.
225. An overview of development projects, displacement and rehabilitation in Orissa. Presentation made by Prof. A.B. Ota, Director Tribal Research Institute, 17 July 2009. URL: http://www.teamorissa.org/Convention_%20Presentations_%20Sessionwise/Session-5/Session5-2%20development%20Project%20SWOSTI%20PLAZA.Ota.pdf
226. http://chittabehera.com/Rehabilitation/Orissa%20Displaced%20Study/Orissa%20Mining%20Ch-3.pdf
227. http://joharadivasi.org/industrialization-and-development-discontentment-among-tribals-in-orissa-dr-rajat-kumar-kujur/
228. Ibid.
229. Census of India, 2001.
230. Government of Orissa, Human Development Report, 2004.
231. Dr. N. R. Ray, Major Health Problems of Orissa, 24 March 2009, http://www.articlesbase.com/diseases-and-conditions-articles/major-health-problems-of-orissa-831947.html, uploaded: 5 September 2009.
232. Census of India, 2001.

aged between 6 and 14 years in the state was 350,703 (class I–V) in 2007.[233] According to Pratham's ASER 2008 survey, 7.2 per cent of children aged between 6 and 14 years are out of school in Orissa.[234] Although there has been improvements in terms of enrolments in the state, the number of drop outs in Orissa is still very high, indicating that there are serious problems in terms of the efficiency of the education system. The rate of drop-out is 34.7 per cent at the primary level and 59 per cent at the upper primary level.[235] This rate of drop-out is higher amongst girls, SCs and STs.

Lack of access to schooling is still a significant problem in the *adivasi* areas—the majority of habitations without a school are those with a predominantly ST population.[236] Table 2.14 provides information on ST literacy, drop-out and out-of-school numbers for districts in Orissa that were a part of the study sites.

Table 2.14: ST children drop-out in Keonjhor, Sundergarh and Rayagada districts

District	Population in millions	Area sq km	Population and literacy rate			Drop-out rate				Out-of-school children between 6-14 years		
			% of ST population	% of literacy (all)	% of literacy ST	Total drop-out in primary	% of ST drop-out in primary	Total drop-out in upper primary	% of ST drop-out in upper primary	Total children out-of-school	% of ST out-of-school	No of out-of-school children
Keonjhor	15.16	8303	44.50	59.24	40.30	16.76	27.95	20.21	31.31	13.51	13.75	19,645
Sundergarh	18.29	9712	53.40	64.86	52.75	18.95	28.58	23.22	31.29	7.10	7.59	13,293
Rayagada	8.32	7073	52.82	36.15	20.23	5.96	15.01	18.60	36.29	23.76	27.26	22,771
State total	366.91	155707	22.13	63.08	37.37	10.53	22.88	18.05	32.44	8.67	12.93	
Out-of-school children Koraput district-25,540												

Source: "Multilingual education and other initiatives in Orissa" presented by Sri NB Dhal, IAS, State Project Director And Dr M.K. Mishra, State Coordinator SC/ST and Minority Education, Orissa Primary Education Programme Authority, Bhubaneswar

According to the Census, there are 377,594 child labourers in the state (14 years and under).[237] Official statistics show that in 1999, there were 23,761 children employed in hazardous occupations in the state, revealing that 21.4 per cent of all children in hazardous occupations in India can be found in Orissa.[238] This is likely to be much lower than the actual figure particularly as the list of hazardous occupations has been expanded significantly since 1999. The NCLP is currently operating in 18 out of Orissa's 30 districts. In 2006-07, 1,781 children were rehabilitated through the scheme and up to May 2007, a total of 72,653 children had been rescued from work and enrolled in the NCLP schools.[239]

The state continues to face many challenges in terms of child health. According to the most recent NFHS-3, published in 2007, 44 per cent of children under 3 years are underweight in Orissa.[240] The extent of anaemia among children aged 6–35 months is also very high and around 72.3 per cent of children were found to have some degree of anaemia. The IMR and under five mortality rate are also significantly higher than the national average—respectively 64.7 (per 1,000 births) and 90.6, as compared to 57 and 74.3.[241] These figures are attributed to several factors, including the poor professional

233. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 576, dated 21.10.2008.
234. Pratham ASER 2008 survey
235. Government of Orissa, Human Development Report, 2004.
236. Ibid.
237. Census of India, 2001.
238. Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2691, dated 9.8.2000.
239. Data accessed on indiastat.com; Compiled from the statistics released by: Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 3759, 09.05.2007, Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 994, 20.08.2007 and Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2415, 03.12.2007.
240. NFHS-3, 2007.
241. Ibid

attendance at birth, the high percentage of low birth rate babies and the lack of professional post-natal care in the state. For deaths of children under five years of age, diarrhoea accounts for 28 per cent, which can be linked to lack of access to safe drinking water, adequate nutrition and essential life-saving medicines, such as oral rehydration salts.[242] Again, the infant and child mortality rates are found to be higher amongst the *adivasis*. Immunisation coverage is also poorest in the case of the *adivasis* as compared to the total population.

The ICDS, the only national scheme to address the health and nutrition needs of children under 6 years, has made significant progress in Orissa. The NFHS-3 found that Orissa was one of only three states where more than 50 per cent of children aged 0–71 months had received any service in the previous year from an *anganwadi* centre.[243] Orissa also has the highest percentage (43 per cent) of children receiving health check-ups from an *anganwadi* centre. However, serious challenges remain for the state. There have been several shortcomings with the scheme in Orissa, including an irregular food supply in a number of areas. In 2007, it was revealed that although Orissa has the second highest (after Madhya Pradesh) number of women and children benefitting from the scheme, spending per beneficiary per day is lowest in Orissa, at only Rs. 0.59.[244]

A number of factors have led to Orissa becoming vulnerable to trafficking problems. High levels of poverty, frequent natural disasters, chronic food insecurity and a large marginalised population have created the conditions which place people at risk of various forms of exploitation, such as trafficking. SCs, STs, landless labourers, women and children face particular risks in these situations.[245] The National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) data proves inadequate at analysing the trafficking situation in India, as most cases go unregistered and unreported. In 2007, there were only 41 cases registered under human trafficking in the state.[246] However, NGOs working in Orissa have reported a significant child trafficking problem in the state.[247] At least 26 out of the 30 districts are considered to be affected by trafficking. It is also often difficult to differentiate between trafficking and wilful migration, as there are a considerable number of children migrating, with or without their families, in search of work.[248] Girls are taken from Orissa to other states, such as Uttar Pradesh, Haryana and Punjab, for coerced marriages. Women and girls are also trafficked for domestic work and other forms of labour, as well as prostitution.[249]

Early marriage continues to be a problem in the state. In Orissa, almost 30 per cent of girls get married before 18 years of age and there is a high degree of inter-state variation. In the backward districts, such as Koraput, Kalahandi and Balangir, more than 50 per cent of girls are married before the age of 18.[250] However, in the coastal districts, such as Puri and Jajpur, less than 15 per cent of girls are married before the age of 18.

Iron ore being loaded in Joda-Barbil area, Keonjhar (Photo July 2009)

Mining in Orissa

Orissa is very rich in minerals, and is currently the leading producer of chromite, graphite, bauxite, manganese ore, iron ore, sillimanite, quartzite, pyroxite and dolomite in India.

In terms of value, Orissa's mineral production is the second highest in the country, accounting for 12 per cent of the country's production. In 2007-08, Orissa's mineral production was valued at Rs. 129.87 billion, a huge increase of 29 per

242. Government of Orissa, Human Development Report, 2004.
243. NFHS-3, 2007.
244. Seventh Report of the Commissioners of the Supreme Court, November 2007.
245. Shakti Vahini, UNDP TAHA project, Trafficking and HIV Orissa, 2005.
246. NCRB, Crimes in India, Chapter 6, 2007.
247. Save the Children India, Child Trafficking, http://www.savethechildren.in/india/key_sectors/child_trafficking.html, uploaded: 7 September 2009.
248. Shakti Vahini, UNDP TAHA project, Trafficking and HIV Orissa, 2005.
249. Ibid.
250. Government of Orissa, Human Development Report, 2004.

cent from the previous year.[251] The most important minerals in the state are coal, bauxite, chromite, iron ore, manganese ore, limestone and dolomite. Together they constitute 99.2 per cent of the state's total mineral production.

In 2007-08, there were 227 reporting mines in the state. The total mine lease area covers 721,323 ha of land. This includes over 16,795 ha of forestland which has been officially diverted for mining.[252]

NALCO conveyor belt (Photo by Samata)

The major source of bauxite in Orissa is found in Koraput district, which produces 98.82 per cent of the state's total bauxite production. The remaining 1.18 per cent of bauxite is found in Sundergarh district.[253] Fifty per cent of the state's *adivasis* lives in these two districts. Damanjodi is a small town in Koraput district. The vast majority of the population of Damanjodi are employees of the National Aluminium Company (NALCO), a public sector enterprise of the Government of India, which is the world's seventh largest producer of aluminium. NALCO operates Asia's largest aluminium complex, which comprises bauxite mines, alumina refining operations, smelting plants and power generation. The NALCO mines have bauxite reserves expected to last for 120 years. Despite this, Koraput is still classified as a 'backward district' by the government and 83.8 per cent of the population here live below the poverty line.[254]

With the inception of the New Economic Policy, the Government of Orissa has begun inviting both national and multinational companies to extract mineral resources in the state. The number of companies who have signed Memorandum of Understandings to set up steel plants in the state has increased to 50, including the South Korean multinational Pohan Iron and Steel Company (POSCO), which has agreed to construct a Rs. 580 billion steel plant near Paradip port. This will be the largest FDI in India's history.[255] However, the local population in these areas, who are mostly SCs and STs, are resisting these projects, fearing displacement and a loss of livelihoods.[256] Orissa is an example of how every possible corporate crime and human rights violation happen when mining is involved and how a state's doom is led by the havoc created by such large-scale mining.

The region of Lanjigarh, in Kalahandi district, has come under severe pressure from mining development in recent years and is now the site of one of India's most high profile mining struggles. In 2003, an agreement was signed between the Government of Orissa and the British Vedanta Group to establish a bauxite mine and alumina refinery in the Niyamgiri hills. However, the project has come under intense scrutiny and opposition from local communities, NGOs and environmental activists. Lanjigarh is the home of the Dongria Kondh tribe, with a population of 7,752. The community is objecting to the refinery project, which will displace them from their indigenous habitat and destroy their traditional forms of livelihood.

That the government has entertained mining in Lanjigarh even while the existing *adivasi* struggles in neighbouring Kasipur of Koraput districts where the Utkal Alumina International Limited (UAIL) project has been facing fierce opposition on similar grounds and was also witness to police firing and death of *adivasis* speaks of the brutal disregard to people's voices of dissent.

Displacement for mining activities is a major problem in Orissa. There are no up-to-date figures to reveal the number of people who have been displaced in the state for mining. However, between 1951 and 1995, around 100,000 people

251. Ministry of Mines, Annual Report 2008-09.

252. Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 234, dated 20.10.2008, Selected State-wise Forest Land Diverted for Mining by Ministry of Environment and Forests in India (25.10.1980 to 30.09.2008).

253. Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Orissa, Orissa Review, November 2007.

254. Census of India 2001

255. Domain-b.com, Orissa steel project back on track, says POSCO, 27 August 2009, http://www.domain-b.com/companies/companies_p/posco/20090827_steel_project.html, uploaded: 10 September 2009.

256. Prajna Paramita Mishra, Second Colonialisation: Mining Induced Displacement in Orissa, Research Scholar, CESS, Hyderabad.

were displaced for mining projects in Orissa, 40 per cent of whom received no form of rehabilitation.[257] More recent displacement figures from different sources give an idea of the extent of displacement from mining. Up to the year 2000 the total number of displaced families as a result of mining is estimated at 15,000 or 11 per cent of total population displaced.[258] Another source quotes those affected by development projects in the state in the last decade to be 2 million of which half a million were physically displaced. Of this 3.37 per cent were as a result of mining.[259]

Nearly half the state's area is under the Fifth Schedule of the Indian Constitution. Despite this, around 1,019 sq km of land has already been leased out for mining, most of which is in Scheduled Areas.[260] In July 2003, a state committee headed by the Chief Minister of Orissa concluded that the Samatha Judgment, delivered to protect the rights of *adivasis* to their lands in all the Fifth Schedule areas across the country, is applicable only to Andhra Pradesh and does not apply to Orissa.

The draft Orissa Resettlement and Rehabilitation Plan 2006 proposes to make displaced people stakeholders in the industry that displaces them. Although the compensation has increased from Rs. 37,000 per acre to Rs. 150,000 per acre, it does not provide them with an alternative employment guarantee.[261] It also states that it will provide employment, self-employment training and provision of homestead land only to displaced families. However, the draft does not make any mention of those families who are landless. Large sections of the population, do not own land, but instead make their living by working on other people's land.

Some of the *adivasis* have now moved into mining work in order to secure a living through wage labour. They have been forced into this work due to the decrease in available land. Women are particularly affected by these changes. *Adivasi* women are usually the primary actors in agriculture, responsible for collecting forest produce and for livestock management. However, once displaced, they can no longer continue their traditional activities. Studies in Orissa have shown that the number of unwed mothers has increased in recent years, as have cases of trafficking, HIV/AIDS and domestic violence.[262]

According to the Census 2001, there were 149,318 people working in mining and quarrying in Orissa in 2001. Of these, 2,257 were children 14 years and under, and 11,203 were children 19 years and under.[263] However, the actual number of child labourers working in mining and quarrying in the state is likely to be much higher than this.

Koraput district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,180,637 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	423,358 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 35.72 per cent Male 47.20 per cent Female 24.26 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	17 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	43.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	24,010 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	540 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

257. Fernandes, W. and Mohd, A., Development induced Displacement in Orissa 1951 to 1995. A Database on its extent and Nature, 1997.
258. An overview of development projects, displacement and rehabilitation in Orissa. Presentation made by Prof. A.B. Ota, Director Tribal Research Institute, 17 July 2009. URL: http://www.teamorissa.org/Convention_%20Presentations_%20Sessionwise/Session-5/Session5-2%20development%20Project%20SWOSTI%20PLAZA.Ota.pdf
259. http://joharadivasi.org/industrialization-and-development-discontentment-among-tribals-in-orissa-dr-rajat-kumar-kujur/
260. Kumar K., Dispossessed and displaced: A brief paper on tribal issues in Orissa, Discussion Paper, Vasundhara, Orissa, 2004.
261. Prajna Paramita Mishra, Second Colonialisation: Mining Induced Displacement in Orissa, Research Scholar, CESS, Hyderabad.
262. Ibid.
263. Census of India, 2001

Rayagada district: Key facts	
Total population:	831,109 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	303,760 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 36.15 per cent Male 48.18 per cent Female 24.56 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	17.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	51.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour:	16,982 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	565 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Keonjhar district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,561,990 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	548,357 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 59.24 per cent Male 71.99 per cent Female 46.22 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	7.7 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	68.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour:	12,741 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	455 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Sundergarh district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,830,673 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	699,304 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	65 per cent Male 75.34 per cent Female 53.88 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	4.8 (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	no data available (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5 – 14 years):	9,407 (Census 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	372 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Background to the Research

As Orissa is one of the most intensively mined states in India, we chose multiple sites in Orissa for our research in order to understand the impacts of mining on children. This is also a state that has seriously impacted the lives of *adivasi* communities who have been displaced multiple times for mining and related industries and now once again face the threat of displacement from new projects. We covered some of the earliest projects like NALCO (bauxite mining) where

the impacts are visibly evident with respect to the displaced communities, to juxtapose this against the proposed mining areas like Kasipur (UAIL project) which is very close to NALCO and has the same socio-economic background. These case studies bring out issues related to displacement, rehabilitation and the constitutional rights of *adivasi* children when faced with a complete reversal of their resource base and indigenous cultures.

The peaceful *adivasi* belt of Keonjhar, which was once the pride of Orissa tourism, has now gained notoriety as the hotbed of crime, corruption, violence and smuggling after large corporations and contractors started plundering the areas like Joda and Barbil for minerals. We studied the impacts that this transition has had on the children living in this region, which can be compared to the situation of mining in Bellary, Karnataka.

Sundergarh in western Orissa is also an *adivasi* area where mining of dolomite and limestone has been happening since pre-independence and impacts are again clearly measurable, especially with a large number of adolescent girls working in the mines for ridiculously low wages.

The status of mining in Orissa alone and the impacts on people, particularly children, can be taken as an indicator for the status of mining-affected communities in the rest of the country. Orissa is also one of the poorest states in India with low human development indices especially in the regions where mining has been taking place. If mining, as projected, is a vehicle of economic development, what we saw in Orissa is far from reflected in the lives of people living and working in the mines. The general development pattern in the state and the case studies here speak for themselves.

Impacts of Displacement on Children in Damanjodi by the National Aluminium Company Limited's Bauxite Mining Project

Rajesh (name changed) is 15 years old and comes from the village of Janiguda. He works in a roadside restaurant at Dumuriput of Damanjodi. His family lost all their land for the NALCO project and converted his father, who did not get a job in the company, into an alcoholic. Having spent all the compensation money on liquor, the father has left the family on the streets. Rajesh dropped out of school and had to come to Damanjodi town in search of work to support his family. He earns around Rs.1,200 per month while working in the hotel and sends home around Rs.1,000 every month. He says,"Work in the hotel is difficult and there is no time for rest except after 12 in the night every day".

Source: Interview carried out in Dumuriput, Damanjodi, February 2010.

Koraput is one of the poorest districts in Orissa and is a Scheduled Area having 50 per cent ST (585,830 out of 1,180,637) and 13 per cent SC (153,932 out of 1,180,637) population. Undivided Koraput was a vast region of thick deciduous forests and fertile agricultural lands with traditional food crops and shifting cultivation practised by the *adivasis*. The *adivasis* cultivated two crops a year on rain-fed irrigation with the fundamental objective of subsistence and food security. Forestry and collection of forest produce to sell in the local markets was the other main source of livelihood. After independence, Koraput and its neighbouring districts bear testimony to several development projects and industrialisation that led to land alienation, forced migration and serious impacts on the natural resources and livelihoods of the local people, particularly the *adivasis*. Hydro projects like Upper Indravati, Balimela, Kolab, Jolaput reservoirs drove out thousands of families from their villages and homes, not once but multiple times. Setting up of the HAL factory, NALCO and other ancillary industries further reduced the local population to landlessness and poverty.

The bauxite mining project and its township completely changed the socio-economic fabric of the *adivasis*. The meetings with village leaders, Project Affected Person (PAP) unions and group discussions with women in the displacement (DP) camps and affected villages reflect the deplorable status of the local people and the condition of the children whose families were directly or indirectly affected, behind the apparent urbanisation witnessed around Damanjodi town. Our effort here was to understand the impacts that mining has had on the lives of children whose families were displaced by NALCO and those living in this mining region and how it has affected their health, literacy, education, social protection, economic security and legal rights.

Prior to mining, the region had vast natural resources on which the *adivasis* depended for their survival. Development intervention from the government whether for education, medical support or economic upliftment, was negligible and the *adivasis* barely received any benefits. Mining was declared as the need of the hour for the nation as well as for the local population and it was meant to bring economic prosperity for both and therefore, the NALCO bauxite project was

opened up in Damanjodi, Orissa. This case study looks at the ground realities in the context of children in the region, which may differ from the popular understanding of mining and development.

Overview of National Aluminium Company Limited

NALCO, one of the first public sector mining companies in India, was established in the year 1981 with the purpose of extracting bauxite ore from the vast reserves in the Panchpatmali hills of Koraput district and processing it into alumina. The total deposit of ore being extracted by NALCO is 112.8 million tonnes and the refinery complex in Damanjodi, which is 11 km away from the mine site, has an installed capacity of 8 lakh million tonnes of alumina annually. The total land area occupied by the company is 10,058.76 acres, of which 427.3 acres is for mining, 2638.96 acres is for the township and 6,992.5 acres is for the plant area. Out of the total land 2,805.49 acres is government land and 2,834.56 ha, which is around 41.36 per cent of the total land area, belongs to local farmers.[264] NALCO has a captive power plant with a capacity of 55.5 mw as against its actual need of 32 mw.

Displacement and Compensation/ Rehabilitation

From the primary data collected through interviews with PAPs, it was gathered that 26 villages of Koraput, Potangi, Semiliguda and Laxmipur blocks were directly and indirectly affected with 597 families directly displaced, both in terms of land and housing. This action research was conducted in the villages of Amalabadi, Champapadar, Damanjodi, Goudaguda, Janiguda, Marichimala and Putsil, which are apparently some of the most affected by the project. Out of the total project affected population, 254 households or families are from the *adivasi* communities, 56 families are from *dalit* communities and the rest of the families are OBCs like the *Malis* and *Sundis*. According to the statements made by displaced people the recent update of displaced families for NALCO, is 631 families.

As per the initial resettlement made by NALCO, 597 families were taken as displaced families. Out of these, 441 were rehabilitated in Amalabadi DP camp, which was meant to provide resettlement for 13 villages affected by the project. This was later increased to 156. A second DP camp at Champapadar was initiated for 75 households for the displaced from Khoraguda (a village affected but not visited by our study team) and Champapadar villages.[265] At present there are more than 200 families who are living in the Champapadar DP camp. The housing provided by NALCO consists of 10x10 ft structures. As rehabilitation was never properly completed, the PAPs invested their own money in building their houses or supplementing the inadequate housing provided by the company. The DP camp of Champapadar is situated far away from the township of the company while that of Amalabadi is closer. The two DP camps were provided with basic drinking water facilities. Some villages have tube wells and taps but most of them also depend on the stream and river water for their domestic purposes. A huge protest and rally taken out by the employees of affected families last year to demand for inclusion of women headed households in the rehabilitation programme, reflects the neglect of single women and widows among the PAPs. The company does not provide any medical facilities for the affected families and basic services like drinking water, electricity and education are either not provided or marginally provided by the company.

Most of the villages affected had lost fertile agricultural land. Damanjodi had the highest number of displaced families (around 170) where private agricultural land was also alienated. The people reported that they received a compensation of Rs.3,000 per acre for paddy land and Rs.1,100 per acre for dry land. In Putsil it was found that the average compensation received per family was Rs.1,300 per acre. In Marchimala, 50 households lost their land but not their houses. These families did not receive any alternate land. They were only given a monetary compensation, which averaged around Rs. 1,500 per acre. Only one person who lost his land and house was given a job with the company. In Janiguda village more than 240 acres of land was taken by the company but people who had lost their land were not given any alternate livelihood. Only cash compensation averaging Rs. 1,500 per acre was given. Since the villagers only lost land and not their homes the company did not provide any jobs. The 75 families displaced from Champapadar received an average compensation of Rs. 1,500 per acre.[266]

264. EPW, June 15, 1996, pp 1533-1538.

265. Source General Secretary of NALCO Displaced and Land-loser Employee Association

266. Statement of the villagers at Janiguda

Displaced camp, Damanjodi
(Photo June 2009)

Compensation for land was given only to farmers who had *pattas* (title deeds), so some of the *adivasi* and *dalit* families who did not possess *pattas* did not receive any compensation and also lost their livelihood. The PAPs also reported that most of the families are now working as landless labourers either in agriculture, animal rearing or as daily wage labourers for construction and other industrial activities. The literacy rates in all these affected villages vary between 10–30 per cent with the exception of Damanjodi, which has a 60–70 per cent rate due to outsiders settling here.

Employment at the company was given at the most, to one person per family where the eldest son got a job and the others had to become landless labourers. Jobs were given only if both land and house were taken away. The nature of jobs given to the displaced persons, involved mainly semi-skilled and unskilled work such as drivers, operators, office attendants and manual labour. The people reported that in the 25 years of the company's existence, only seven out of all the displaced people were promoted from unskilled to semi-skilled level. Of the displaced who got jobs, 108 persons are dead and more than 20 have retired, but none of their family members were given jobs after them. So far only 20 women from the displaced communities are working in the company according to the PAPs. In Champapadar DP camp 59 persons of the 75 displaced families, got jobs of which only seven are

Table 2.15: Population of affected villages

Sl. No.	Village name	Families affected	Total amount of land lost	No. of families displaced	Compensation received	No. of jobs from NALCO
1	Amalabadi	--	--	--	--	200
2	Champapadar	75	Data not available	75	Average Rs.1,500 per acre	59
3	Damanjodi	170	Data not available	170	Average Rs.1,500 per acre	170
4	Gouduguda	--	--	--	--	--
5	Janiguda	129 households	240 acres	No displacement	Average Rs. 1,500 per acre	0
6	Marichimala	More than 50	Data not available	1	Rs. 1,550 per acre	1
7	Putsil	Above 20	Data not available	18	Around Rs. 1,300 per acre	18

Note: 1. Amalabadi is where the new DP camp was set up.
2. Gouduguda is a village located next to the bauxite mining. While no land or house has been lost the residents here are indirectly affected as a result of mining

Source: PAP unions and village elders (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

from SC community and rest are OBCs. In Amalabadi DP camp there are more than 400 families but only 200 managed to get jobs in the company. NALCO acquired 240 acres of agricultural land from the community in Janiguda village but none of the families were given any jobs. They merely received meagre cash compensation in 1981. In Marichimala, of the more than 50 affected households, only one person who lost both land and house was given a job with the company, while in Putsil 18 families, who lost both land and house, were given a job.

Table 2.15 gives data collected in some of the affected villages visited by the study team regarding families affected, compensation provided and jobs in the company.

Education Status of Children Living in the Mining-affected Villages

There are two schools maintained by NALCO—Delhi Public School which is an English medium school and the second is the Saraswathi Vidya Mandir which is an Oriya medium school. It was seen that the educational institutions set up by the company are mainly for children of employees and management staff and not for the local communities. Hence, almost none of the *adivasi* and *dalit* children of the displaced families or surrounding villages attend the company run schools except for the children of employees living here. For one, the schools are located close to the township where the employees live, whereas the affected *adivasi* and *dalit* communities and the DP camps are located far away from these institutions and have very unreliable transport facilities. The people also reported that they do not like to send their children to the NALCO run school as the children cannot cope with the curriculum and many of them drop out in high school. Besides, the social barriers between *adivasi* and *dalit* children and those of employees and management level staff of NALCO are another cause for the displaced community children not attending these schools. Most of them attend the government primary and upper primary schools, which have poor infrastructure and quality of teaching.

School drop-out rates are seen to be alarming in the area. Table 2.16 is indicative of the high drop-out rates among children in the affected villages. This is also indicative of the number of children who are involved in child labour. Table 2.17 gives the official DISE data as a comparison for some of the affected villages.

In the Janiguda village school, there are two regular teachers and one para-teacher but out of them, only the headmaster is regular to the school, as reported by the villagers. The school building is in very poor condition and has minimal infrastructure facilities for students. The headmaster stated that the school drop-out rates are increasing and this is an issue of concern as children are taken for agricultural labour or for grazing cattle. At least 50–60 children from Goudaguda village were reported to have dropped out from school and 20–30 children were irregular. At Janiguda the villagers reported that more than 150 children had dropped out of school.

There is one primary school, which barely functions regularly, in Champapadar village. For a colony of its size, there are only 3–4 college level students and 4–5 youth with a diploma.

Table 2.16: Some data on children of affected families in Koraput district

District	Block	Village	Total number of children	Total no. of school going children	No of child labourers	No of school drop-outs
Koraput	Damanjodi	Amalabadi	800–900	250–300	150	20 last year
	Koraput	Champapadar	300	60–70	50–70	Data not available
	Damanjodi	Damanjodi	3,000-3,500	Around 2,500	500–600	Data not available
	Kakiriguma	Goudaguda	650–700	222	60	15–20 last year
	Damanjodi	Janiguda	Around 250	30–35	Around 150	More than 150

Source: Local community leaders (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

Table 2.17: School enrolment data

District	Sub-district	Village	Total enrolment	SC	ST	OBC	Others
Koraput	Damanjodi	Amalabadi	44	9	24	0	0
	Koraput	Champapadar	28	0	4	0	0
	Kakiriguma	Goudaguda	176	14	59	0	0

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim
Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

Source: DISE report card, September 2008

Table 2.18: Educational institutions in the area

Name of the village	No of primary schools	No of high schools	No of colleges
Amalabadi	1	0	0
Champapadar	1	0	0
Damanjodi	6	2	1
Goudaguda	1	0	0
Janiguda	1	0	0
Marchimala	1	0	0

Source: Local community leaders (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

In Janiguda village, there is one primary cum upper primary school but they do not function properly. Table 2.18 gives an indication of educational institutions.

Status of Children in *Anganwadis* and Malnourishment

At Paraja street *anganwadi*, which was one of the three *anganwadi* centres in Goudaguda, it was reported by the worker that of the 51 children enrolled, 10 children within the age group of 0–5 year are within normal range, whereas 11 children suffer from grade III malnutrition, 12 children from grade II and, the rest of the children are in the category of absolute malnutrition. Here it was also reported that, at the time of the study, the total number of neonatal delivery cases at the centre were three and total number of pregnant women were three. Very few children attend the *anganwadi* regularly as facilities are almost negligent. Except for occasional health camps by NALCO, there are no medical facilities. The *anganwadi* worker reported that there were cases of TB but could not give the exact number. Table 2.19 gives the enrolment in the *anganwadi* centre at Paraja street. There is an *anganwadi* centre in Janiguda but the worker lives in another village and visits the children occasionally. Champapadar village has one *anganwadi* centre which does not function on a regular basis.

Table 2.19: Enrolment at *anganwadi* centre, Paraja street, Goudaguda

Name	Total		ST		SC	
	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl
Paraja street	25	26	19	23	6	3

Source: *Anganwadi* centre, Goudaguda, Paraja Street

Child Labour

Child labour is a clear indication of the social and economic status of a community, coupled with the inaccessibility to basic education, the reduced livelihood opportunities and landlessness due to the mining project. All these factors have resulted in more children dropping out of school to supplement their family incomes. Also, the township's demand for domestic labour has increased the female girl child's absorption into menial labour as house-maids and domestic help. The youth who were interviewed stated that as they do not qualify for the matriculation examination due to their poor school education, and very few are able to reach college level education, they end up as cleaners and drivers of trucks, ply autos and buses for private contractors or are hired in petty shops and businesses.

Child labour outside NALCO township
(Photo Samata)

There is a high incidence of child labour around the NALCO area although there is no child labour within the company premises. In Mathalput region, close to Damnajodi NALCO township, there is a higher incidence of child labour as it is a settlement of migrant workers. According to the local villagers, there are 500-600 children working in various forms of child labour in Damanjodi. Of these, the majority of the children working are found in Mathalput slum, which is an extension of Damanjodi town. Both boys and girls of the DP camp of Amalabadi and Champapadar, work under contractors. In Champapadar around 30–40 male children below the age of 18 are working under contractors as daily wage labour and 20–30 female children are working as domestic labour or under contractors. In Amalabadi it was reported that around 150 are engaged in various daily wage activities in the mining township and its surrounding area.

As 131 families of the Amlabadi DP camp are headed by widows who have no source of income, most of the children of these families are working as manual labour in mining and associated activities. In Marichimala it was reported that 200 male and 100 female children, approximately, were working as child labourers. In Putsil, a handful of children are working in mining and related daily wage activities. In Goudaguda more than 50 children are engaged in wage labour. At Janiguda the villagers reported that the 150 children who had dropped out of school were involved in daily wage labour and agricultural activities.

Many of them were seen to be working in hotels, dhabas and petty shops and therefore, it can be estimated that around 500–1,000 children of the project affected areas are working as labourers in the region of Laxmipur, Kakiriguma, Damanjodi town, Koraput, Semiliguda and Potangi. Many youth are also reported to have migrated to the cities of Chennai, Mumbai, Hyderabad and other cities for livelihood.

Health and Environment Concerns

Air and water pollution are reported to be high, by the local community. The most adversely affected villages are Kutundi, Karadiguda, Bhitarguda, Lachuani and Gouduguda.[267] Water scarcity is one of the major problems faced by the people. Women and children have to walk long distances to collect water. People from these villages stated that due to mining activities, traditional water sources (natural springs) of the Panchpatmali hills have dried up and some of the perennial streams have reduced flow. Hence water for both domestic uses and agriculture has become inaccessible, particularly in summer. Contamination of the water bodies due to drain-off from mine tailings and unsafe sewage disposal due to expansion of the local and migrant population as a result of the mining project is another major problem identified by the people. Therefore water related diseases like diarrhoea and skin problems. Terminal illnesses like cancer were also reported by the community leaders and union members, although this has to be medically verified. Of the 18 employed in the NALCO mines from Putsil village, 10 persons have died and the villagers said that they had been suffering from cancer as understood by them from the reports of NALCO hospital.[268] In Janiguda village 30–40 cases of TB were detected among daily wage labourers, during the study. The

267. Statement made by members of NALCO Displaced and Land Loser Employee Association
268. Ibid

village also complained of contamination in their drinking water and how their health is affected due to this.

Government health infrastructure consisted of one SHC in Goudaguda and Amalabadi each, and one PHC at Damanjodi.

Social Disturbance and Sexual Harassment

Villagers have reported 10–15 cases of sexual harassment of the women from their community. Women walking to the mine sites for daily wage work have faced intimidation by migrant labour and truck drivers.[269] Some of the single women and widows who have no other source of livelihood have been forced into the sex trade in the fringes of Damanjodi and Mathalput. Also there were at least 100–200 HIV/AIDs affected persons but it is difficult to give accurate estimates. Damanjodi has acquired the reputation of being the second Ganjam (a city in Koraput district with high incidence of HIV/AIDS) in terms of HIV cases. Considerable number of migrant workers come from Ganjam and coastal belt.[270]

Single woman—vulnerable and destitute, Damanjodi
(Photo June 2009)

The social environment of the DP camps has changed from a village community to a slum community with problems like alcoholism, domestic violence, theft and crime being common. Although basic amenities do not exist in DP camps, liquor is the most easily available commodity with liquor shops set up within the rehabilitated colonies. In Damanjodi it is no different, and the wages earned by men are directly drained out for alcohol, which is a cause for domestic violence, frequent brawls and physical abuse on women. The *adivasi* children who had no exposure to such social disturbances in the earlier times, have to now face a degenerate social order. This is both an intangible price and beyond the boundaries of compensation. This is a price that a nation is willing to pay for the economic returns, because, mention of such impacts is normally ridiculed as giving undue importance to insignificant and inevitable impacts vis-a-vis the economic image of an industrially advanced India.

Conclusions

The rehabilitation of the community displaced by NALCO, even after three decades, remains incomplete. The fact that at the time of this study in 2009, the PAPs were organising strikes and agitations to demand for proper rehabilitation shows that the displaced families' problems are yet to be addressed by the NALCO authorities. There has been no impact assessment report made public, if any was undertaken during this period, and no stocktaking of the rehabilitation process, or a review of the basic services provided were undertaken in consultation with the PAPs. Particularly, there has been no assessment of the impact on children, even when high incidence of child labour, school drop-out rate and malnourishment are visibly evident. The presence of a large section of single mothers, widows and destitute women in the displaced camps, where they are unable to provide basic survival for their children, is a direct impact of the mining project; yet no attention has been given to their plight. The new Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy of India provides for mere cash compensation with voluntary assurances that social responsibility will be demonstrated by the respective projects and governments.

(***Acknowledgements:*** This case study was done with the assistance of NALCO Displaced and Land Losers' Employee Association, who provided us with data, introduced us to the communities and helped in the field data collection.)

Dolomite and Limestone Quarries of Sundergarh

"My name is Anjana (name changed). I am 15 years old. I am working in a crushing unit here since the last 1 year as my family is very poor. For

269. Villagers from Janiguda and Champapadar

270. Statement made by members of NALCO Displaced and Land Loser Employee Association

loading one basket of the ore into the vehicle the owner of the crusher gives us Rs. 0.25. I usually earn Rs.40–50 per day and with this I am helping my two younger siblings, a brother and sister, go to school. The owner of the crusher provides us with sugarcane at weekly intervals so that I can work more. I have never been to school."

Source: Interview carried out near to the Bramhanimara village, Sundergarh, November 2009

Sundergarh district has a long history of dolomite and limestone mining. Birmitrapur in Sundergarh district, where the case study was conducted, has seen mining since the early nineteenth century. The mining was undertaken by the British initially through the company Birds India Limited, which is today called Bisra Stone Lime Company Limited (BSL). The estimated reserves of limestone and dolomite are 375 million tonnes and 265 million tonnes respectively.

According to the Department of Mines, Orissa, Sundergarh district has a total of 87 working mines of which dolomite and limestone are 19 and dolomite alone is four. There are 268 applications for mining leases still pending with the department. There are also 49 sponge iron factories in the district. Each factory has 15–20 deep bore-wells whose depth is at least 800 ft from the ground level. Some of the sponge iron plants and mines had to be closed down due to non-compliance with pollution norms. It is a known fact, as expressed by the ex-Chairman of Birmitrapur Mr. Kishore Kujur, that there are as many illegal mines as legal mines in the region.The government is now inviting multinational corporations to establish large-scale industries of cement in Sundergarh.

NCLP school, Birmitrapur, Sundergarh
(Photo November 2009)

The case study was conducted in the area of Birmitrapur municipality which is one of the most excessively mined areas in Sundergarh. The report has been gathered from visits made to dolomite and limestone mines in Kukhrajola, Chanabahar and Kansabahal villages and BSL mines in Mundatolli and Bramhanimara villages. The visit included Purna Panni dolomite and limestone quarries and village which is an abandoned mine site.

Sundergarh district, comprising of 17 blocks and 262 *gram panchayats*, has a predominant ST population. Of the total population of 1,830,673, the STs number 918,903. The major *adivasi* groups in Sundergarh are Kharia, Mankidi, Mankidia and Birhor who constitute 50.74 per cent of the population of the district. The district falls under the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution.

Status of children in *Anganwadis*

In Birmitrapur, the age group of 0–6 years is around 2,500 but very few of them have access to *anganwadi*. In Bramhanimara village both the *anganwadi* centre as well as the school functions under the same roof as there is no separate building for running of *anganwadi* centre. As it is one of the bigger villages in Birmitrapur municipality it has a sizeable number of children in the age group of 0–6 years. The total number of children of the village, Bramhanimara village, between 0–6 years is 91 with a break-up as given in Table 2.20.

Table 2.20: Details of children in Bramhanimara *anganwadi*

Category	Total	Boy	Girl
ST	58	27	31
SC	18	11	7
General	15	8	7

Source: *Anganwadi* centre, Bramhanimara village

This year, there are 18 malnourished children in the centre, out of which 3–4 are under severe malnourishment category and the rest are under grade I, II, III and IV categories.

According to the *anganwadi* worker there are 3–4 cases of TB patients in the village this year, undergoing medical treatment. According to her, there are at least 8–9 registered cases of filaria. This is mainly because of the pollution of water as observed by her. The Child Development Project Officer of Birmitrapur ICDS project provided some revealing facts

about the status of children in this municipality. According to their records there are 3,390 children below the age of 6 years and the Table 2.21 gives the status of children's nutrition levels as per the records of September 2009 in Birmitrapur *anganwadi*. The Table shows that only 41 per cent of children are barely or just above malnourishment.

Table 2.21: Children's health status: Birmitrapur *anganwadi*

Grade	Total children	Percentage to total children
Normal weight	1,397	41
Grade I	1,363	40
Grade II	582	17
Grade III	20	0.59
Grade IV	02	0.05

Source: ICDS office Birmitrapur

In Kansbahal village the *anganwadi* centre has no infrastructure and operates under a tree. The *anganwadi* worker stated that atleast 12 children are absolutely malnourished and around 50–100 cases of TB have been identified from the village.

In Chanabahar village according to the villagers, around 100 children (80 per cent of the total children) below the age of 6 years are malnourished. In short it was reported in almost all the villages that a majority of children are malnourished and a considerable number of children drop out of school. None of the villages reported that they receive development support for children either in the form of education, nutrition or medical facilities from the mining companies operating in the area.

Education

The overall district literacy rate is 65 per cent but a look at the elementary education statistics shows an alarming drop in student rural enrolment from 82,016 at primary level to 7,425 at secondary education level. This reflects the poor access to higher education that adolescents in the district have, which further reflects the poor social and economic conditions of the majority population.

In this backdrop, we present here the situation of children living in Birmitrapur block which is one of the worst mining affected regions in Orissa. There are around 4,000–5,000 children below the age of 18 years living in Birmitrapur town of the municipality. In Birmitrapur there are 15 government schools, one college and three high schools. The dakua group (women's SHG) of Birmitrapur which met the team at the *anganwadi* centre, stated that at least 20–25 children from each ward do not go to school and that every year at least 30 per cent of school-going children drop out of school.

No infrastructure for this *anganwadi*. Children and animals attending the *anganwadi* under the trees, Brahmanimara, Sundergarh (Photo November 2009)

According to the villagers and the local organisation Gangpur *Adivasi* Forum for Social and Cultural Awakening (GAFSCA), the poverty of most families, becomes a cause for many children not to attend school regularly and to drop-out after primary school. The women stated that another reason for children dropping out of school is the poor teaching and teacher absenteeism. In Mundatolli village, which is a small settlement of around 25 households, we found that there were atleast 55 children of school going age. As there is no government or private school in this village, none of the children have opportunity to go to school except for five boys and four girls who are in high school and walk to the Don Bosco school in the neighbouring village, every day.

In Bramhanimara village there is only one teacher in the school with a total strength of 25 children Table 2.22). The DISE report card (September 2008) gives the enrolment for class I–V as around 219. According to the teacher there is no

Table 2.22: Enrolment in Bramhanimara primary school in 2009-10

Class	ST		SC		GENERAL	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
I–V	7	2	3	8	3	2
Total	**9**		**11**		**5**	

Source: Attendance register, Bramhanimara primary school, Bramhanimara

drop-out rate and there are only two children working in the mines. However, she admitted that most of the children go to the mine sites to help their parents and also, alternately, attend school. This category of semi-labour participation by children is one of the most invisible forms of child labour.

In Chanabahar village, the community reported that atleast 20 children have dropped out of school because of poverty caused by mining and around 25 teenagers are working in the mines as daily wage labour.

There is one NCLP school up to class V, in Birmitrapur, which is managed by an NGO from Rourkela. There are only 40 children enrolled, of which only 11 children were present on the day of our visit. The teacher stated that there are more than 200 child labourers in Birmitrapur town itself, but they are unable to come to the NCLP school due to abject poverty of the families, and therefore have to supplement the family incomes.

Displacement

Dolomite mining of BSL, Sundergarh
(Photo November 2009)

Inspite of the existence of mining companies, migration of unskilled workers is high in Sundergarh, which speaks for the low employment opportunities that mining companies create for local people. This is also the reason why Sundergarh has become one of the junctions for trafficking and migration, especially with respect to young girls being whisked away by organised trade for human labour as well as for prostitution.[271]

In Birmitrapur, alteast 50 more families whose lands were taken for mining, have yet to receive compensation. These families continue to live in the slum in Birmitrapur as they wait for compensation, but the landlessness has forced them to make their children drop out of school and take them for mine labour. The impoverishment is clearly visible with daily wage labour being the only form of subsistence.

When we visited the Purna Panni Limestone and Dolomite Quarries, the Assistant General Manager gave information about the social welfare activities taken up by the company under corporate social responsibility (CSR), although the mines are currently shut down and may be reopened as a joint venture with SAIL. He talked about how the mining provided economic opportunities to the local people besides other facilities like electricity, roads, health camps, fishing rights and other amenities. However, the testimonies of the people of Purna Panni village disputed these claims.

In Purna Panni village, 40 per cent of the population fall below the age of 18 years. Atleast five villages were affected by Purna Panni Limestone and Dolomite Quarries and were forced to migrate to find wage labour elsewhere like Gujarat, Delhi, Punjab, Andamans and other places. The company has not employed the 1,000–1,200 locals displaced by their project, whereas compensation and jobs were promised at the time of land acquisition. Not even drinking water or medical facilities were provided to the community.

In Chanabahar the local village leaders complained that companies like M/s. Chariot Steel and Power Private Limited, M/s. Tripathi Company and others were involved in illegal mining activities and were encroaching on to *adivasi* lands. They reported that about 81 acres of such illegally acquired land, affecting about 10 families, were under mining operations. The villagers said that the affected families were given Rs.1,500 per acre as compensation and were promised employment and other benefits, which they have not received so far. All these families are in a state of impoverishment and work as landless labourers today.

Water Contamination and Its Impact on Health

Water is the most serious problem expressed by the local communities besides the malnourishment of children. Prior to mining, the local river was a common property, which was the main source of water for drinking and irrigation. After BSL company got the mining lease, water was diverted to

271. http://comhlamh.org/assets/files/pdfs/Web_Focus80(1).pdf

Contaminated drinking water in mine workers' colonies, Sundergarh (Photo November 2009)

the company and the mine tailings were dumped into the river converting into a highly polluted water body unfit for consumption. It was evident that the water in the entire region is contaminated and consists of heavy metals and dust, as a result of overdrawing of water and dumping of mine waste. The sponge iron factories have dug up bore-wells creating serious groundwater depletion. The 49 sponge iron factories with each having 15–20 deep bore-wells having a depth of about 800 ft from the ground level is more than a cause for alarm for the people of this region.

The area has been witnessing serious health problems related to waterborne diseases due to the contamination of water. Problems like filaria, hydrocele and gynaecological problems were reported by the local leaders as well as by the women interviewed. Serious occupational health hazards were reported around the cement factories in Rajgangpur. In the summer months and for many parts of the year, severe water shortage is experienced due to low groundwater levels. It is mainly the girl children who accompany their mothers for collection of water, which is contaminated. They are constantly exposed to the toxicity from the mine tailings that get mixed in these water bodies.

Water crisis! Water contains mine tailings and is unfit for human or animal consumption, Sundergarh (Photo November 2009)

In Brahmanimara village which is the worst affected by mining, around 810 households mainly belonging to ST families, face a severe problem of drinking water as well as water for irrigation. As the mining activities have depleted the groundwater, the water that is pumped up for drinking has high levels of limestone and dust but the villagers are forced to consume this water, having no other option. The farmers stated that the land productivity has gone down drastically due to lack of adequate water and therefore, more and more families have to migrate seasonally.

Only in Mundatolli the study team was told that the BSL company provides medical aid and benefits and provides drinking water to both workers and the community.

The Junior Engineer of the Public Health Department shared that, of the 11 wards in Birmitrapur municipality, drinking water is supplied to 7–9 wards after treatment at the BSL water reserve, but he confessed that it may not be completely free from pollutants and that not all the affected villages have access to this water. He further informed that there are 181 tubewells whose approximate depth was 200 ft but as the mining companies were exploiting the water resources right down to 400 ft, this has led to water crisis and therefore, the companies are being denied permission to do mining.

Health Condition of Children and Community

Common health problems related to children were stated to be malaria, filariasis, TB and gastroenteritis. Most of their health problems are connected to the highly contaminated water because of which gastroenteritis, jaundice and diarrhoea are commonly suffered by the children. Diabetes is also highly prevalent in this area. As the stagnant water from the mine sites and the mining dumps are breeding grounds for mosquitoes, the children are living in poor sanitary conditions. They are suffering from malnutrition and malaria which affects them cyclically making them anaemic and more susceptible to illnesses. The *anganwadi* workers claimed that some children have TB. A serious health problem among the children here is filariasis as stated by Fr. Nicholas Barla of GAFSCA. A survey conducted by them in the year 2006 in Purna Panni village, showed that there were 40 cases of filariasis in this village alone, and among them, 10–12 were children. The

reason, according to them, for such high incidence of the disease in this village could be due to the stagnating water in the mine pits and the abandoned mines where rainwater gets collected.

In Bramhanimara village the people stated that they used to work in the mines earlier but many of them contracted TB due to this work. Also, the proximity of the mine site keeps them in constant danger of accidents and injuries from mine blasting. The village has not received any social or health benefits from the company either in the form of education, housing, roads, electricity or other facilities although this is the most directly affected by the project.

According to the medical officer of the CHC in Birmitrapur, occupational health problems are significantly high in the area and he informed that people suffered from respiratory illnesses, malaria, TB (See Table 2.23 for data on TB cases), filaria and other waterborne diseases mainly due to the mining activities. He also stated that there is severe shortage of medicines in the PHC due to the high rate of illnesses but the hospital does not get any help from the mining companies.

Table 2.23: Data of TB for the last 4 years till October 2009

Year	Reported cases of TB	Positive cases of TB
2006	228	52
2007	227	53
2008	376	53
2009	433	41

Source: CHC, Birmitrapur, (excluding the figure of the BSL run hospital)

Child Labour

There are many women and teenage girls below the age of 18 years working as unskilled labour either directly in mining activities or indirectly in construction of roads and factories in Birmitrapur area and the women said they get a wage of Rs.60 per day while the men get Rs.100. Interviews with workers in all the mine sites revealed that while those under direct employment receive some form of benefits, the majority of the contract labourers receive no benefits except for their daily wages.

Children from displaced families and mine workers' families were found to be working either in mining or other ancillary

Young girls working in Dolomite mines and stone crushers at Birmitrapur, Sundergarh (Photo November 2009)

activities like road construction work, loading of trucks, breaking stones, working in the crushers or as cleaners for the trucks. Groups of young girls go to the mines together every day and work until 5 p.m. They work with the limestone with their bare hands and have no safety gear given to them. In Dillu quarry near Bramhanamari village, we found several adolescent mine workers, most of them girls between the ages of 14 and 16. There were 11 child labourers other than these adolescent girls, who were found working. The girls responded that they are hired as contract labour and earn around Rs.40–50 per day for the tough work in the mines. The girls are mostly hired in the stone crushers where they are paid low wages but as the economic condition of the families is very low, the girls are sent to work in the crushers. The girls also reported that the mine owners give them sugarcane every week, probably to boost their energy levels and extract more work from them. Because of this impoverishment, the local organisations complained that young girls are trafficked to cities like Delhi and Mumbai by local agents who pose as middlemen for employment. Local organisations working for the rights of children have taken up the cause of human trafficking in Sundergarh, which is mainly due to indebtedness created by mining and other industries. Most of the boys working in the mines were reported to be addicted to gutka, alcohol and gambling. Strangely, we found many orphanages situated in this region but the reasons for the significant number of orphanages in one area, was not clear as we could not interview the heads of these institutions.

Social Issues

The SHG or *dakua* women interviewed stated that due to the mining activities there are many unwed mothers and there is a high rate of trafficking of young girls and women and migration

for labour elsewhere. The presence of five orphanages in such a small area is evidence of this.

Earlier the Birds group had taken up social welfare activities by putting aside some part of its profit to create a 'shesh fund'. Student scholarships were provided through the 'Edward Benthol Fund' as part of their philanthropic activities.

Conclusion

Sundergarh has been declared as one of the most polluted and backward regions in the country and stands at a junction between three states where trafficking of children and women is known to be extremely high. The human development indices for children are some of the lowest in the country and this is reflected in the scale of child and human trafficking in the district. It was estimated by a survey done by the Rourkela Social Service Society that every day there is trafficking of at least 20 girls to the urban cities like Delhi and Mumbai. At least 7,000 girls were trafficked in each year from the Sundergarh district according to their survey. In 2003-04, a survey done by the same organisation shows that in the same year atleast 35,000 girls were trafficked to different parts of the country. The main reason for this high incidence of trafficking is the stark poverty, and non-implementation of the developmental schemes and mining projects in the areas. As industrialisation, especially mining, spread rapidly in the district, *adivasis*, who form a majority of the population have become vulnerable to migration and trafficking. The district has also an alarming rate of unwed mothers and prostitution. In the year 2006, 12 persons afflicted by HIV/AIDS from the areas of Birmitrapur and Rajgangpur died.

Sundergarh has also witnessed a spurt of violent actions from extreme left (Maoist) groups and the region is now considered as politically disturbed. With multinational mining interests eyeing the *adivasi* lands in Sundergarh, it is anticipated that political violence between the state and Maoist groups will increase in the future. Sundergarh stands as an example of how an agricultural *adivasi* region has been taken over by mining contractors, traders, land mafia, corporate agents in nexus with police and political forces. The fact that the Indian Bureau of Mines team which was sent to conduct investigations into alleged mining scams, had been interrupted in their field investigations, makes one suspicious on the pressure that the mining conglomerates could bring on the political powers.
The alarming status of groundwater depletion and the contamination of water bodies in the dolomite and limestone quarry areas of Sundergarh is the biggest problem expressed by women who fear to collect this water for their domestic use. The frightening situation is that they have no alternative source and this crisis brought on the region by rampant mining activities does not stir any response from mining or state authorities. Besides, it is not only the mineral extraction but the existence of several sponge iron factories, both in the case of Sundergarh and Keonjhar, which are adding to the high levels of air pollution and water contamination in the region. New projects are being cleared in Sundergarh and the people expressed a deep sense of fear and frustration that it is the mining lobby that controls the administration in the district and not any governance institutions. Hence, in state after state, we have witnessed a complete collapse of the state and its institutions as a result of mining.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The case study in Sundergarh district was undertaken in partnership with GAFSCA. We acknowledge the help and support of Fr. Nicholas Barla and his team in facilitating the field visits and meetings in the villages, as well as in sharing the data and information available with their organisation).

Proposed Mining in Kasipur and Conflict due to Utkal Alumina Limited Limited

Ajit (name changed) hails from Dom Koral village of Tikiri. He is 17 years old. As he lost his father 5 years ago, he was forced to take on the entire burden of the family and become the sole bread-winner. He works as a manual labourer under different contractors in mining activities and earns around Rs.60 per day day. He stated that the mining work is erratic and hence his earnings are irregular. "I do odd jobs at the mine site as there is construction work going on.Work is very tough and therefore, I have gradually become addicted to liquor and gutka, but I can't help it."

Source: Interview carried out in Dom Koral, Kasipur, June 2009.

Kasipur block is in Raigada district of undivided Koraput region in the state of Orissa. The hills of Kasipur, in Koraput district, have very rich deposits of bauxite and the mining industries, both national and multinational, have been eyeing these resources for unscrupulous exploitation at the cost of social, economic and environmental destruction.

Pre-mining area, Kasipur
(Photo June 2009)

Kasipur area is mainly inhabited by *adivasis* living in the midst of thick forests and hills. These areas are, in legal terminology, called the Scheduled Areas as per the Fifth Schedule of the Indian Constitution where majority *adivasis* live and have exclusive ownership of land. Out of the total population of the district nearly 72.03 per cent of the people are BPL families[272] and more than 50 per cent of its total population belong to *adivasi* communities. Kasipur consists of 20 *gram panchayats* which is a conglomeration of around 270 villages. According to Census 2001, the total population of the block is 67,254. The Jhodia, Kandho, Paraja tribes and the Panos (untouchables or *dalits*) constitute around 70–80 per cent of the total population of the block and the rest are OBCs. The *adivasis* here mainly subsist on agriculture and collection of forest produce.

Proposed mining projects in the region

The Baphlimali and the Niyamgiri hills of Kasipur account for 67.7 per cent of bauxite reserves in India. This region of Orissa, mostly from the western part, contributes around 13 per cent of the world's bauxite reserves. The content of alumina in the bauxite ore in this region is around 45–48 per cent. It is proposed that UAIL will extract bauxite ore from Baphlimali. Similarly Larsen and Tubro will have its mines at Sijumali, Sterlite India Limited will have mines at Niyamgiri and Aditya Birla's Hindustan Aluminium Company (HINDALCO) will have another independent unit by mining at Kodingamali hills. All these units together are meant to affect about 2,700 families of nearly 200 villages.

UAIL earlier a joint venture of Norsk Hydro, ALCAN and HINDALCO, is now completely owned by HINDALCO of the Aditya Birla Group, and proposes to extract bauxite with a capacity of 1–3 million tonnes per annum.

History of the People's Struggle in Kasipur

In the year 1993 the local people first came to know that UAIL, a multi national company, had decided to set up an alumina extraction plant near Kucheipadar in Kasipur Block. Prakrutiko Sampado Surakshya Parishad (PSSP) is a people's movement, which emerged as a resistance to the Utkal project. The struggle is unique in its nature as it is the local *adivasi* community that has led the movement.

(Photo: Samata)

The people of Kasipur have, right from the beginning, opposed the alumina project tooth and nail, and refused to give their lands to the company. Since 1993 the local community resisted all activities initiated by the company like construction of roads, bridges, resettlement colonies and put up strong resistance whenever company staff or government officials tried to engage them either through frivolous community development projects like the Utkal Rural Development Society (URDS) or through false promises of future employment or economic gains. Unable to break through this resistance, the state along with UAIL, filed false criminal cases on the leaders of PSSP several times, took them into illegal custody and tried to terrorise people into submission.

272. Orissa Human Development Report, 2005

State Excesses and Human Rights Violations

Struggle of people from Kasipur
(Photo Samata)

More than 60 false criminal cases have been filed on the local leaders of the movement so far. People, however, organised rallies, public meetings and strikes to prevent the project from being implemented. On 16 December 2000, police entered the area and opened fire indiscriminately at the people and three *adivasis* were killed with many seriously injured. Since then, the situation in Kasipur is tense, with clashes between *adivasis* who are opposing the project and those outside, who are instigated by corporate agents. The interference of police and sporadic clashes that occur every time increase pressure and harassment on people, and have threatened the security and peace in the area. It was with great difficulty that the case study was conducted as the study team, faced antagonism, suspicion and intimidation from the community who have had to deal with constant political and corporate manipulations. Table 2.24 gives some demographic details of the project area in Kasipur.

According to the official statistics, the project will displace 148 households of three villages namely Dom Koral, Kendukhunti and Ramibeda. Table 2.25 gives some information on dispalcemet in Kasipur villages visited. In 2007, two villages, Ramibeda and Kendukhunti were relocated to the DP camp at Nuapada. A total of 147 families shifted to this colony from the two villages, while the resettlement colony for Dom Koral is still under construction. At the new DP camp, the company provided housing, electricity, drinking water and a school with a local teacher. The rehabilitation and resettlement plan according to UAIL's promises consists of a house, a tank for bathing, community centre, a pond for bathing and washing, school, playground for the children with other essential facilities to the displaced people. It was also stated that rehabilitation and resettlement would be based on land for land compensation. Further, each displaced family was to be given 10 cents of land with a house of 300 sq feet.[273]

However, no such rehabilitation took place so far, although the families have been displaced. The villagers complain that the compensation given to the displaced is worse than what was provided in Damanjodi by NALCO. As expressed by the affected families, 80–90 per cent of those who lost land are yet to receive compensation. In the initial stage, UAIL gave Rs.21,300 per acre and in the second phase it decided to give Rs. 1 lakh per acre as compensation. Further, the company declared to increase the compensation prices to 1 lakh more per acre. However, this was not implemented as promised. Promises of jobs were made by the company, but only irregular daily wage labour is currently available and the people see no scope of employment in the future either as they have come to know that the mining will be highly mechanised.

The affected area is the source of around 130 streams which feed the three major rivers that flow from here-—he Nagavali, Indravati and Vamsadhara. Most of the land lost for the project is wetland with atleast two crops of paddy and multiple cereals and pulses grown in these lands.[274]

Situation of Children in the Displacement Camp and Villages Affected

The community leaders, PSSP leaders and *anganwadi* workers of the area were interviewed to get a picture of the status of education of the children in this area. It was told by the above that almost 50 per cent of the children are out of school and involved in either agriculture or mining related labour. The information from discussions with the above groups is distinctly varying from the information available under the government DISE report cards, with regard to school enrolment and drop-out rates. We present below both the sources of information, but unless an indepth household

273. Das. V 2001 Mining Bauxite, Maiming People, Economic and political weekly July 2001, pp- 2612-2613, interview carried out in Maikanch on 24th June 2009

274. Statement of Bhagvan Majhi, Convenor, PSSP

Table 2.24: Some demographic details of the project area, Kasipur

Sl no.	Total no. of house-holds	Total population	Sex-wise population		Village-wise caste break-up	Drinking water source	Medical care	Occupations
			Male	Female				
1	300	Approximately 2,000	1,100	900	50/SC (Dombo); 6/OBC (blacksmith); 244/STs	River, 5 working borewells	1 PHC	Agriculture, wage labour, teacher, police force
2	340	2,600	1,250	1,350	280/ST; 20/SC; 40/ OBC (sundi); 1/Brahmin	River, stream, borewell	No	Agriculture, wage labour, exchange of skills (barter system)
3	30	130	60	70	/ ST	River, tube well	No	Agriculture
4	45	220	120	100	> 30/ST; remaining/SC	River, borewell	No	Agriculture
5	400	2,500	1,300	1,200	70/ST (approx); 330/SC	River, 5 borewells	No	Agriculture, wage labour, barter of labour govt. jobs
6	170	1,200	700	500	15–20/SC; remaining/ST	River, stream, borewell	No	Agriculture
7	150	850	450	400	70/SC; >80/ST	River, stream borewell	No	Agriculture, barter of labour
8	147	1,200	700	500	107/ST (DP Camp inhabitants); 30–40/SC	River, bore well	1 sub-PHC	Earlier agriculture, now wage labour in company

Village name: (1)Kucheipadar, (2) Maikanch, (3) Ramibeda, (4) Kendukhunti, (5) Koral both D. Koral and Tala Koral, (6) Bagrijhola, (7) Dwimundi, (8) DP Camp

Source: Primary data collected (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

survey is conducted, it would be difficult to get an accurate picture of the actual number of children out of school and working as child labour. However, the other sources of secondary data provided in the state overview of Orissa show that there is a substantial rate of school drop-out children in this area of Koraput and Rayagada. First person interviews with families who were resettled revealed that many children have now shifted to construction and other daily wage labour activities, after the mining related construction work started since 2005. Table 2.26 gives information on enrolment data for study villages in Kasipur block.

The families displaced are mainly working as daily wage labour in the company activities like road construction, construction of bridges, walls and other odd forms of casual labour which is not a regular income or livelihood.

Table 2.25: Information collected on displacement, Kasipur

Sl no	Total land acquired for the project	Total no of displaced families	Total amount of rehabilitation and compensation received
1	Approximately 150 acres of paddy land and 100 acres of dry land, 1 river diverted	No	First payment in 1992: Rs.21,300 per acre but none received any compensation in II and III phase.
2	No land but one river is coming under the UAIL mining activities	No	No
3	More than 150 acres of land	30	Last payment in 2003 was Rs. 1 lakh per acre
4	Above 100 acres of land	Around 30	Last payment in 2003 was Rs. 1 lakh per acre
5	Around 850 acres of land	92	Last payment in 2003 was Rs. 1 lakh per acre but not all families received compensation
6	Nearly 65 acres	NA	Last payment in 2003 was Rs. 1 lakh per acre
7	67 acres of land	Most are displaced and kept in the DP camp	Most are rehabilitated in the DP camp; Last payment in 2003 was Rs. 1 lakh per acre
8	Around 25 per cent of the total land required for the project. All the residents of the camp are from the three villages of Ramibeda, Koral and Kendukhunti who lost land and also houses	147	All rehabilitated through the company by providing house and temporary worker designation

Village name: (1) Kucheipadar, (2) Maikanch, (3) Ramibeda, (4) Kendukhunti, (5) Koral both D. Koral and Tala Koral, (6) Bagrijhola, (7) Dwimundi, (8) DP Camp

Source: Local leaders and affected families; (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

Table 2.26: Village level school enrolment data from primary data

District	Block	Village	Total	SC	ST	OBC	Others	Primary data
Rayagada	Kasipur	Kucheipadar	280	88	164	28	38	100
		Maikanch	235	47	190	58	3	150
		Ramibeda						25
		Kendukhunti						45
		Koral both D. Koral and Tala Koral	248	119	104	72	1	350
		Bagrijhola						130
		DP camp						160
		Dimundi	217	82	116	29	2	Data not available

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim

Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

Source: DISE report card, September 2008 and primary data collected (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

Table 2.27: Some figures regarding status of children, Kasipur

Sl	Total population below 18	Sex-wise below 18 population		Educational institutions	Literacy rate (percentage)	No of children attending school		No. of drop-out children	No. of children working in mining/ other sectors	
		Male	Female			Male	Female		Male	Female
1	900	500	400	2 (1 government and 1 private)	5 (approximately)	60	40	Around 350	250	100
2	1,000–1,200	600	500	2 (1 primary and 1 high school)	5 (approximately)	80	70	Around 300	20 children in non-mining activities	10 in non-mining activities
3	50	30	20	No primary school	< 5	15	10	Around 30	Around 30 in mining, hotels, helpers for truckers, truck drivers	10–15 domestic maids
4	80	50	30	1 primary school	< 5	25	20	Around 30–40	Around 20	Data not available
5	1,100	600	500	1 primary school, 1 middle school	30 (appr)	200	150	200–300	Minimum 200 to 300	100–150 in mining and other labour
6	500	300	200	1 primary school	< 5	Within 100	Around 30	Around 50–70	Around 100	Some children working as wage labour.
7	240	240	200	1 primary school	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Around 50	More than 50 children	Around 15
8	450–500	300	250	1 primary school	< 10	Nearly 100	> 60	Around 100	Around 70 to 80	20–30

Village name: (1) Kucheipadar, (2) Maikanch, (3) Ramibeda, (4) Kendukhunti, (5) Koral both D. Koral and Tala Koral, (6) Bagrijhola, (7) Dimundi, (8) DP Camp

Source: Interviews with local people (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

The DP Camp is far away from the village and hence the children do not have access to the primary school in the village and therefore, some of the younger children attend the company school within the resettlement colony. However, this is temporary in nature and there is no certainty that it would continue. Many of the children above 12 years do not attend school and either remain at home or take part in the labour activities of mining or construction work. Most of the youth are working as manual labourers in mining and construction activities, or in tea stalls, hotels and other petty shops in the area. Table 2.27 gives information of status on children in villages visited in Kasipur.

It was observed that hardly 50–100 children of each village regularly attend school. For example, in the villages of Ramibeda, Kendukhunti, the school is in Dimundi village. Even if a school officially exists, there is no infrastructure and there are no teachers who attend regularly. On the other hand, the people stated that there is increase in child drop out rate in almost every village every year. Villagers stated that at least 10 per cent of children in each village drop out every year for different reasons but mainly due to the poor financial situation of the family. Most of the children in the area were found to be working in different construction sites, mining, small hotels and in the markets where they earn a daily wage to supplement their family's subsistence.

According to the interview with the ANM of Tikiri who is in charge of 11 villages and supervises four *anganwadi* workers, the total population of her area is 4,479 and around 700–800 children are in the age group of 0–5 years. Although she does not maintain a detailed register, according to her estimates, only 20–30 per cent are literate. The basic health problems of the children in the area are malnutrition, malaria and diarrhoea. She has noticed an increase in the number of TB cases in the villages. A random count by her in Koral village showed that there are about 10 absolute malnutrition cases among the children but she commented that there were many more anaemic and malnourished children.

This year the institutional deliveries were 70 out of 120 deliveries and the IMR is 51 per 1,000 live births, which is highest in the district. In the previous year there were at least 4–5 identified cases of HIV/AIDS in the area.

Child Labour

Child labour in Kasipur Area
(Photo June 2009)

The *anganwadi* worker in Tikri stated that the number of child labour is rapidly increasing in the area. At present, around 30 per cent of the children in the age group of 10–15 years are directly or indirectly involved in the mining activities. In the nearest town of the mining project, it can be estimated that at least 500 children are working in the hotels, shops, garages, railway station and tea stalls.[275] From each of the villages affected by the UAIL project, there are an average of 50–60 children and adolescents under 18 years of age, working in the construction site of mining under local contractors. At present (just before closure of the mining activities) there were 400–500 children and youth of both sexes working in the mine site as daily labour.

In Kucheipadar village, there is only one primary school and one *Panchayat* school. Roughly, it was estimated that around 300–400[276] children are working as child labour in mining and non-mining related activities. As per the statements of the villagers, these groups of children, especially adolescent boys, are involved in anti-social activities like alcoholism, stealing, gambling, petty theft and consumerism due to the new influences.

Basic Amenities and Health Status of Children

In Kasipur it was found that the area is desperately lacking in basic amenities like *anganwadi* centres, primary schools, drinking water, electricity and medical facilities. Southern

275. Interview with the ANM of Tikiri
276. Meeting with Bhagaban Majhi

Orissa including Kasipur is well known for malnutrition and starvation deaths. The people in Kasipur villages reported that every year 25–30 children below the age of 6 years die due to malnutrition and related illnesses. Waterborne diseases like malaria, diarrhoea and communicable diseases like TB are highly prevalent in the area. Immunisation of children is badly implemented making them vulnerable to some of the fatal childhood illnesses. Due to neglect from state administration the region continues to suffer from health problems and infant mortality.

On the one hand as existing administrative neglect poses serious threats to the health and development of the children, on the other hand the displacement due to mining, shift from agriculture to manual labour and lack of food, has led to child labour and increased child malnourishment. The constant state of terror and violence that has been perpetrated in the area due to mining, gives reason for community level government staff like teachers and health service providers, to further neglect their duties and not visit the villages. This forespeaks serious trouble ahead for the children of this area. The complexities in the political disturbance have been aggravated, with religious fundamental groups, both Hindu and Christian taking advantage of the vulnerable situation. The multiple pressures from the police, corporate, Maoist, communal, non-*adivasi* and other interests on the *adivasi* population have created a prolonged situation of terror with innumerable false police cases hanging on the heads of the local agitators, thereby creating not only a messy political situation, but also severe insecurity and uncertainty of life for the women and children living in this area.

Many of the women, whose husbands face false cases, are helplessly living in starvation, have had to withdraw their children from school and are faced with the burden of supporting their families while their husbands are either in and out of jail or spend most of their time and money on attending court hearings.

Conclusions

It is not clear what benefits the proposed mining project will bring to the *adivasi* children in an area which has already high rates of malnourishment, infant mortality and low school attendance. Rehabilitation, mostly restricted to monetary compensation with little promise of employment, as bauxite mining is technology intensive, holds hardly any hope for the local community in terms of economic sustenance. While it is true that the existing development situation is no better in terms of education and health indicators of children, mining is unlikely to improve this situation. Rather, it may only lead to more alarming indicators as is seen in the NALCO affected communities and even in Kasipur itself where immediate impacts have been an increase in child labour.

Unless rehabilitation clearly spells out commitments from the state and the mining companies with respect to children and improving their access to quality education, health care and social security, the amorphous promises may end in the mine tailings dumps. Unless these specific development programmes and investments are set as a pre-condition to sanctioning of mining leases and a strong regulatory mechanism that regularly monitors the implementation with respect to child related interventions, monitors the health and nutrition levels of children there will be no serious and concrete responsibility displayed.

Moreover, the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Communities emphasises the right to Free Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC) of local *adivasi* communities, which is ratified by India but not respected when it comes to Greenfield projects in *adivasi* areas. Neither in Kasipur nor in neighbouring Lanjigarh has the Orissa government implemented the FPIC principles, especially in the context of children and the communities' demands for protection of their children's rights. At one stroke, these projects have wiped out the constitutional Fifth Schedule rights as well as that of the verdict given in the Samatha Judgement, to the *adivasi* children of Kasipur, whose ownership to lands as future land-holders is being destroyed by transferring their lands to private mining companies.

Therefore, it nullifies the purpose of the Fifth Schedule for the future generations of the *adivasi* people. This is particularly so in Orissa, where almost every inch of *adivasi* land is being proposed for some project or the other and where a large portion has already been shelved off to industries. It is difficult to envisage mining as a sustainable development for children or for the community as long as legal and voluntary commitments remain on paper alone. This is the greatest injustice that mining in India has brought to the *adivasi* children.

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Mining in Keonjhar

"My name is Mohit (name changed). My age is around 16–17 years, I am not sure. I am from the village of Salarapentha. After my family lost our land for the mining company, my father became sick with TB after working for some time in the mining company, and he died. The company initially promised all the affected that jobs will be provided to all families, but so far no villager got a job. I am the highest qualified person from my village as I failed in matriculation. I work in the mines as a daily wage worker and earn Rs. 60 per day. Sometimes I earn Rs.1,800 per month when there is full time work, but most often, work is irregular. We do not have access to drinking water, medical facilities or housing from the company. I am married and I have a lot of tension to make my family survive. So I take mahua sometimes to beat the stress. My mother is also a victim of TB and it is very difficult to handle the expenditure on medical costs and also buy food. I was very interested in going to college but I have to support my family."

Source: Interview carried out in Salarapentha, Keonjhor, February 2010

Rich agricultural land proposed for mining, Keonjhar
(Photo June 2009)

Keonjhar forms a part of northern central plateau with an area of 8,240 sq km. The district is bounded by Singhbhum district of Jharkhand in the north, Jajpur in the south, Dhenkanal and Sundergarh in the west, and Mayurbhanj and Bhadrak in the east. It lies between 21°1'N and 22°10'N latitude and 85°11' E to 86°22' E longitude.

Orissa contributes around one-third of the total iron ore deposit of the country and around one-fourth of the total coal deposits.[277] Keonjhar contributes nearly 75 per cent of rich iron ore deposits present in the state. By the turn of the twentieth century mineral deposits were discovered by geologists, and Joda formed the nucleus of mining and industrial activity in Keonjhar in 1905. The early 1990s threw open the gates for exponential expansion with large-scale investments from the private sector and foreign investors. There are nearly 118 mining leases, large and medium in Keonjhar.

Keonjhar district had been witnessing large-scale mining activity during the past three decades. Rampant mining of iron ore has been taking place in Keonjhar, Mayurbhanj and Sundergarh areas, both legal and illegal. According to reports, more than 100 open cast iron ore mines covering over 60,000 ha of land are in operation and a large area is under illegal operation within Keonjhar forest division.[278]

Profile of Mining Companies

It is very difficult to provide details of companies operating or the area under operation as illegal mining is as much or more than legal mining. Even large companies operate through contractors, so it is difficult even for local communities to understand the ownership of the mines. The local leaders commented that there were 100–200 illegal mines and around 400 illegal crushers. Table 2.28 gives details of some existing mining companies in the region.

Keonjhar has the distinction of containing one of the oldest rocks of the world, approximately 38,000 million years old, covering an area of 100 sq km at Asanpat. At least 30 per cent of the total area is covered with dense forest having vast mineral resources. Almost 60 per cent of the area is covered by reserved forest and the rest is under the control of the Revenue Department. The total area under mining activities in the district is 312 sq km.

277. http://www.boloji.com/analysis2/0173.htm.
278. http://india.merinews.com/catFull.jsp?articleID=136864

Table 2.28: Details of some of the existing mining companies in the region

Sl no	Company/lease holder	Items of production	Location
1	M/S SAIL	Iron ore	Bolani
2	M/S Essel Mining & ind.	Iron ore, dolomite, limestone	Kasia
3	M/S BPMEL	Iron ore	Thakurani
4	Dr. Patnaik	Iron ore and manganese ore	Thakurani
5	SR Steel	Iron ore and manganese ore	Dobuna
6	Kalinga Sponge and Steel company		Dobuna
7	Ferro Manganese	Manganese ferro alloy	Joda
8	SR Steel	Iron ore	Bodokalimati

Source: Field visit July 2009; data of the above are mainly based on the opinion of the villagers and Lutheran World Service india (LWSI)

Demographic Profile of the Villages in the Area

As it is one of the *adivasi* dominated districts of the state, Keonjhor is home to Juangs and other *adivasi* communities especially the *Bhatudi*, *Gond*, *Mundas*, and *Santals*. According to the 2001 Census the total population of the district is 1,561,990 out of which the the ST population constitutes 44.5 per cent and the SC population is 11.62 per cent. Importantly, 75 per cent of the total population lives in the rural areas. Census 2001 shows that there are at least 46 *adivasi* communities in the district. Out of these 16 prominent tribes of the district constitute 96.12 per cent of the total *adivasi* population in the district. Table 2.29 gives village-wise data of sites visited in Keonjhar.[279]

The areas, which the researcher visited during the field trip, had majority ST and some SC families. Some of the data given below are based on the views of the villagers and it reflects the socio-economic and political situation of the villages, the price of displacement and the mining in these areas especially with respect to ecological imbalance, the issues concerning women and child labour in the mining areas.

Table 2.29: Village-wise data, Keonjhar

Sl no.	Name of the village	Total house-holds	Total Population	Sex-wise		Total population under 18 years	Sex-wise	
				Male	Female		Male	Female
1	Bolani	350	1,500	800	700	900	500	400
2	Kasia	350	2,000	950	1,050	1,100	550	600
3	Tanto	135	700	370	330	300	160	140
4	Thakurani	100	500	250	250	200	100	100
5	Dobuna	350	1,700	900	800	700	400	300
6	Bodokalimati	190–200	1,000–1,300	650	600	500	250	250
7	Joda	120	600–700	350	300	300	200	100

Source: Field visit July 2009; above data is in approximate figures and is mainly based on the opinion of villagers

279. Impact of Mining and Allied activities in Keonjhor and Mayurbhanj, LWSI, 2006.

Social Cost of Displacement

As seen in Salarapentha and Madrangajodi villages, those who lost land only received cash compensation ranging between Rs.2 and 10 lakhs, depending on the type of land lost. In most of the places the villagers complained that they received only between Rs.60,000 and Rs.70,000 as compensation. However, this compensation did not enable them to purchase new land and they have ended up as manual labour in the mines. Almost all of them are below the poverty line but many do not hold BPL cards or NREGA cards due to the negligence of the revenue officials in issuing cards to them.

Tikarapada village, having a population of 1,200, is one of the worst affected villages due to the mining activities in the area. Most of the villagers, who are STs, used to depend on agriculture and forestry as their main occupation. Almost all the families in this village lost their agricultural land for mining, and today they are forced to work as daily wage labour for the mining contractors. Their economic condition is deplorable because of which their children have dropped out of school and are also involved in mine labour activities. Displacement has forced many youth of the villages to shift to mine labour work. The influence of external migrant population like truck drivers (where about 60,000 trucks ply in the area each day), has led to social disturbance among the *adivasi* youth who were not vulnerable to addictions like alcohol, *gutka* and crimes like theft and pick-pocketing, prior to mining. This has changed the social cohesion of the *adivasi* communities in the young generation.

The village Salarapentha is situated in the heart of five big mine processing factories and crushers. The village has not only been badly affected by mining but has also not received any development facilities or basic amenities. Most of the villagers had sold their land to the mining companies at very low prices. The villagers expressed that they hardly got Rs. 1,500 per decimal of land. At least 80–100 acres of land of the villages are under the mining companies.

Madrangajodi village is situated in the hilly part of the district and has vast forest cover and mineral resources. Mining companies have acquired 20–30 acres of land from here and converted them into mine labour. However, the workers are paid only Rs.2,000 per month as salary after losing their lands. Thus, most of the local people who lost land were promised employment, but the situation is more or less similar to that of Madrangajodi village.

On one side, the socio-economic condition of the villagers is below the poverty line, but on the other side, government programmes like widow pensions, BPL cards or NREGA do not reach the community. Only 15–20 women are able to get the widow pension and a few families have BPL ration cards.

Another major problem of the village is alcohol. As mining companies are hand in glove with the police and excise personnel, they have many liquor shops in the area, thus making the community and workers vulnerable to alcohol. Here it was found that not only men, women and young girls are also addicted, due to the heavy work load in the mines.

Impact of Mining on Primary Education of Children in the Region: Implications on Child Labour

Following tables give population and other details of villages covered under the study, both from Census sources as well as from field interviews. The increase in population in the primary data could be due to the fact that it is almost 10 years since the census data was collected. The Census 2001 data, the school enrolment data from the DISE cards and the school drop out rates from primary data show that a considerable number of children are out of school and working in various forms of child labour. For example, in Bolani village there are 650–700 children under 18 years as per local communities but the school enrolment for this village is only 480, which implies that at least 100–150 children are out of school. Khasia has a minor population of 700 but the enrolment data only gives 143 children. There are only 78 children enrolled in Tanto village whereas, the under 18 population is around 250. As in other places, some children are also attending schools and working in the informal activities, part time. The census data shows that majority of the children are from ST communities, with the SC children being the next largest in number. Table 2.30 provides Census 2001 data and Table 2.31 gives primary data collected on population. Table 2.32 gives comparative information on primary data collected and DISE report card 2008.

Table 2.30: Village data from Census 2001, Keonjhar

Sl no.	Name of the village	Total households	Total Population	Sex-wise		Total population based on caste
				Male	Female	
1.	Bolani	305	1,562	811	751	SC-137, M-71, F-65, ST, M-591, F-576
2	Kasia	295	1,301	646	655	SC-207, M-124, F-83, ST-848, M-416, F-432
3	Tanto	115	535	276	259	SC, M-9, F-9 ST, M-238, F-229
4	Thakurani	61	318	162	156	ST-266, M-136, F-130
5	Dobuna	263	1,140	564	576	SC-289, M-121, F-168 ST-499, M-250, F-249
6	Bada Kalamati	163	663	346	317	SC-69, M-39, F-30, ST-435, M-221, F-214
7	Joda	90	433	228	205	SC-2, M-1, F-1, ST-312, M-156, F-156

Source: Census 2001

Table 2.31: Some tentative figures for population, Keonjhar

Sl no.	Name of the village	Total house-holds	Total Population	Sex-wise		Total population under 18 years	Sex-wise	
				Male	Female		Male	Female
1	Bolani	350	1,600	800	700	650–700	350	300
2	Kasia	350	1,700	950	1,050	700–750	450	300
3	Tanto	135	700	370	330	250	150	100
4	Thakurani	100	500	250	250	200	100	100
5	Dobuna	350	1,300–1,350	700	650	350	200	150
6	BadaKalamati	190-200	800–850	450	400	350	200	150
7	Joda	120	600–700	350	300	300	200	100

Source: Field visit July 2009; data of the above are mainly based on the opinion of the villagers and may be approximate figures

Mining activities have certainly had a serious negative impact on the education of the children, and the primary and secondary data available for this region substantiate this situation.

Table 2.32: Comparative village-wise school enrolment data and primary data , Joda block, Keonjha

District	Block	Village	Total enrolment	SC	ST	OBC	Others	Primary data
Keonjhar	Joda	Dabuna	366	88	179	99	21	300
		Badkalimati	234	51	143	40	2	250
		Thakurani	112	0	108	14	30	70
		Bolani	480	26	397	0	11	350
		Tanto	78	0	78	0	2	100
		Khasia	143	22	99	22	2	600*
		Joda						

Others=Repeaters, CWSN and Muslim

Note: Discrepencies in totals exist but the data is as given in the DISE report card

*There are two hamlets in Khasia. Primary data was taken from both hamlets together, but it is not clear whether the same was followed for DISE data.

Source: DISE report card 2008; primary data based on the opinion of the villagers and may be approximate figures.

Primary Level Information on Child Labour and School Drop-out in the Region

In every village, as given in Table 2.33 not less than 50 children are involved in daily wage labour activities. Although there are gaps between number of school drop-outs and number of child labourers, this could be because it also includes children below 6 years of age and some of the children may be staying at home, and not working on a regular basis. Table 2.33 gives information on child labour and school drop-outs in villages visited in Keonjhar.

Children working at roadside *dabha* near Khasia mining site, Keonjhar (Photo July 2009)

Table 2.33: Data on child labour and school drop-out, Keonjhar

Name of the village	Child labour in mining/ other sectors		School drop-outs
	Male	Female	
Bolani	150	100	150–200
Khasia	100	50	250–300
Tanto	50–100	50	Data not available
Thakurani	50	30	100
Dobuna	150–100	100	200
BadaKalamati	100	50	250
Joda	150	50	Data not available

Source: Interview with community leaders; primary data based on the opinion of the villagers are approximate figures.

Therefore, statistics clearly show that after mining activities have begun in the region, many children have dropped out of school and have been forced by economic compulsions, to work in the mines or as agricultural labour. Especially, as the mines are all around their villages, the access to daily wage labour, however low, creates a situation of compulsion for the children to work in the mines.

Tikarapada village has a primary school but there are atleast 40–50 children here who do not attend school. In some of the villages like Tanto, Bodokalimati, Kasia people said that although the primary school exists, it does not function

regularly, so the children go for mine labour work. In Thakurani people reported that there was no government school and therefore, the children are not going to school. In Salarapentha village there are at least 80 children below the age of 18 years who are under the curse of child labour as mining companies are located in the periphery of the village. There is not a single person from this village who has passed matriculation.

The school in Salarapentha is an example of the poor quality of education in this area. There is just a small room called a school building and the people reported that there is only one teacher posted here in the school. On the day of our visit only four children were present. According to the teacher at least 45 children are always irregular to the school as they have to work in the forest or in the mining activities due to the poor financial situation of their families. Table 2.34 gives enrolment figure for Salarpentha village.

The Rajabandha Primary School has children from Bhuinya Sahi, Santal Sahi and Janardhanpur villages were also enrolled here as it is the largest primary school in the area. The official document shows that there is no student drop out from the school but the headmistress of the school told us that according to her estimates at least 100 children of the surrounding villages were not attending school and that these children have to support their families in economic activities. The school has a shortage of teachers and the ratio between student and teachers is quite high. Table 2.35 gives information on enrolment for Rajabandha primary school for the year 2009-10.

Table 2.34: Enrolment for the year 2009-10, Salarpentha village

Class	Total strength	ST		SC		Other	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
I	19	4	1	0	0	7	7
II	40	0	0	0	0	18	22

Source: Primary School, Salarapentha, Keonjhor

Table 2.35: Enrolment in Rajabandha Primary School, 2009-10

Class	Total strength	Total		ST		SC		Others	
		Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl
I	52	34	18	30	15	4	2	0	1
II	48	20	28	17	25	3	3	0	0
III	44	24	20	19	17	3	2	2	1
IV	43	24	19	21	16	3	2	0	1
V	50	26	24	23	17	0	6	3	1
Total	237	128	109	110	90	13	15	5	4

Source: Rajabandha Primary School, Keonjhor

Rajabandha also has a low cost hostel for ST students. It is a residential facility but there are very few students enrolled here. Table 2.36 gives enrolment in low cost hostel in Rajabandha 2009-10.

Table 2.36: Enrolment in the low cost hostel, Rajabandha 2009-10

Class	Total strength		ST	
	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl
I	5	4	5	4
II	4	3	4	3
III	2	4	2	4
IV	5	7	5	7
V	4	2	4	2
Total	20	20	20	20

Source: Rajabandha primary school, Keonjhar

Anganwadis in the Area

Most of the *anganwadis* are poorly functioning and some of them are only mini-*anganwadis*. In Sarlapentha village, there are 59 children enrolled in the *anganwadi* centre, although only a small number attend regularly. Some of the infants are taken to the mine sites by their mothers as the *anganwadi* centre is closed for most part of the day. The *anganwadi* helper stated that atleast 30 children here are malnourished. A sample of the status of children's enrolment and nutrition can be seen in Janardhanpura *anganwadi* centre in Table 2.37 and Table 2.38. Table 2.39 gives the age group and total number of children in the Janardhanpur *anganwadi*.

Table 2.37: Enrollment in the *anganwadi* centre 2009-10, Janardhanpur

Category of the children	Total children	Boy	Girl
ST	48	25	23
SC	2	0	2
General	0	0	0

Source: *Anganwadi* centre, Janardhanpur

Table 2.38: Nutritional status of children in Janardahnpur *anganwadi* 2009-10

Grade	Total children
Grade I	31
Grade II	3–5
Grade III	10–12
Grade IV	02

Source: *Anganwadi* centre, Janardhanpur

Table 2.39: Age group of the children in Janardhanpur *anganwadi* 2009-10

Age group	Total no. of children
0–6 month	7
6 month–3 years	24
3–6 year	19

Source: *Anganwadi* centre, Janardhanpur

The reasons for this skewed status of children in the area, whether there is mining or no mining, is because of the feudal nature of the economic situation where most of the families are landless agricultural or mining labour while a small minority is in control of the majority land.

Impacts of Mining on the Environment and Implications on Health of the Community and Children

It was very evident that there was serious air and water pollution in the entire belt of Joda and Barbil. Environmental degradation is perceptible through the reduced forest cover as forests have been cut down, both legally and illegally, for the purpose of mining. In a day, atleast 60,000 trucks run through

Iron ore being loaded in Badakalamati area, Keonjhar
(Photo July 2009)

the Joda and Barbil region with loaded ore, to different parts of the state, leading to severe dust pollution, apart from social problems. The main rivers of this region, Baitarani and Brahmani, are highly polluted and have reduced flow. There is no safe drinking water for the villages in this region as the water sources and canals are contaminated by the pollution from the companies. Almost all the villages visited complained of water pollution and the indiscriminate dumping of mine waste into the water bodies. The companies sometimes supply water when the communities protest, but this is very rare.

The most common diseases in the Joda area are waterborne diseases. In most of the areas visited it was reported that incidence of malaria is very high. The local communities reported that occupational hazards like TB and skin diseases are very common among the people working in the mines, particularly near Joda. The area lacks health care facilities both for workers and the communities. Many of the workers reported that cases of cough, cold and respiratory problems are high in the region. Most of the villages complained that they had no access to medical facilities.

Khasia village has no health services and has severe health problems like TB, malaria, malnourishment and several waterborne diseases. They have to go to the nearest town Barbil, for any medical help. In Bolani and Badakalimati villages, people also reported several cases of HIV/AIDS and STD. In Dobuna village people complained of skin diseases and heart problems apart from the above mentioned diseases. Tanto is one of the most polluted mining villages where people are suffering from all the above mentioned illnesses. Recently 12 people from the village of Madrangajodi were reported to have died due to TB and the villagers reported that 12–15 others are undergoing treatment for TB.

Opening Up Greenfield Areas to Mining in Keonjhar

The state government has not taken any action on the serious legal and human rights violations that have been constantly brought to the focus by media and NGOs. Yet, in a region saturated by mining, more projects are in the pipeline. Without proper assessment of the impacts on the area and especially on the women and children and the *adivasi* population here, the government has proposed to exploit fresh villages for mining. Some of the proposed areas are remote *adivasi* villages, which have very fertile lands where people have reported that three crops are harvested annually. These are villages where the local governance machinery is barely functional and the social and economic security of these communities is dependent on their own traditional livelihood and resources.

Keonjhar is a traditional feudal agricultural belt where majority of the people depend on agricultural labour and cultivation of food crops. The imminent threat to the children from the proposed mining is the danger to their food security and the shift from these proposed villages to mine labour work as is seen in the other mining impacted villages in the district. Almost all the land proposed to be acquired is either rich agricultural land with paddy cultivation or forest land rich in non-timber forest produce. In eight of the nine wards in Janardhanpur, the villagers are agitating against Sterlite, of the Vedanta group, which plans to acquire their lands. Table 2.40 gives information

Table 2.40: Land to be acquired for M/s Sterlite Iron and Steel Limited

Name of village	Total families	Land to be acquired/ percentage	No. of families proposed to be displaced
Tikarapada	370	600 acres/33	84
Mahadeijoda	383	270 acres/13	Data not available
Siliguan	393	73 acres/25	16
Singhraisuan	15+ lower santal	124 acres/99	Data not available
Kadagarh	282	440 acres/40	16
Gopinathpur	245	124 acres/31	16
Janardhanpur	271	248 acres/35	Data not available
Dhatika	65	220 acres/91	29
Narasinghpur	83	55 acres/24	Data not available

Source: Village head, Rajabandha (figures are approximate based on people's statements)

on land to be acquired in some of the villages by M/s Sterlite Iron and Steel Limited, part of the United Kingdom based Vedanta group.

This is but one company that will acquire lands for iron ore mining. There are several others acquiring land legally and illegally for mining activities.

Conclusions

Mining in Keonjhar has completely destroyed the agriculture and forestry of the *adivasi* people. Keonjhar has been reported widely for mining impacts on the local community as well as children, especially on the impact of thousands of trucks that dominate the life and disturb the social fabric of the district. Yet, new mining projects are being planned with large areas proposed to be acquired. In most cases, there is no technical validity of acquiring such vast areas of land either for extraction or for processing. Neither are the companies having clear and technically sound designs for the proposed projects, with mine planning projections of each mine site. As clearances can be obtained in India without serious scrutiny of mine plans or social or disaster management plans, given the dysfunctional nature of the Ministry of Environment and Forests, mining companies are greedy for more and more land. Whether they will mine in their lease areas or simply gain control over land is a question that is yet to be answered. The overzealous approach to handing out land for mining projects has to be seriously questioned, when it has led to considerable levels of malnutrition and school drop-out among the children in Keonjhar who are now forced to work as mine labour. This is no indicator of a progressive economy when the status of children degenerates from their earlier living conditions.

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Abuse of Children in the Media by Mining Companies:

Enter Bhubaneswar and one is swarmed by the billboards of mining companies-blinding one with their aggressive media campaign on how happy they are making the people, particularly the children of this state. Education, sports, good health, happy families, sound livelihoods, joyous celebrations-the messages are bold but largely deceptive. Using children in advertisements, especially where the affected children are, in reality, malnourished, out of school, homeless, starving, and working in the mines or elsewhere due to poverty induced by mining– is a serious indirect abuse of children's rights. Such public image building through misuse of children should be strongly condemned.

Andhra Pradesh

State Overview

The total population of Andhra Pradesh in 2001 was 76,210,007 of which almost 70 per cent live in rural area. Of the total population 5,024,104 constitute STs and 12,339,496 are from the SC community.[280] In terms of economic growth in comparison to all India and the other states, it is seen that the GSDP growth rate for Andhra Pradesh also rose beyond the earlier low rates during the last two and half decades. The growth rate of Andhra Pradesh was lower than the all-India rate but has been catching up with time. The average growth rate was 8.7 per cent during 2004-08. Presently, for the year 2007-08, the annual average growth in Andhra Pradesh is higher than the all-India average.[281]

Andhra Pradesh was among the very few states in the country, which experienced the Green Revolution, especially in respect of rice, in the 1970s. Agriculture plays an important role in the economy of the state. The share of agriculture is higher in employment and GSDP is higher when compared to all other states.[282] The contribution of the non-agricultural sector to the total GSDP has been increasing continuously over a period in the state as well as all-India. It has increased from 50 per cent in the 1960s to 79 per cent in 2005-06.[283]

According to recent NSSO (2004-05), it is estimated that around half the population of Andhra Pradesh is reportedly working. Andhra Pradesh was the second highest among the Indian states in agricultural services, with 62.3 per cent of state population engaged in agricultural work[284]. Andhra Pradesh provides maximum employment in rural sector (13.14 per cent of total number of employed)[285] IT is the fastest growing component in the service sector. At present, Andhra Pradesh is ranked fourth in software exports after Karnataka, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. The state capital Hyderabad is the major destination for IT companies[286]. Andhra Pradesh has substantial number of migrant population. According to census 2001, about 2.3 crore people, in the state, are migrants.

Andhra Pradesh remains one of the three least literate states of India. Total literacy rate of Andhra Pradesh is 60.47 per cent. By gender, 70.32 per cent of men and 50.43 per cent of women are literate. Literacy rate among rural women is very low, only 43.5 per cent of rural women are literate. Women's literacy among SC and STs is especially low at 43.4 per cent and 34.8 per cent respectively. Sex ratio of Andhra Pradesh is 978 females to 1,000 males.

Vital rates, including infant and perinatal mortality rates remain high across the state when compared to other southern states, particularly in rural areas. Malnutrition, anaemia and the growing number of HIV infections continue to represent major public health challenges in the state. Malaria is considered as a major challenge. It is estimated that around 160,000 people are also suffering

280 Census of India
281 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007
282 Ibid
283 Ibid
284 Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2002-03, Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Planning Department, Govt. of Maharashtra
285 The Financial Express, URL http://www.financialexpress.com/printer/news/316250/
286 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007

from TB in the state and the state accounts for 10 per cent of the TB related deaths in the country.[287]

HIV infection across Andhra Pradesh is also extremely high as it is estimated that the state accounts for around 22 per cent of the HIV positive persons in India. According to the estimates given by National AIDS Control Organisation (NACO), of the total number of 103,857 AIDS cases reported in the country till 31 July 2005, as many as 11,280 cases, accounting for nearly 11 per cent, are from Andhra Pradesh and so far, the state has recorded 739 AIDS related deaths.[288]

Nearly 39.91 per cent families in the state are below the poverty line, which is better than the all India average of 41.23 per cent[289]. On the other hand alternative estimates made by independent researchers show that the poverty rate in the state is closer to the all India pattern i.e. 26 per cent in rural areas and 12 per cent in urban areas[290]. The Sachar Committee Report 2006 provides different levels of poverty for different groups. In their estimates SCs/STs together are the most poor.

Status of Children

According to Census 2001 there were 17,713,764 children aged 14 years and under and 25,293,728 in the age group of 5-19 years, in Andhra Pradesh. Official statistics give the gross drop-out rate of the state as 43.03 per cent—42.62 per cent for boys and 43.46 per cent for girls. The government statistics of Andhra Pradesh reveal that close to a million children in the age group 6–14 years are out of school[291]. According to the estimation of Pratham's ASER 2008 survey, 3.4 per cent children of the same age group are out of school and around 12.1 per cent children between 3 and 4 years of age are not enrolled in any *anganwadi* centre or pre-school.[292]

According to the Census 2001, there were 1,363,339 children aged between 5 and 14 and 4,504,471 children aged between 5 and 19 years working as child labour in Andhra Pradesh. Census report also shows that 11,660 children aged between 5 and 14 years and 37,586 children between 5 and 19 years are working only in the mining and quarrying sector and 7,760 children are working in hazardous occupation[293]. In Andhra Pradesh the total number of children covered under NCLP is 50,921.[294]

IMR of the state in 2005-06 was estimated at 54 per 1,000 live births and the under five mortality is 63 per 1,000 live births. Infant mortality in rural areas of Andhra Pradesh is almost double that in urban area. In the first year of life, girls in Andhra Pradesh face a lower risk of mortality than boys; but between the age of one and five, girls have a slightly higher mortality rate.[295]

Malnutrition is a huge problem in the state as almost half of the children show signs of prolonged malnourishment; 43 per cent of children under the age of 5 years are stunted. Children in rural areas are more likely to be undernourished and in the case of girls the likelihood of undernourishment is relatively higher than that of boys.[296] High rate of malnutrition has also been seen among the children of migrant labours. Most of the children of the migrant labours are underweight and have spots on their faces.[297] In Andhra Pradesh prevalence of anaemia among the age group of 6–15 months is very high (more than 70 per cent).[298]

Andhra Pradesh has a very high rate of child trafficking and accounts for 40 per cent of the total cases. 26 per cent of women or girls enter into the trade between the ages of 14–16 years, 20 per cent between the age of 16–18 years and 16 per cent before the age of 14.[299]

287 http://www.whoindia.org/en/section3/section123.htm
288 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007
289 Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question no. 2688, dated 8.8.2001
290 Deaton (2000, 2001) estimates unit prices for different states for the years 1987-88, 1993-94 and 1999-00 using the NSS data.
291 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007
292 Pratham's ASER 2008 survey
293 Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question no. 2691, dated 9.8.2000
294 Annual report 2001-02, Ministry of Labour, Govt of India
295 NFHS-3
296 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007
297 The Hindu, Andhra Pradesh, Monday 16 November 2009
298 NFHS-3
299 Human Development Report Andhra Pradesh 2007

Mining in Andhra Pradesh

Almost all the important minerals are produced in Andhra Pradesh. These include coal, limestone, barytes, dolomite, felspar, iron ore, manganese ore, silica sand, ball clay, laterite and mica (crude).[300]

Youth help in loading activities at the quarry sites

Andhra Pradesh is heavily mined as it claims the third position among the states in the country with a contribution of 9.1 per cent to the total value of the mineral production. The number of recorded mines appears to be fluctuating over the years—415 mines in 2006-07, 372 in 2007-08 and 406 in 2008-09[301]. However, the actual number of mines is likely to be significantly higher as illegal mining is endemic across the state. Between 2006 and June 2009 alone the Ministry of Mines has recorded 411 instances of illegal mining. Illegal mining is not limited to the iron ore industry in the Anantapur district but appears to be a common practice in several other districts of the state[302].

There is no exact estimate on the entire area under mining or for the total amount of forest land diverted for mining in the state, but it is estimated that 206,250 ha are currently under mining and that between 1980 and 2008, 18,178.55 ha of forest land was diverted for mining[303].

In 2004-05 alone Andhra Pradesh produced about Rs. 6,200 crore worth of minerals, accounting for about 8 per cent of the total value of minerals produced in the country. The value of minerals has increased significantly over the last two decades and the value of mineral production across the state at Rs.9,841 crores in 2007-08 was higher by about 14 per cent compared to the previous year[304].

Despite huge profits generated by the mining industry, the contribution of mining to the state's revenue remains little as the state collected about 864 crore as royalty from minerals in 2004-05 which accounted for only 3 per cent of total revenue receipts in the state. Half a million people are estimated to be employed in the mining sector, a number that is likely to be much higher if we consider workers employed in the numerous illegal mining sites[305].

Visakhapatnam district: Key facts	
Total population:	3,832,336 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	850, 611 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 60 per cent Male 69.68 per cent Female 50.12 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	3.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	98.3 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	51,536 (Census of India 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	153 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

300 Ministry of Mines: Annual Report 2008-09

301 Ibid

302 http://www.expressbuzz.com/edition/story.aspx?Title=Andhra+tops+list+in+illegal+mining&artid=YUcRSNuCQA0=&SectionID=e7uPP4%7CpSiw=&MainSectionID=e7uPP4%7CpSiw=&SectionName=EH8HilNJ2uYAot5nzqumeA==&SEO=illegal%20mining,%20andhra,%20OMC,%20janardhan%20reddy,

303 Centre for Science and Environment, "Rich Land Poor People: Is Sustainable Mining Possible?" and Forest Land Diverted for Mining by Ministry of Environment and Forests (MOEF) in India (25.10.1980 to 30.09.2008)

304 Ministry of Mines: Annual Report 2008-09

305 Centre for Science and Environment, "Rich Land Poor People: Is Sustainable Mining Possible?"

Cuddapah district: Key facts	
Total population:	1,283,704 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	285,324 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 63 per cent Male 75.83 per cent Female 49.54 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	2.1 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	86.6 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	312,391 (Census of India 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	92 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Chittoor district: Key facts	
Total population:	3,745,875 (Census 2001)
Population (0–14 years):	791, 554 (Census 2001)
Literacy rate:	Total 67 per cent Male 77.62 per cent Female 55.76 per cent (Census 2001)
Percentage of out-of-school children (6–14 years):	1.9 per cent (ASER 2008)
Percentage of children enrolled in AWC or pre-school (3–4 years):	84.9 per cent (ASER 2008)
Number of child labour (5–14 years):	46, 841 (Census of India 2001)
Under five mortality rate (ranking):	79 out of 593 districts surveyed *(Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh)*

Children in Stone Quarries

Nirmala, from Vaddi community in Chittoor district, is 9 years old and had to drop out of school while studying class IV. Both her parents were quarry workers. Her mother died due to TB and her father is too ill to earn a living. The family is now dependent on the son who is 16 years old and a daughter who is 15. The family also has to take care of the grandparents who are above 80 years of age. While the two older children work in the stone factory and quarry, Nirmala and her younger brother, had to drop out of school to take care of their father and grandparents and to take responsibility for cooking and other domestic work.

Source: Interview with family in T. Vadduru village, Palamaneru, June 2009

Teenager working in the quarry for the last few years

Minor minerals have a major role in the mining activities in Andhra Pradesh. The state has both major minerals like coal, bauxite, limestone and manganese. Particularly coal and bauxite are primarily in the *adivasi* belt in the northern and northeastern regions of the state while most of the minor minerals and quarries are found in the southern region of Rayalaseema in Andhra Pradesh. Due to the location of these quarries, the Rayalaseema region also has a number of cement factories.

This study was undertaken as three micro level studies in Cuddapah, Chittoor and Visakhapatnam districts in very

small areas where there are quarries, stone crushers and traditional small-scale mining taking place in scattered numbers. This study was undertaken by three local organisations who are working with the unorganised sector workers and communities in these regions as part of their larger community development work. In Cuddapah and Chittoor districts the areas covered under the study have witnessed mining activities for a long time now and where the mining economy and power decides the political power in the region. The area chosen in Visakhapatnam gives information about the increase in new quarries being dug up in order to provide construction material for the expanding urbanisation and housing that is happening all over India, causing a threat to agriculture and traditional land use. In all these instances, mining has serious impacts on children and the disintegration of support institutions for children is visible in this changing shift towards migrant labour and the increasing problems among communities traditionally involved in stone-breaking and quarrying. These studies look at the conditions in which children are being forced into the mine labour activities and the status of the institutional structures for children.

Case Study: Cuddapah District

In Cuddapah district alone there are about 25 different types of minerals extracted. Barytes, asbestos, soapstone and uranium deposits are found abundantly in Pulivendula. Also found are yellow ochre, white ochre, shale, dolomite, laterite, calcite, iron ore, black stone and sulphur. The study identified 10 large quarry companies working here that included Krishanappa Barytes, Rangarajya Minerals, Gandhi Company, Caltex, PVS Mines, IBE Sivaganga, Pratap Redday Mines, YS Mines, Tiffin Mines, Blue Diamond and other several small mines which are spread across the district. While a few mines only follow safety and labour regulations, many are reported to flout laws and also have illegal mines. Apart from these companies three large cement factories are also operating in this area.

The study was conducted covering 201 families involved in mining activities in Cuddapah district. Among these families, majority of the population belonged to the ST, SC or OBC communities. The quarries surveyed are 2 to 3 km from the mandal headquarters. Table 2.41 gives details of families surveyed in Cuddapah district.

In order to avoid problems of labour, most of the companies have shifted to heavy machinery and crushers and therefore, mining has become almost mechanised now. The few workers who are employed are migrant labour brought from far off places by the contractors. Small groups of workers belonging to SC, ST and Vaddera (stone-breaking caste) communities are brought by the contractors by paying them an advance, and made to live in makeshift tents. This is similar to bonded labour as the workers are completely at the mercy of the companies, having taken the advance. They work at different shifts all through the day and night, depending on the load of work.

Table 2.41: Details of quarry workers' families and their children, Cuddapah

Mandal name	No. of quarries	No. of families	Caste	Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Total population
Chakrayapeta	2	18	BC	18	18	7	9	52
Gaaliveedu	4	26	BC, SC	26	29	27	35	117
Lakkireddypalle	2	17	BC	19	23	14	13	69
Rayachoti	2	14	BC	16	19	10	10	55
Chinnamandem	1	9	BC	14	13	7	6	40
Sambepalle	2	21	BC, SC	22	24	8	8	62
Ramapuram	3	28	BC, SC	31	35	11	13	90
Chundupalle	1	11	BC, SC	12	11	5	4	32
Porumamilla	3	14	SC	17	19	8	5	49
Chinthakommadhine	1	28	SC, BC, ST	28	18	23	30	99
Badhwelu	2	15	BC	15	22	9	7	53
Total	23	201		218	231	129	140	718

Source: Survey done by VRDS in October 2009

Problems of Mine Workers' Children

Since enitre families are brought to the mine site by the contractors, both adults and children work in the quarries. Both the husband and wife are working in the quarry the whole day and have no opportunity to take care of their children. Children grow up in the quarries and are therefore, exposed to the heavy dust pollution from the mines and crushers. They are vulnerable to mine accidents, blasting, and to noise pollution. In most of the quarries, the mothers complained how the children find it difficult to sleep at night due to the deafening noise from the crushers that are continuously operating.

Child Labour and Education

Children start working alongside their parents from the age of 7 years and get Rs.150 per day. Of the 269 children covered in this survey, it was found that only 53 were enrolled in school. However, the survey has limitations in data as the age group covered in this survey are less than 14 years of age. Majority of children who work in the mines are in the age group of 14–18 and these children were not included. Small girls as young as 6 and 7 years were also found working in stone quarries. The women stated that, by the age of 12 or13 years the girls are married off by their fathers who select the sons-in-law depending on the amount of liquor provided to him. Therefore, young girls are completely bonded to mine labour from a very young age in this region.

As the workers are from migrant families and the quarries are located outside a village or town, the children have no access to schools or *anganwadis*. The temporary nature of the work also discourages the parents from finding a school for their children, apart from the financial need to have extra help at work from their children. Except for Galiveedu and Chintakommadine, the other quarry sites have an average of 20 children of different ages, and neither the institutional structures of *anganwadis* nor primary schools exist for them. None of these places were found to have NCLP schools as they are scattered in numbers. Some of the children are enrolled in their native villages, but as they are migrants, they do not attend the school for long durations.

Social Problems that Aggravate the Situation of Children

Mining being a hazardous activity, which requires heavy physical labour, most of the workers are addicted to drugs and alcohol. Discussions with the workers and particularly with the women provided the study with the following information. The mine owners escape from responsibility towards the workers and their families on the pretext that most of the wages are spent on liquor and drugs, and hence the poverty of the mine workers is because of their social habits. The migrant nature of work combined with the highly stressful conditions, also lures the workers into other addictions like gambling. In the quarry sites surveyed in Cuddapah, the most serious problem stated at every place, was the addiction to 'mutka'-gambling, which is a highly organised racket with several political power structures reported to be illegally involved in promoting this. Therefore, because of mutka and alcohol, domestic violence and abuse on women is very high among the quarry workers, also because the men do not have the social checks and balances as in a village community. Children are continuously exposed to these social abuses and live in an environment that is insecure, both socially and physically.

TB and/or silicosis are the main health problems that were expressed by most of the mine workers. They complained that they become incapable of performing any tasks after 10–12 years of working in the mines and most of their life is spent in ill-health and medical expenses. In the area surveyed, 6–8 cases of HIV positive cases were reported among the mine workers in Vaddepalli and Elagallu quarries and three cases were identified in Devipatla quarry.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The study in Cuddapah district was carried out by Mr. Vijaykumar of Vennella Rural Development Society (VRDS) as a part of the current study and his contribution to the same is acknowledged.)

Case Study: Visakhapatnam District

The quarries studied here are small-scale and between 6 and 20 years old. Anakapalli Mandal in Visakhapatnam district is a rich agricultural and industrial belt, close to the national highway. The quarries operated here are by local contractors and politicians who take hills on lease all around the agricultural lands and supply the stone to local stone crushers. The work in the quarries is mostly dependent on migrant labour who come from the surrounding north coastal districts of Andhra Pradesh, either seasonally or for a few years at a time. However, some families have settled down here for the last 10–20 years and continue to work in the quarries or maintain lorries and trucks. There are many

other families also working in these quarries, but they are more seasonal in their migratory pattern. The quarry workers are mainly from Scheduled, backward and other backward castes who are landless and do not have alternate employment.

Child Labour

Child labour is both visible and invisible here because some of the children go to school and are enrolled, but they also work in the quarries. In Vetajagalapalem there are 13 children who are working in the quarries whose parents are all quarry workers or ply autorickshaws. Here most of the families have members who are also lorry drivers and ply lorries for carrying the loads to the stone crushers. All the children surveyed here said that they had to drop out of school, fully or partially, because of financial problems, death of their parents or indebtedness. They earn between Rs.300 and Rs.1,700 per month and work for 5–8 hours a day, depending on the work available. The children complained that they suffer from joint pains, stomach pain, weakness, headache, skin diseases and fevers. In the second site at Vetajangalapalem quarry colony there were 11 children identified as working in the quarries breaking stones. In the SC colony of the same village, 16 children in the age group of 14–18 years were found to be working in the quarries for the last 2 years. Some of them were earning up to Rs.3,000 per month. In Rongalavanipalem, there were 43 child labourers in the quarries, working as a stone crushers and truck cleaners. Here four children have completely dropped out of school. In Kundram, village of SC residents, 22 children said they work in the quarries, in loading, in stone-breaking and in truck cleaning activities. Those who work in the trucks said they work continuously, 24 hours a day and there are no fixed timings, while the other children work for 5–10 hours a day. Some of the children started working after the death of a parent. In the second Kundrum colony 18 children were found working since the last 2 years. In Kunchangi village, 16 children were working and in Kunchangi quarry colony, 10 children. Some of them less than 13 years of age, were working after they lost one of

Table 2.42: Details of quarry workers' children in eight survey sites, Visakhapatnam

Village	*Panchayat*	No. of children working in quarries	Age of child labourers	Whether attending school	Class	Reasons for working	Type of work	Working since
Veta Jangala Palem	Jangala Palem	13	13– 18 years	Yes	On average Class VII–VIII	Poverty	Stone crushing, loading, truck cleaners	6 months -3 years
Rongalavani Palem	Rongalavani Palem	43	12–18 years	39 attending school; 4 drop-outs	Primary level to college	Poverty, parents illness and death of parent	Truck cleaners, stone crushing, loading work, carpentry, cycle shop	Average 2 years
Veta Jangala Palem SC colony	Jangala Palem	16	14– 18 years	Yes	Class IV–X, one ITI	Poverty	Labour work, stone crushing	Average 1-2 years
Veta Jangala Palem quarry colony	Jangala Palem	11	15– 18 years	Yes	Class IX–X	Poverty, Death of parents	Labour work, stone crushing	Average 1-4 years
Kundram SC Colony	Kundram	22	12– 18 years	Yes	High school	Poverty, Death of parents	Stone crushing, loading work, lorry cleaning, agriculture labour	Average 3-7 years
Kundram	Kundram	18	13 to 18 years	Yes	On average till class IX–X	Poverty, parents' illness, death of parents	Labour work, stone crushing, electrician tea stalls	Average 2 years
Kunchangi	Kunchangi	16	13– 18 years	Yes	High school	Poverty, Death of parents	Labour work, stone crushing, agricultural work	
Kunchangi quarry camp	Kunchangi	10	12–18 years	Yes	On average till class VII	Poverty, Illness of parents	Lorry cleaning and labour work	Average 1 years

Source: Baseline survey done by SGVS, Visakhapatnam, 2009

their parents and were driven by poverty to take up work in the quarries. Almost in all the places, the children said they had similar health problems such as headache, fevers, body pains and weakness of limbs due to the heavy work of stone-breaking. Very few of the childrens have reached college level education as they are unable to concentrate on their studies while also doing such strenuous labour activities to support their families.

There is not a single NCLP school in the surrounding area the eight villages/quarry colonies; even though, almost 150 children are in the stone-breaking activities. Table 2.42 gives details of quarry workers children in the eight sites surveyed in Visakhapatnam district.

Social Impacts

Although the violence and social disturbance is not of the king, as witnessed in large- scale mines or mining regions, there is a clear impact on the education and health of the children. Not only quarry workers put also local farmers are negatively affected as this is a rich agricultural belt. Due to dust pollution from the quarries and crushers, there is a perceptible impact on the crop yields. The farmers are complaining that agriculture is becoming unviable for them and that the marginal farmers are becoming daily labourers in the quarries. Hence, there is a visible impact on the local livelihood of the farmers.

Education is most affected as seen in the Table 2.42. The mine labour work and the constant fevers and physical ill-health have resulted in many children dropping out of school. Dust pollution has created health problems for children of the surrounding villages. The villagers complain that children suffer from cough, cold and bronchial infections.

Stray cases of accidents by lorries carrying stones, have been reported in the area, but the quarry owners do not take responsibility for major accidents. Minor treatment or first aid was given at the local PHCs when such accidents occurred in the past.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The survey in Visakhapatnam district was undertaken by Society for Grama Vikasa Saradhy (SGVS) on behalf of the current study and as part of their activities with the quarry workers in the area of their work. We acknowledge the work of SGVS and its Secretary, Ms. K. Prabhavati who has conducted this survey with her team and shared the findings with us for preparing the Andhra Pradesh state report.)

Case Study: Chittoor District

Demographic Profile of the Region

A brief survey on the quarry workers' children was undertaken in three mandals of Chittoor district in Andhra Pradesh, by Mitra Association for Social Services (MASS), which is based in Palamaner. Palamaner mandal is situated on the borders of the states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka and consists of 16 panchayats and 96 habitations. Baireddipalli mandal is situated in the borders of Karnataka state which consists of 24 panchayats and 102 habitations. Peddapanjani mandal is situated in the border of Karnataka state and consists of 22 panchayats and 302 habitations. This area was selected because of the presence of clusters of traditional stone-breaking communities and because of the work of MASS with these communities.

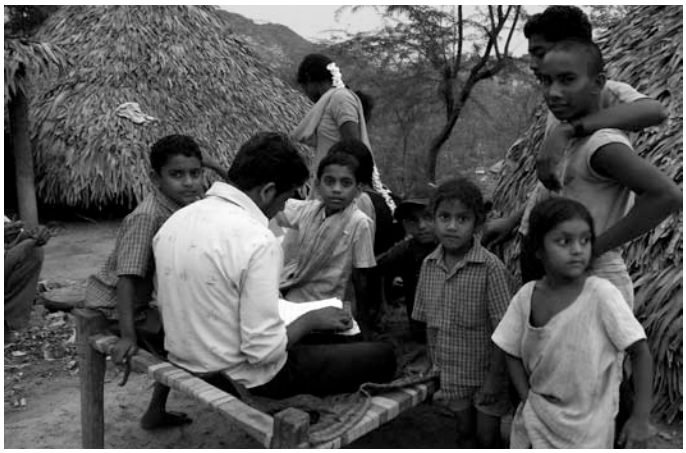
A mine worker's child who dropped out of school to support her family (Photo July 2009)

Socio-economic Status of the Quarry Workers

- The quarry workers mainly belong to the *Vaddi/Vaddera* (stone-breaking caste) community and some of them belong to the SC community.
- Majority of the quarry workers are landless and depend on stone-breaking as their main source of livelihood. Some of them are marginal farmers but cultivate only seasonally, as they have only 1–2 acres of dry-land, and therefore, depend on the monsoons.
- When they do not have sufficient quarry work, they migrate to nearby cities like Bengaluru, Chennai and surrounding towns to work in the brick-making factories.

Nature of Quarry Work

Traditionally, being born in the *Vaddi* community implies that they have to continue the occupation of stone-breaking and working in quarries. Literacy levels, among the adults, are very poor–less than 25 per cent as per the survey of MASS and as most of them are landless. Stone breaking is the only occupation they are mainly involved in. Stone breaking is like self-employment within the unorganised sector. They are completely dependent on the contractors to supply them with raw material. The contractors bring the stones by trucks, to their village and dump them near the houses of the *Vaddis*. The *Vaddi* community works in informal groups of one or multiple families and purchase the raw material from the contractor. Again the workers are dependent on the middle-men who give loans or advances to purchase the raw material and charge a high rate of interest from the workers.



Children of mine workers–some work in the quarries and also attend school (photo July 2009)

When the study team visited these villages, the women workers reported that they purchase a truckload for around Rs.600 and 6–7 persons work together to break the stones. It takes them a week to break a truckload of stones, for which they get Rs 1,500. This is shared by all the individuals who work in the group. This includes mostly women and children, particularly girls who work along with their mothers. The age group of the children working in the quarry activity is between 6 and 16 years. They earn, on an average, Rs.30–35 per day breaking the stones. The contractors return to the village to collect the load again and this is supplied to the highways which are close to these villages and to the real estate industry. The workers say that there is an increasing demand for stone as the construction activities around the Bengaluru-Chennai region are rising at a fast pace. The men take up heavy work of making foundation stones and selling each for Rs.5 or they work in the stone factories as daily wage labour where they earn Rs.150 per day. A large section of male youth is also involved in this work.

Life of the Quarry Workers' Children: Child Labour and Education

Poverty is the most dominating aspect in these children's lives. Starved, yet working to make the day's earning is the typical day of a child worker. As the work is mainly done just outside the house, the children are pushed into this occupation right from childhood. The economic situation being always on the brink of starvation, most children do not attend school or drop out whenever the family situation demands their time for stone-breaking activity. Adding to the family poverty is the poor functioning of the education system in the rural areas because of which, children do not have motivation to go to school. When the study team visited these villages, we found several children participating in the women's group meetings. When questioned about the reasons for the children not attending school, the women stated that, although they tried to force their children to go to school, they keep dropping out because they do not find it interesting.

Therefore, we found a lot of anguish among the women who stated that they wanted their children to study so that they could prevent them from entering the stone-breaking occupation. But the children find the allurement of earning a daily wage very hard to resist, as it gives them a purchasing capacity at a young age. The women also mentioned that while the girls normally give their majority earnings to their mothers, the boys learn from a young age to fritter away some of their money. The older boys' who earn larger amounts, start getting addicted to liquor and gutka.

We saw primary schools in these villages and also saw the efforts of the local organisation MASS, which had earlier run NCLP schools here but found it frustrating both with respect to motivating the children as with respect to well as the government to take education seriously. This is a clear failure of the education system in the country which does not impart quality education to the child, who prefers to work hard in the hot sun breaking stones, than to study under the roof of a school. It is a reflection on rural education in India as we found similar problems being expressed by poor parents in Karnataka and Rajasthan also, where they do not

want to see their children sucked into the bondage of mine labour but are unable to convince their children to go to school. Only a few children were found to be going to the high school from these communities, but as the distance to the high school is far, this number is very small.

Health Problems

The study team also found that there were many widows among the mine workers—35 in Kothaindlu, 26 in G. Koturu, 12 in Sallavaripalli and nine in Gadduru. Around 203 women quarry workers, of the 1,321 women surveyed, are widows who have lost their husbands either to ill-health like TB or because of quarry accidents. This was one of the reasons for children, especially girls dropping out of school and being forced to help their mothers to make a living. The average age of the widows did not appear to be more than 35 years reflecting the short life span of a mine worker and the occupational illnesses that either cause high mortality or prolonged illnesses that sap their daily earnings, pushing children into mine labour at a younger age.

Table 2.43 shows that, among the 1,248 children, 210 are working as stone quarry labourers and 544 children are not attending school in study villages in Chittoor district. The survey covered seven villages and among these villages most of the families are working in stone quarries. The total population of children studied was up to the age of 18 but the age of children attending school is only up to 14 years. Hence the age group 14–18 years not attending school has not been covered under this survey. There was not a single NCLP school found in this area even though children were found to be working in mining and non-mining activities.

Mine accidents are also rampant in these areas. Around 50 per cent of the children living in these villages, are not going to school.

The children from the *Vaddi* community and some of the *dalit* families are prone to several kinds of health problems, due to the hazardous and strenuous work from which there is no relief. Right from birth, the children are anaemic. The women said that they cannot feed the children with proper diet and therefore, the children are malnourished. They were found to be mainly suffering from anaemia, skin problems, malnutrition, body pains and respiratory problems. The women did not report to vaccinating their children except for polio drops. The habitations do not have proper sanitation. The *Vaddi* communities are usually located on the fringes of the villages with small crowded semi-pucca houses, without toilets, electricity or drinking water. Only some of the houses seemed to have electricity connection. Single mothers lived in poor huts or sheds. There did not appear to be any sewage facility because of which sanitation is poor and malaria is rampant.

Women's health is of grave concern as they were found to be anaemic, malnourished, and the women said that due to frequent child-bearing and miscarriages (which were said to be common), they find it difficult to cope with the strain of breaking the stones. Among adults, both men and women, TB is a major health problem, and especially, the mortality rate of men because of TB is very high. Added to this, the women here are forced into unsafe sexual practices, both due to being widows and being seasonal migrants, and they suffer from the problems of STD and respiratory tract illnesses.

Table 2.43: Details of quarry workers' children in Palamaneru area, Chittoor

Village	Kothaindlu	T.Vadduru	G.Koturu	Sallavaripalli	Gadduru	P.Vadduru	Obulapuram
Total children's population in village (0–18 years)	205	333	126	104	109	122	121
Number of children working in mining activity	12	70	35	40	19	21	13
No. of children attending school (up to 14 years)	138	170	57	15	19	76	71
Daily wages for children (Rs.)	50	40	40	30	40	35	40
Number of children and youth in non-mining labour	Mason-3, Factory worker-3	Tailor-5, Factory worker-10	Labour-10, Tailor-7 Carpenter-2	Tailor-3, Labour-17, Carpenter-1	Tailor-2, Labour-12, Gold smith-1	Mason-5, Tailor-4	Mason-3, Tailor-2

Source: Survey conducted by MASS, Palamaneru, 2009

Conclusions

The three micro-level case studies in the three districts of Cuddapah, Visakhapatnam and Chittoor were studied from the perspective of understanding the life of the children of mine workers and quarry workers. The three studies show how transient the life of quarry workers is, without certainty of work and without sustainable livelihoods. The sharp correlation to this economic activity is the presence of an almost equal number of children, working in highly unremunerative and inhuman conditions. Particularly in Chittoor district, the life of the children in the traditional *Vaddi* community is highly exploitative, with high levels of school drop-out both due to poverty and due to the poor quality of education. This points a finger directly at the state responsibility in providing fundamental right of education since the enactment of the new Right to Education Act 2009. Merely setting up a primary school in these areas will not ensure that the fundamental right is met unless it is addressed with the quality and child-centred focus that it can bring in order to motivate the child to go to school rather than to the mine site. The fact that many of the children in the quarries in Visakhapatnam district are also enrolled in school is a deceptive reality, as most of them do not attend regularly or do not have opportunity for education that can see them through high school. The example of quarry sites in Cuddapah show that there is a need for urgent attention on how the state will meet the needs of these small numbers of migrant children, who, for no fault of theirs, are not living anywhere close to the child support institutions like *anganwadis* or primary schools. The need to provide education as well as a healthy habitat where they are not exposed to the pollution and made vulnerable to getting sucked into mine labour, are issues for several departments including child welfare, labour, health, education and also mines, to develop cohesive and coordinated policies that will effectively do justice to these migrant children.

(***Acknowledgements:*** The study in Chittoor district was done in partnership with MASS, Palamaneru and we acknowledge the contribution of B.Sunanda and her team in facilitating the field visits and in sharing their information and work details with us for this study.)

Kids Being Trafficked from N.E. as Child Labor in Tamil Nadu

Friday, January 29, 2010 at 2:29:16 PM

76 trafficked children hailing from Manipur and Assam, used as child labor, were recently rescued from a home at Kulitorai in Tamil Nadu's Kanyakumari district.

Prabhakaran, a member of the Child Welfare Committee, which rescued the children, said the young kids were forced to live in appalling conditions.

"Children hailing from Manipur and Assam regions were smuggled to this place to work in stone quarries. We traced them from a place named Kulitorai, all huddled in unhygienic condition with no proper accommodation and care. Many of them even did not have proper clothes. Fortunately, we could save them and now they are under the care of Sharanalayam at Tirunlveli," he said.

Source-ANI
TRI http://www.medindia.net/news/Kids-Being-Trafficked-from-NE-as-Child-Labor-in-Tamil-Nadu-64323-1.htm

Mine trucks' bloody trail
V K Rakesh Reddy

First Published : 15 Nov 2009 05:31:00 AM IST
Indian Express

ANANTAPUR: While Gali Janardhan Reddy, Karnataka Tourism Minister and promoter of the Obulapuram Mining Company (OMC) defended himself tooth and nail in the face of a snowballing political controversy over the alleged illegal mining of iron ore by his firm on Friday, the human loss being caused by the OMC seems to have eluded attention of all.

Statistics drive home the point –– more than 50 people lost their lives in the last three months in Anantapur district. Almost all of them were mowed down by trucks carrying iron ore. Not a single truck driver has been convicted till date and no truck has been seized either. Most of the trucks involved in the accidents, sources say, belong to the OMC.

……Another accident caused the death of a young girl who died after the Independence Day celebrations in her school this year. She was run over right outside her school by a truck carrying iron ore and died on the spot.

http://www.expressbuzz.com/edition/story.aspx?Title=Mine+trucks'+bloody+trail&artid=NFUxa/rkTX4=&SectionID=e7uPP4|pSiw=&MainSectionID=e7uPP4|pSiw=&SectionName=EH8HilNJ2uYAot5nzqumeA==&SEO=Obulapuram%20Mining%20Company

Part III
Summary and Recommendations

Summary and Recommendations

Almost every state and district in India has some kind of mineral extracted or processed. However, it would have been impossible for our team to cover the entire geographical area of mining or range of minerals whose extraction has serious impacts on the lives of children. Therefore, we chose a few sites in eight states that show clear impacts on children due to mining. These case studies could be, to a large extent, representative of many of the mining situations that children in India are suffering from. They provide a glimpse into the real life situations of *adivasi*, rural, migrant and other poor sections of child population in India that are impacted directly and indirectly by mining. These site-specific stories provide information not only of mining but also of the general development situation of children in these regions.

In most of the secondary data compiled from the state level child statistics, it shows that low child development indicators are most often overlapping with mining affected regions. This trend signifies the status and direction in which children of marginalised sections in these states are located today, which further substantiates the perspectives being put forward by most civil society and human rights groups—that mining has not contributed significantly to the development of children but rather, it has largely created negative impacts on children in these areas.

The primary data from the case studies reiterates this picture and also reveal a very bitter truth—problems are glaring but accountability is elusive. A large number of children in India face marginalisation due to state irresponsibility in delivering basic development services, and because of which large sections of rural, dalit and *adivasi* children are seriously suffering from malnutrition, illiteracy, starvation, homelessness and several life threatening illnesses.

However, for mining affected children, this is being exacerbated by a ruthlessly exploitative industry which is pushing this neglect into a situation of desperation where increase in poverty, landlessness, food insecurity are forcing children into child labour in mining and other forms of labour, exposing them to crime and violence, making them vulnerable to trafficking, chronic ill-health, and inhuman living conditions. Children of local communities, workers (unorganised, contract), farmers around mine sites were rarely found to benefit from mining in this study. The rapid degeneration in general living conditions and governance wherever mining projects came up has brought further deterioration to existing institutions and development structures like schools, *anganwadis*, PHCs or transport that are intended to meet the basic needs of children. Therefore, instead of improvement, the quality of life was seen to have alarmingly reduced to a struggle for survival for many children and their families.

Yet, the paradox of mining lies in the fact that the mining industry or the mining administration is not legally responsible for ensuring most of the rights and development needs of children. India boasts of several legal protections for children, with the Right to Education being the latest fundamental right. These laws are strengthened by positive schemes to bring children out of poverty and marginalisation, very few of which provide any protection or relief to mining affected children. Several other departments like the Women and Child Welfare Department, the Education Department, the Tribal Welfare Department, and Labour Department, to mention a few have to address the problems created by mining. This makes for an inter-departmental conflict of interest and leaves ample room for ambiguities in state accountability. In this process, the child is being forgotten.

Whose Child is India's Mining Child?

The Ministry of Mines' fundamental job is to mine. Many of the violations and human rights abuses that result from mining, especially with respect to children, are not the mandate of the Ministry to address. The responsibility lies elsewhere, due to which seeking justice for the child poses several obstacles.

In *adivasi* regions, mining has caused landlessness and depletion of forest resources. Children's nutrition has been seriously affected by this displacement and depletion. For the Revenue Department, however, their task is to acquire lands because mining is a 'public interest' activity and hence, the health and nutrition of children does not seem to fit into their domain.

The Women and Child Welfare Department is responsible for providing supplementary child nutrition and to address issues of child mortality. But it is not consulted at the time of granting mining leases to protect the food security of *adivasi* children from being affected by mining. Their supplementary nutrition programmes, even if they are implemented (which most times are not, as seen in many of the case studies) are far from adequate to deal with the malnutrition and threat to child mortality in mining areas.

Many children were found not to be attending school due to poverty created by mining. The Education Department is responsible for ensuring retention of children in school and to ensure enrolment and attendance. However, the responsibility is shifted on to the parents who are treated as the main culprits for the children being out of school. But the mining activity or mining company is never held responsible for the school drop out rates or for the situation of child labour inspite of the fact that in every mine site visited, children reported poverty and indebtedness in the family caused by mining as the main reason for leaving school.

The reason for children not attending school is because they are forced to work in the mines as their parents are either dead or too ill to work. It is the responsibility of the Labour Department to address child labour issues. The Labour Department has been simply denying that there is child labour as was evident from the responses we received to the RTI applications regarding child labour. The Education Department has either been claiming that majority of children are enrolled or are being taken care of by NCLP schools. But the Census data, DISE cards of the Education Department itself and our own case studies in the field reveal that many children are out of school or working in different informal activities. The case studies also show that very few mining affected areas have NLCP schools.

We found that children of migrant mine workers do not have a decent roof over their heads and the mine site doubles up as their playground and house. Migrant labour is not directly the responsibility of any specific department in terms of providing basic development facilities. Therefore they do not have rights for housing or land. Children of migrant workers are malnourished as their families do not have ration cards and do not have the purchasing capacity to buy sufficient food from the market. These families find it extremely difficult to get ration cards issued to them by the Revenue Department as they do not have a proof of residence or a stable identity.

Water is a very serious problem expressed by the women as mining activities everywhere have depleted water resources and reduced the existing water bodies to highly contaminated cess-pools unfit for human or animal consumption. Our case studies found that water bodies were dried up, courses of streams and rivers have been changed, groundwater levels have fallen and in many places, the only water bodies left are the cess-pools of water from mine pits. Children in mining areas visited were found to be vulnerable to water and air borne diseases as pollution from mining activities forces them to either consume contaminated water or live without access to water.

In many places women showed their pots of dark and dirty drinking water, which ought not to be consumed. No authority is directly responsible for providing these basic amenities to migrant workers' settlements. The local *panchayat*/municipality is not responsible for supplying drinking water, as the migrant colonies are not within their jurisdiction of governance. The Ministry for Water Resources is never consulted as a stakeholder when mining projects are sanctioned, so their role in regulation and protection of water bodies with regard to mining affected areas is almost negligent. Crisis over water not only has impacts on children's health and hygiene in the immediate surroundings but has implications downstream to a larger region, whether with respect to reduced food security due to lack of irrigation for farmers or health hazards due to toxic waste in the waters.

Health problems of children living in mining regions were found to range from chronic to severe respiratory illnesses, malaria, dysentery and diarrhoea, birth deformities, mental and physical disabilities, sexual abuse—all related to pollution, contamination and vulnerability caused by mining. The Health Department does not have adequate data or records to either take action or provide diagnostic analysis of the health problems they treat and the pollution due to mining. It is difficult for affected communities or even individual patients to get accurate diagnosis as it is normally claimed that pollution is within permissible limits and that health problems are related to social malpractices and addictions of mining communities rather than associated with mining. Most of the case studies, however, identified several diseases, deformities and chronic illnesses among children, associated with mining, as reported by the parents and communities.

The most glaring situation that was witnessed in all the case study areas visited was the high levels of malnutrition among children in the mining regions. Majority of the children were found to be severely and chronically malnourished. Ill-implemented *anganwadi* programmes are far from adequate to address this serious problem of food insecurity created by mining. Coupled with this, the recession in the mining industry since 2007 that also overlaps with a sudden increase in the price of basic food commodities and fuel, has aggravated the malnutrition situation among mining affected children whose families are unable to purchase food to feed them. Neither did we find the NREGA programme, which is intended to guarantee employment, and therefore food, being implemented for more than 15–30 days in a year, in any of the case study areas.

Majority of mine workers are in the informal sector where the mine owners and contractors cannot guarantee sustained work or wages to the workers. Hence, the conversion of agricultural lands to mining activities, has led to a situation where neither mining is providing a regular income nor is agriculture, which has been made unviable due to a crisis brought by air pollution and water depletion from mining activities.

Adivasi children have been losing their Constitutional rights over their lands and forests when their families are displaced from their lands. The results of rehabilitation that we saw in Orissa and Jharkhand reflect the apathy of public authorities towards displaced persons. That the displaced/affected have ended up in impoverishment with no means of regular livelihood or incomes does not seem to have affected the companies or the state as meagre cash compensation is being offered as rehabilitation in the new projects in lieu of lands being taken for mining.

The degeneration of social security due to an industry ruled by mafia, crime, corruption and violence was visible in all the mining areas visited. If one looks at juvenile crime, particularly in *adivasi* areas, one rarely comes across issues of *adivasi* children in conflict with law. Yet in mining affected regions, where the case studies were conducted, it was seen that even *adivasi* children are exposed to crime and are in conflict with law, which is a direct negative impact that mining has brought on the social fabric. In every case study area, women had a serious common complaint—that alcoholism dominates their lives and how it is destroying their economic and social well-being as no other facilities are as accessible in mining areas as liquor is. In most of our field visits we found schools and *anganwadi* centres surrounded by mine sites in their backyards where truck drivers and mine workers were seen to be gambling or consuming alcohol under the shade of school/*anganwadi* premises. Yet all pillars of democracy stand incapable and helpless in controlling this lawlessness and statelessness.

Thus, in the entire chain, the mining companies have shown little responsibility since accountability is voluntary and based on best practices of CSR. Child labour, for instance, is an issue that evokes global public conscience, and is the most tangible reality that is a non-negotiable human rights issue. This in itself is one of the most difficult to provide numbers or evidence to hold the companies accountable. In India the large companies do not engage child labour directly. Yet, most often they are dependent on supply of raw or processed ore from informal mines, contractors or illegal mines which are geographically scattered, activities are erratic and are mostly dependent on migrant labour whose numbers are difficult to trace. This was seen in Keonjhar, Bellary, Panna, Jodhpur and Sundergarh where child labour in the mines is a huge reality but the companies are elusive.

While conducting research for the case studies we found children openly working in several mine sites, but scattered in numbers, partially attending school and partially working. However, as there is no proper record of informal or illegal mines itself, the existence of child labour is nullified. The intimidation faced by children and their families prevents them from articulating their problems or giving accurate information. Although mineral stones like sandstone, marble and others which are exported, have started receiving global

attention on child labour issues, there are serious difficulties on the ground to trace the routes or to trace the linkages between mines that use child labour and the companies that buy the products.

Similar case of state and industry irresponsibility were seen even where a precious stone like diamond is concerned. Children are working in Madhya Pradesh to find diamonds for local contractors. The Obulapuram mines and the child labour in Bellary is another clear example. The local contractors who hire child labour do not even make a pretension of hiding the facts. In Bellary they stated that they are immune from laws and regulations, which they flout openly because 'it is taken care of" by the Obulapuram Mines. This reflects the arrogant defiance to law as law-keepers up to the highest levels of power can be easily purchased as stated by them.

In most of the EIA documents we reviewed, social impacts and rehabilitation promises of mining companies vaguely refer to indirect benefits to local communities and children as it is assumed that the local economy grows, thereby leading to local market forces entering with private educational institutions, hospitals, employment opportunities and consumerism. In reality what we saw was that these are not opportunities accessed by affected dalit and *adivasi* children but more so by children of the middle class and white-collar employees of the companies. More often, the fact is that the local children end up as child labour in the tea stalls, mechanic shops, hotels and other economic 'opportunities' and 'benefits' generated by mining companies.

Also, in every case study where large-scale mining projects were set up, the people stated that they were promised jobs and employment before the mining activities started, but later, hardly any persons from affected communities ever got jobs. Most of the case studies were also done in mine sites of public sector companies who are meant to be more socially responsible. It is over 30 years since the NALCO bauxite project was begun. In these 30 years the data from the case study reveals that there has been little upward mobility for the children of the affected families, either educationally or economically. This is the fate of those affected by a public sector project where social responsibility is intended to be the principal agenda. There does not appear to be a single mining project that has fulfilled the rehabilitation promises in a manner that has improved the life of the affected communities or that could set a precedent for a best practice that the government can set as a pre-condition to private mining companies. More so, there has been no assessment or stock taking of the status of rehabilitation especially with regard to the status of children. With India's thrust for the future being privatisation of mining projects, for sustainable mining to be implemented with seriousness, best practices have to be more forthcoming from the public sector and the looming gaps that exist in the law and regulatory mechanisms have to be plugged.

Yet, the new projects proposed in Kasipur and Lanjigarh by private and global mining companies like Vedanta/Sterlite, whose human rights records in earlier projects across the world, do not set a precedent for socially responsible mining, justify the suspicion and strong opposition from communities and the civil society. The corporate induced conflicts and state of terror in these regions, particularly in Orissa, Chattisgarh and Jharkhand were visible all through the study where data collection was interrupted several times due to strikes, bandhs, non cooperation of local communities due to fear of police and industry repercussions, and the inability to travel without fear of violence. It is of greater concern that the *adivasi* children are being thrown out of the Scheduled Areas (as seen from the migration in Damanjodi, Panna and other tribal areas after mining activities began) and these areas are being thrown open to multinationals, against the laws of the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution and the verdict given in the Samatha Judgement. Hence, the *adivasi* children of today stand to lose their Scheduled Area ownership and protection as their lands are allowed to slip into the hands of the private mining industries. This is the most brutal state injustice to *adivasi* children.

These case studies are not stories but the real life facts of not scattered or obscure numbers- these are a few million mining children in India. And we are no closer to our MDGs that we have set for our country to fulfil the needs of our children, than when we started. This is because our development policies work inversely to our goals, and as the state overviews presented along with the case studies demonstrates, growth indicators for the marginalised children are shockingly low, in each of the mining affected districts. This inverse-ness of the development trajectory contributed significantly by mining, is only making the situation worse for children in the mining regions and for the government to meet its targets.

Therefore, a lot depends on the political will, public accountability and bureaucratic transparency. A lot also depends on a nation's conscience. We hope that the case

studies here can help evoke a glimmer of this conscience. We also hope that the case studies can help us explore legally binding mechanisms for addressing the issues concerning children and help review the current policies that directly or indirectly affect them, and what institutional mechanisms can be lobbied for, in order to protect the children.

Recommendations

Children live in families and communities. It therefore becomes difficult to isolate the impacts of any particular issue on children without also dwelling on impacts on the environment in which they live and the family and communities to which they belong. And yet it is also critical to identify the specific impacts on children themselves also to gain an understanding of what specific measures may be required to address their particular needs. The recommendations arising out of the report are therefore addressed to all the concerned departments and ministries.

Over-arching recommendations on children

- The government must recognise that children are impacted by mining in a number of ways, and these impacts must be considered and addressed at all stages of the mining cycle.
- The biggest problem that mining children face is that they do not 'belong' to any one ministry or department. While the Ministry of Mines is the prime mover of mining projects and responsible for violation of their rights, it is not directly responsible for children whose concerns in the present governance structure are the responsibility of several other departments in the State and Ministries in the Centre like Education, Women and Child Welfare/ Development, Labour, Tribal and Social Welfare, Health and Police etc. It is essential that all ministries and departments to address their concerns and ensure convergence at the legal and policy level as well of services to ensure justice to the mining child.
- There is a large section of children, under the age of 18 years, working in the most hazardous mining activities in India, and there should be official acknowledgement of this problem. The governments and society can no longer live in denial regarding the existence of children in labour in mines.
- There is need to examine all the concerned laws and amend them wherever needed to address the specific needs of mining children.
    - The National Mineral Policy 2008 states that the guiding principle shall be that a 'miner shall leave the mining area in better ecological shape than he found it'. In the context of the child, the definition of ecology should include all human-ecology aspects. Further, the government should not, in the guise of an "enabler", abdicate its fundamental responsibilities to children in mining areas. Especially in the case of Scheduled Areas, the state must take the principal responsibility for all aspects of mining projects and should not transfer this responsibility to private players. The problems of children in mining areas cannot be treated in isolation and has to be placed in the Policy, Programme and Project contexts.
    - In mining situations many laws and policies come into force regarding land acquisition, rehabilitation, environment, pollution, forests, mining processes etc. Some already exist and others are being considered. They seldom reflect children's concerns and needs. It is essential to mainstream child rights concerns into policies, amendments to the existing laws on mining and those that are being proposed by the respective ministries, whether with regard to the Rehabilitation Bill, the Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) (MMDR) Bill, the Social Security Bill, the Land Acquisition Bill, to name a few.
    - In the context of child labour, the Mines Act,1952 and its Amendment Act 1983 defines a child as anyone under 18, which is in harmony with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Juvenile Justice Care and Protection Act, 2000 (Amendment 2006). However, both the Child Labour Prohibition and Regulation Act, 1986 (CLPRA) and even the Mines Act (1983) allows for children below the age of 18 years to work in mining.[306] Given the extreme hazardous nature of the activity, the Mines Act, 1952 and the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1983 must be amended. This should ensure that children below 18 years of age

306 The CLPRA does not prohibit the employment of children in all mines upto the age of 14 years and allows for children to work in mines beyond the age of 14 years. The Mines Act 1952 and the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1983, lay down that no person below eighteen years of age shall be allowed to work in any mine or part there of (Section 40) or in any operation connected with or incidental to any mining operation being carried on (Section 45), it simultaneously allows for children of sixteen years to be apprentices and trainees.

are not working in the mines. The Act should also be amended to ensure that the "loop-hole" clause, which allows the employment of trainees and apprentices from the age of 16, is removed.

- There is a need for linking the existing child protection institutions, particularly the State Commissions for Protection of Child rights as well as the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights with children affected by mining.

Recommendations for Specific Ministries

Ministry of Women and Child Development

- To address the high levels of malnourishment, hunger and food insecurity in mining areas, as has been found in this study, and in keeping with the Supreme Court Orders in the Right to Food Case,[307] it is essential to undertake stock taking of implementation of ICDS project in mining areas.
- Migrant children of mine workers are an important section of child population who currently do not receive any institutional support under ICDS. Therefore, innovative programmes need to be developed to ensure ICDS programmes reach out to children of migrant families.
- Specific recommendations as given under section on pre-conditions to mining need to be dove-tailed into the Ministry's policies and laws.
- As the Ministry of Women and Child Development gets into the act of signing MOUs with the states for implementation of its flagship scheme on child protection called the ICPS — Integrated Child protection Scheme, it must prioritise on vulnerable areas such as the mining areas. The aim of the scheme is to reduce vulnerability as much as to provide protection to children who fall out of the social security and safety net.
- It is essential to implement the Juvenile Justice Act, 2000 to address the condition of the children in mining areas in a manner relevant to their specific situations:
    - The institutional structures for providing protection to these children in mining areas have to be strengthened in order to bring stronger monitoring on players exploiting the children and to provide institutional support to, especially the migrant communities of mine workers who have no other grievance redressal mechanisms or support structures for protection of their children.
    - The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Amendment Act of 2006 is most applicable to children in mining areas—children working in the mines, child labour in other sectors because of impoverishment created by mining, and children living in mining areas are vulnerable to the exploitation and crime rampant in mining areas.
    - There is need for extending the support (in a more focussed way) by the Juvenile Justice Boards, the Child Welfare Committees (CWCs) and the State Juvenile Police Units to adivasi children in areas where displacement and landlessness has led to their exploitation or brought them in conflict with law.
    - The CWCs should be part of the monitoring committees that regularly assess the impacts on children and monitor the implementation of conditions agreed upon by the mining companies. In mining areas, as crime and vulnerability is high, the CWCs should be better equipped with manpower and resources at their disposal to ensure protection.

Ministry of Human Resource Development

- Free and Universal Compulsory Elementary Education is a right for all children. Recognising their special situation and having paid the price for "development", the government must ensure that children in mining affected areas, rehabilitated, displaced and migrant communities, are especially targeted to receive accessible and quality education. Number, quality and reach of primary and elementary schools, including infrastructure and pedagogic inputs, have to be adequately scaled up.
- Right to education also means right to "equal and quality education". The Ministry must move from the current method of temporary, ad hoc and para-teacher form of running schools to a more planned, permanent and sustainable education of children in mining affected areas, same as what is available to children of officials in the mining colonies.

Ministry of Labour

- The lacunae in the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 with respect to children working in mines must be addressed by amending the law must be

307 Website of the Minsitry of Labour. URL: http://labour.nic.in/cwl/ChildLabour.htm (accessed 11 March 2010)

addressed to include all mining operations in Schedule of Prohibited Occupations under Schedule A of Act.[308]

- The Ministry of Labour claims "elimination of child labour is the single largest programme in this Ministry's activities"[309], and yet so far its efforts at addressing the situation of child labour in the mines have been inadequate. The National Child Labour Programme (NCLP) must be extended to all children working in mines, which means it must be upgraded substantially in terms of numbers, financial allocations and quality of delivery as well as monitoring.
- Mainstreaming of all children attending NCLP schools into regular schools is mandatory and this must be ensured from children rescued from labour in mines.
- Regular visits by the Labour Inspectors with mandatory submission of their reports, is a must to monitor and address the child labour situation.

Ministry of Health and Family Welfare

- There must be a comprehensive assessment of the health impacts on children living and working in mining areas.
- Considering the high levels of environmental pollution and occupational diseases as a result of mining the Ministry needs to have delivery services that will address critical child health and mortality issues.
- Periodic health assessment as per defined indicators that provide early warning, preventive and mitigative measures should be a continuous intervention.
- Special attention to children and their parents with chronic and long term health problems arising out of mining activities, related pollution, contamination, toxicity, disappearance of resources like water bodies that have affected the nutrition and food security of the communities, etc
- Specific recommendations as given under section on pre-conditions to mining need to be dove-tailed into the Ministry's policies and laws.

Legal and policy recommendations to the Ministry of Mines and other Ministries

The following recommendations are directed to the Ministry of Mines are also recommended for incorporation into respective laws and policies of all the concerned ministries and state institutions that exist for the protection of children.

Pre-conditions (specific to protection of children's rights) for getting a mining lease:

- The MMDR Act is an Act stated to undertake mining and use of minerals in a 'scientific' manner. The rules laid under this Act mainly relate to mine planning, processes of mining, the nature of technology, procedures and eligibility criteria for obtaining mining leases and all aspects related to mines. It does not give significant reference to the manner in which mining is to take place, from the social context, except for some broad guidelines in terms of environment, rehabilitation and social impacts. Given the huge negative impacts of mining on children, specific pre-conditions should be clearly laid out prior to granting of mining leases, where mining companies have to indicate concrete actions for the development and protection of children. In order to undertake responsible mining, unless some of the following social impacts and accountability particularly with regard to children, are incorporated within the Act and the Mine Plan, violation of children's rights will continue in mining areas.
- The proposed amendment should have, apart from technical specifications on how to mine and procedures to obtain licences and leases, eligibility criteria and pre-conditions in terms of standards, responsibilities, socio-ecological rehabilitation mechanisms, clearly laid out rules on penalties for offences, which are legally binding. These should include all the three stages of mining—prior to beginning the mining activities, during the period of mining and post-closure of the mines.
- Pre-conditions based on adherence to international conventions and national laws protecting children should be set clearly before the initiation of any project related activity on ground or clearances and should be subject to monitoring by civil society groups, workers themselves and local governance institutions to provide checks and balances. These should clearly state in the rules of the MMDR Act that mining leases will be given only after clearances are obtained from the respective departments like Women and Child Welfare, Education, Tribal Welfare, Labour, Health, Police, to name a few, with regard to partnering with the company or in directly providing institutional support for children of displaced/affected/migrant mining communities. This is to ensure sustainable development framework in mining, which is

308 At present mining and collieries are the only forms of mining included in Schedule A.

309 Website of the Minsitry of Labour. URL: http://labour.nic.in/cwl/ChildLabour.htm (accessed 11 March 2010)

proposed to be the basis of the National Mineral Policy, from the children's perspective.

- Similar changes within policy and programme framework of other departments in order to incorporate these pre-conditions, so as to fulfil their responsibilities towards children within their mandate and jurisdiction of work.

Inclusion of children's issues and concerns in mining activities into the three cycles of the mining activities at the time of granting mining lease:

Pre-Mining Plan:

- Lease/license to the mine owner will only be granted after a documented assurance that child labour will not be engaged in mining or any other related activity. If children are found to be working within the mining premises/lease area, the mine lease should be immediately cancelled.
- Every mining project must undertake a clear baseline assessment of existing economic situation, education, health and food security (both from forest and land) indicators of the pre-mining situation, and provide a plan for development of children and their families within the project plan and project costs (exclusive of funds diverted from government departments).
- The baseline survey will also include details of how mining operations will affect the existing resources, water bodies, cultures and social institutions to ensure minimum impact and replacement.
- The mining plan must indicate how it plans to address and ensure that education, health, nutrition levels, safety or economic development will be achieved, over and above the existing status, based on the baseline survey undertaken.
- Details of how the mining project will improve the existing economic and development status of the communities in very direct terms (currently, indirect benefits are deemed to accrue to communities as normally mentioned in EIA documents).
- Rehabilitation must be an integral part of the lease agreement and the Rehabilitation Plan should clearly specify the impacts on children and the plan for rehabilitating them based on the baseline survey. This would include providing livelihood to displaced/affected families. Special attention must be paid to widows and single mothers with children mentally and physically challenged.
- Rehabilitation must be undertaken before the mining project begins in a time-bound manner. This includes decent and adequate housing with toilet and potable drinking water, supply of which is not ad hoc in nature, good quality schools within the rehabilitation/ resettlement colony, electricity, anganwadi centre with supplementary nutrition to pregnant women and single mothers.
- To address the concerns of alcoholism and violence that ensues forced evictions it is essential to have a written agreement that the company will not set up or facilitate the setting up of liquor shops within or near the rehabilitation colony.
- Infrastructure development in mining areas in and around the mines, beyond the rehabilitation colonies, needs utmost attention such as construction anganwadis, schools, colleges, health institutions both traditional and governmental, water resources, houses, roads and transport.
- Specifying the quantity of water, extent of forest and revenue land that will be diverted for the activity and permissions should be taken both from the Department of Water Resources as well as from the local panchayat.
- Company should provide guarantee that the mining activity will not be located near the school, anganwadi, water sources and health centre of the village
- Only specified areas far away from the village will be used for parking of trucks and lorries and these areas should be designated before the clearance of the lease so that the children are protected from a socially threatening environment that is created by movement of floating population.
- Dust and water pollution will be mitigated through regular precautionary actions (which already exist in the law) but penal action will be taken if regular mitigating activities are not undertaken.
- Health check up and treatment should be provided by the mining company both to workers and to the community, and results of the same should be available for public scrutiny at the office of the company and also submitted to the District Medical and Health Officer at regular intervals fixed at the time of the lease or provided in the Mines Safety Rules of the MMDR Act.
- Violation of any of these impacting children should result in the cancellation of the lease. Penalties should be defined for non-implementation of rehabilitation as per projected plans and assessments with recommendations

made by the monitoring committee.

Mine Plan during mining phase:

- All the above promises are fulfilled as per time bound planning.
- Undertake a periodic/regular assessment based on the social development indicators developed at the time of Mine Plan with the involvement of all stakeholders including company, community, workers, concerned departments, child rights committees and NGOs.
- Submission of periodic reports and follow up actions in consultation with the local communities, PAPs and NGOs apart from the departments concerned and child rights committees.
- Free health services and hospital facilities for employees as well as communities around the mining project, particularly child health care facilities that address the pollution and other problems that result from mining.
- The mining companies must set aside a health fund that is independently handled, for the treatment of children who suffer from serious illnesses. The mining companies should compensate the children with health problems/deformities/birth defects that are associated with mining activities. An independent medical certification of the same has to be provided for to avoid biased medical reports on behalf of the company. Some existing mining areas have been receiving reports of alarming rates of health problems among children—these hotspots should be identified and declared as health emergency zones and an urgent health intervention programme should be taken up.

Post-Mining Plan:

- Mine closure plan should include clear financial allocations and programmes for protection and development of children. For example, how the schools in the rehabilitation colony will be run post-closure and whether the company obtained sanction from Education Department for taking over of the schools and what financial commitments have been made by the company for this transition period and post closure.
- The post closure livelihood plan for workers and local communities should be specified so that children do not drop out of school to support their families (as is seen in Kolar after closure). The mining companies abruptly close down their hospitals and medical facilities leaving the township and resettlement colonies without any medical facilities.
- A withdrawal plan, which has formally laid procedures and permissions for handing over of these services to the public health departments with financial commitments during the transition period, should be a clearly specified document.

General recommendations

Small-scale mines: Further with respect to protection of the rights of mine workers and their children in small-scale mining and quarrying, the pre-conditions should include:

- The wages and working conditions of mine workers should be clearly specified and displayed for pubic scrutiny. Considering the hazardous nature of the mine labour, a proper wage should be fixed that ensures viable living conditions for workers' families so that child labour is prevented.
- Workers should be provided with work safety gear, and individual uniforms (mining wear) that provides protection at work. Accident benefits and insurance should be specified at the time of the mining lease being granted.
- Women workers should be provided with crèche facilities which is safe from mine dust and noise, has full-time caretakers, supplementary nutrition and women should be given breaks during working hours to attend to their infants while at work. Safe drinking water should be provided at the mine site for workers as well as for infants of workers who are in the crèche
- The workers should be free to unionise and voice their concerns.
- Standards such as 'Ethical Stones'[310] which are not recommendatory but based on legal requirements from diverse laws should be clearly established and minerals/products especially with respect to precious stones like diamonds, and masonry stones, granite and the like, should be compulsorily subject to certification by independent agencies that are legally bound for public scrutiny and judicial action.
- There is a huge potential for rationalisation of mining leases and also to cull poorly productive deposits and illegal mines without the need to acquire more and more areas. Details of land to be acquired, rationale for requiring the specified area, what non-displacing alternatives have been

310 See appendix 1

explored, clear design and working plans for the specified area proposed need to be provided.

Mining Children: Pragmatic Steps Ahead

1. The establishment of a state level and district level monitoring committee consisting of all the concerned departments that have responsibilities to protect the child, as well as independent civil society organisations to be involved in monitoring as well as grievance redressal. This should be formally recognised to represent these issues to the state and national child/human rights commissions and respective departments.
2. The Ministry of Mines has to evolve regional plans with appropriate local governance institutions (district, block) and the community with clarity in terms of quantity and quality of ore that will be extracted, the extent of area involved, demographic profile of this region, economic planning for extraction that includes number of workers required, nature of workers (local, migrant), type of technology, social cost including wages, estimate of workers and assured work period, providing (in the case of migrant workers) residential facilities like housing, basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, early childhood (anganwadis) and primary education with quality of education delivered, or in the absence of these, an NCLP school, toilet, PDS facility and other requirements for a basic quality of life. The resources for these must not be drawn upon from public exchequer but recovered from the promoter.
3. The public sector companies should set an example to first clean up the situation and redress the destruction caused to children and their environment in the existing mines with a clear time frame which will be scrutinised by the independent committee at regular intervals as agreed upon. The clean up should also state the budget allocated by each company for this purpose and provide details of expenditure incurred, to the committee.
4. A benefit sharing mechanism must be immediately established so that it is not restricted to immediate short term monetary relief, but should show long term sustainability of the communities and workers, including post-mining land reclamation and livelihood programmes that have measurable outputs. A share from the taxes or profits shared by the companies should be ploughed into these and CWCs for better functioning.
5. New mine leases should not be granted unless significant clean up and institutional mechanisms are in place. No private mining leases should be granted in the Scheduled Areas and the Samatha Judgement should be respected in its true spirit.
6. The National Commission for the Unorganised Sector which is proposing the new Social Security Bill should take into cognizance, the above legal and policy recommendations, particularly with respect to the migrant mine workers and include adequate social security benefits that directly support development and protection of children.

Conclusions

In order to earnestly implement the above recommendations and existing safeguards to stand in support of the mining child, the government should translate the policy and legal provisions into financial and man power allocations. Adequate resources have to consciously allocated within the central and state budgets for the institutional support programmes for children as well as for regulation and monitoring, these laws so that true implementation takes place.

The above legal and policy initiatives cannot be translated into action without strong advocacy and campaigning from civil society groups, trade unions, affected communities and workers and other human rights organisations. The need for convergence is also a huge responsibility for the civil society and human rights organisations in order to prioritise the rights of the child in mining affected areas. Unless a stronger pressure and lobby on the state players to implement the laws and to design policies that prioritise children's development and protection and not justify the current economic models that are working to the contrary effect, comes from public vigilance and lobby, children's voices from the mine pits will be difficult to be heard. We hope that this study will be used as a tool for campaigning by affected communities, NGO's and human rights organisations in uphold the rights of the mining child in India.

Part IV

Appendix- Our Experience with Right to Information Act

OUR EXPERIENCE WITH THE RIGHT TO INFORMATION ACT, 2005

As part of the process of information collection for the current study, we have tried to access information from various departments concerned with the problems and development of children in India. In this process, we made use of the Right to Information (RTI) Act by filing applications on different aspects of child rights in the mining context. We briefly present below our experience and challenges encountered in utilising this Act.

Some of the areas that we chose to consult with government for information were:

- Data on child labour
- Data on education
- Health
- Protection issues: water, housing, rehabilitation, trafficking, HIV/AIDS, forests and agriculture as resources of food security, and economic issues of the family like employment in the mines, wages, safety, other development programmes like NREGA.
- We also wrote to the public sector coal mining companies for information regarding employment, rehabilitation, child labour, forests, water and future expansion plans.

Challenges in the Process of Application

The RTI Act is intended to be an enabling tool for public scrutiny and active participation of the public in governance and vigilance. While the Act has facilitated in accessing information from government, which was earlier a Herculean task, using the Act involves several challenges and complex procedures that frustrate the applicant. Some of these challenges we encountered were:

- Discrepancies and lack of clarity between the central Act and the different Acts of state governments.
- Contact details of Public Information Officer (PIO) are not given properly in many of the websites. Either there is no information available or wrong information is given wherein applications get rejected on grounds that the application is not addressed to the appropriate PIO; outdated information is available in many websites. Due to these factors, there are several delays where applications were rejected on grounds of omissions or errors and there were several delays in reapplying to the appropriate persons in charge.
- Singareni Collieries Company Limited (SCCL) asked money to provide information.
- Information regarding payment of fees is not correct in many websites, or it is not mentioned in the websites or there are discrepancies between states in procedure for payment. In some states, some of the departments are accepting court fees stamps but in some others, demand drafts and many of our applications were rejected on these grounds, again leading to delays in reapplying. We found that in most of the post offices, there are no acknowledgement forms available and some ad hoc acknowledgement slips are being used because of which we could not receive some of the acknowledgements.
- Most of the responses were not immediately helpful as the applications are simply directed to another section of the department or another level. Sometimes we were asked to apply to some other department for information as they felt it was not relevant to their department. This gives the impression that, instead of respecting the Act in its spirit, there are more attempts made by respective departments in disqualifying the applications on trivial grounds rather than making it an enabling Act. Sometimes state governments have asked us to apply to the centre and vice-versa.
- In some of the responses, the rules and laws were forwarded instead of giving facts on the status. For example, the rules for minimum wages, social welfare benefits, etc., were forwarded to us instead of stating the actual wages paid or specific benefits provided at specific sites implying that these broad guidelines are followed by all companies in their jurisdiction, without any definite verification from the department whether such rules were actually implemented.
- A very common response received from the labour departments of different states was that there was no child labour reported, which was an outright denial that there were any children, sometimes even women, working in the mines. This shows that there is no seriousness in reporting cases of child labour.

Table 2.44 presents some of the applications and the responses received.

Table 2.44: Details of some applications and responses received to queries filed under RTI Act

Questions asked under RTI Act 2005	Responses received
Labour Departments	
1. Total number of women and children working at different mines (sex disaggregated and mineral sector-wise data). 2. Minimum wages for mine workers, working hours, health facilities and benefits for mine workers education and crèche, housing, water, sanitation facilities, social security, accident benefits. 3. Number of complaints received regarding the status of child labour and women workers working in the mines and action taken so far.	Maharashtra • No women and children are working in the stone quarry areas in administrative jurisdiction of the office of Assistant Labour Commissioner (Central)-III Mumbai, Thane district, Raigad district and Mumbai northeast area. • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act. • Complaints accepted by the department can be treated as nil. Goa • No women and children are working in the mining and stone quarry areas. • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act. • Complaints accepted by the department can be treated as nil. Orissa • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act • In Angul district, health facilities and benefits for mine workers are provided as per labour laws, they provide first-aid facilities including treatment in their dispensaries to the women workers, education facilities, crèches, rest rooms available at the mine sites for workers, drinking water, sanitation and housing facilities are provided to the mine workers and in case of compensation it is provided according to the Workmen Compensation Act • In Barbil, no information regarding employment of children in mines is available in the office. Number of women employed in iron sector is 650 and manganese sector is 600. No accident case has been reported and no complaints have been received regarding hazardous work, working hours • In Sundergarh district, no child labour is in mines. Approximately 5,000 women are engaged in mines and stone quarries. All mines have their own crèche, rest room for workers. Fifty per cent mine workers provided accommodation at the site. Housing loan provided by welfare department.

	Andhra Pradesh
	• No children found working in mining and stone quarry areas. Approximately 550 women in manganese mine, three in phosphorus mine, 10 in sand mine and 1,200 women working in stone quarries. • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act • No information available regarding health, housing education, social security and other facilities. • Not received any complaints regarding work safety
	Jharkhand (Dhanbad)
	• No women and children working in mines • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act, • Not received any complaints so far regarding hazardous work, status of child labours and women workers.
	Ministry of Labour (Central)
	• Seventy-nine women found working in mines during inspection conducted in last 3 years. No child labour found employed/working in mines. • Not received any complaints regarding hazardous work status of child labours and women workers.
	Chattisgarh (Raipur)
	• 184 women but no children working in mine and quarry site. • Wage rate: As per Minimum Wages Act, no other available. • Not received any complaints regarding hazardous work status of child labours and women workers.
	Karnataka (Bellary)
	• As per Deputy Commissioner of Bellary, 103 child labourers were found in Bellary and 62 in Sandur taluk working in open mine areas.
	Madhya Pradesh
	• No acknowledgement received so far.
Health and Family Welfare Departments	
1. Total number of reported silicosis and TB cases 2. IMR 3. Total reported HIV/AIDS cases 4. Information regarding total number of reported trafficking cases of women and children	Tamil Nadu • Total number of reported TB cases: 3,701 in the year 2008 and 1,904 in the year of 2009 in Cuddalore district. • Number of reported HIV/AIDS cases in Tamil Nadu is 517 and 191 in Cuddlore district.

	• No case reported under trafficking of women and children in Cuddalore district, Virudhachalam sub-division, Neyveli sub-division and Tittagudi sub-division. • IMR of Cuddalore block is 22.6.
	Goa
	• Total number of reported TB cases in North Goa: 4,848 • Number of reported HIV/AIDS cases in North Goa: 634 (2005-09).
	Andhra Pradesh
	• Total number of rescued trafficked victims who are given financial relief at the rate of Rs. 10,000 each in Chittoor district in year 2008-09 are six. In Kurnool, Cuddappah and Visakhapatnam districts no report has been received • Total reported HIV/AIDS case in Chittoor district 18,228, Cuddapah district 8,904, Kurnool district 14,646 and in Visakhapatnam district 23,143 till October 2009.
	Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Department
	• Replied asking us to forward the application to Indian Council for Medical Research (ICMR)
	ICMR
	• Replied asking us to forward the application to National Institute for Occupational Health and Safety (NIOH)
	NIOH
	• Replied that questions are not concerned with their department
Forest Department	
1. Total extent of reserve forest, acquired for mining purpose. 2. In case of any land acquired, details of lease periods, nature of compensatory afforestation and status	Goa
	• No forest land acquired for any non-forestry activities like mining. • No area of wildlife sanctuaries diverted for mining. • Extent of area diverted for mining purpose of North Goa division is 248.1598 ha
	Chhattisgarh
	• Jagdalpur Reserve Forest acquired for mining: 2696.220 ha. • Bijapur Reserve Forest acquired for mining: 1.9545 ha.
	Andhra Pradesh
	• No acknowledgement received so far.

	Tamil Nadu • No acknowledgement received so far. Orissa • Asked for proof of personal identity for providing information, proof sent, but no information received so far.
Agriculture and Irrigation Departments	
1. Changes in water tables affecting agriculture and the reasons behind it. 2. Extent of area of land made uncultivable due to change in water levels, mining activities. 3. Information regarding decrease in crop yields or prescribed changes in cropping pattern and new crop disease. 4. Action taken.	Karnataka • Agriculture Department suggested that application be sent to Municipal and Water Supply Department. • Municipal and Water Supply Department directed applicant to apply to Irrigation Department. • Irrigation Department replied saying questions in application not relevant to us. Tamil Nadu • Agriculture Department suggested application should be sent to Water Department • Water Department replied saying: Groundwater wing taken up two projects under artificial recharge of ground water: - Artificial recharge of groundwater through dug well - Master plan artificial recharge scheme Maximum, minimum, and average water level of Cuddalore district (January–December 2007): Minimum- 0.26, Maximum: 102 and Average: 14.72
Panchayat Raj and Rural Development Department	
NREGA activities for the years 2007-08 and 2008-09 in specific districts: 1. Number of days of work provided to job card holders. 2. Number of job cards. 3. Nature of Work taken up.	Maharashtra (Pune) • No acknowledgement received. Karnataka • No acknowledgement received Tamil Nadu • No acknowledgement received
Coal Mining Companies	
1. Total land acquired by the company till date. 2. Total area proposed for land acquisition for new projects. 3. Rehabilitation provided to displaced or affected families. 4. Compensation given.	SCCL • As response to our initial letter, a fee of Rs. 1,364 was asked for extra manpower to collect the requested information. • Later they provided the following information:

5. Schools established, number of children from displaced families attending these schools, facilities provided by company in these schools like water supply and sanitation, teacher- student ratio, mid-day meal, hospitals established, number of families displaced who have hospital cards/use the facilities, number of doctors, facilities available
6. Occupational health related diseases identified and treated in company hospital
7. CSR activities in last 5 years, expenditure
8. Total displaced/affected families provided employment/ jobs, details of jobs, levels, type of jobs

- Total number of displaced families 3,925 and total amount of compensation provided for them: Rs. 2753.20 lakh , 10 high schools and 1 upper primary schools and in these schools purified water, sanitation, mid-day meal facilities are available, 3,581 displaced children are studying there
- Total no of families who lost land: 1,138, have been given employment as badli filler

Neyveli Lignite Corporation Limited

- 20,130 ha land is proposed for new projects.
- No data found regarding displacement.
- No proposal for hospital, but the community people are getting treatment at their health centres.
- 1,827 community people got permanent employment as unskilled labour

CCL

- 2001 project affected families resettled/ shifted in different projects
- Compensation provided by the company: Rs. 6859.43 lakh

BCCL

- Total number of families displaced: 4,870
- 4,684 displaced families given jobs according to merit and educational qualification
- 5,148.42 ha land acquired by the company
- 15 hospitals established by the company

Western Coalfields Limited

- 16,700 families displaced and affected up to 30 June 2009 by the company
- 16,700 families given jobs according to eligibility and consolidated stipend of Rs. 5,550 per month
- 20,815.17 ha land acquired by the company up to June 2009
- For 42 new projects 23,289.43 ha area proposed for land acquisition
- 6,521 families have been resettled till date
- Rs. 107.24 crore have been spent by the company for compensation

MCL

- 360 displaced families have got employment as general workers

	• 3,067.41 acres of land acquired by the company • The company has spent Rs. 14,07,75400 as compensation for land and Rs. 12,37,0000 on compensation and resettlement
	Eastern Coalfields Limited (ECL)
	• ECL has acquired 13,749 ha of land since inception till 31 March 2009. • ECL applied for acquisition of 209.33 ha of land for new project and 2267.67 ha for expansion of old project. • Royalty of coal and sand is payable to the state government and not to any local *panchayat*
Water pollution	
1. Details of water contaminated by company activities, steps taken to clean up, any health problems, complaints received from local people, others. 2. Sources of water diverted/used for mining related works. 3. Number of villages supplied with drinking water by your company, details.	Neyveli Lignite Corporation Limited • For mining of lignite both groundwater and storm water are pumped out. Groundwater contamination is not possible due to mining. • Water bodies not available close to mine site areas. Water samples are collected once in 6 months. • No complaints recorded so far regarding health problems due to water contamination. • The company is helping meet water needs of villages as per guidance of district revenue authority. • Within the area selected for mining operations, groundwater table not required to be monitored owing to fluctuations in mine advancement taking place continuously.
	SCCL • Not identified any water pollution nor received any complaint regarding water pollution in the area. • Water monitoring involves periodical assessment of quality of mine discharge water, treated workshop effluents, treated colony effluents, ground surface water and surface water. • Water quality of bore wells and dug wells in nearby village and nearby water bodies also monitored once in three months in all mining areas of the company. • Groundwater table monitored regularly. Except for seasonal and rainfall variations, no prominent changes noticed.

Conclusions

The RTI Act is intended to facilitate affected citizens or those individuals or institutions working in public interest to access information available in government offices. However, to use this tool is a journey through frustration in most instances as the desire to share public information is largely absent in the government offices. The various bottlenecks, procedures and rules that have been created in the state acts which are different from the central act and the lack of correct information even in the websites of various departments' present confusion on application procedures. The applications are rejected for the most trivial omissions and errors with regard to procedures and rules which imply that frustrating the applicant and thereby discouraging use of the Act is the general response from government bodies. Unless information put up on the websites and available at government offices is accurate, updated and easy to access, the RTI Act will become redundant. Therefore, proper information on the RTI Act itself is required. Discrepancies in rules and procedures between departments and states have to be removed to reduce confusion over the Act. The information received so far, especially with regard to child labour, shows that the information available in the government and the process of reporting within the government have to be reviewed considering the high variance in primary data and data provided by government departments, with respect to child labour and school drop-out rates. Some of the information we have sought, with respect to water, agriculture, cropping patterns, etc., are clearly not available with the concerned departments or not available in a format where empirical conclusions and understanding can be drawn from such data. It is particularly important for government departments as stakeholders whose resources and services are impacted by mining activities, to have such authentic data and understand the trends in water, pollution, energy and health problems, in the absence of which companies have denied any problems being associated with their activities.

Annexures

Maharashtra

The table shows that in 1999-2001, the state had 1,777 stone quarries and the revenue collected was to the tune of Rs.1954.09 lakhs (from 16 districts). In 2008–09, the revenue increased to 2990.32 lakhs (covering only three districts). This increase is a reflection of the increase in the number of stone quarries, which is further indicative of the increase in unorganised sector workers.

Stone quarries in Maharashtra and revenue earned by the government

Region	District	No. of quarries	1999-2001 Revenue Amount in Rs. lakhs	2008-09 Revenue Amount in Rs. lakhs
Konkan	Mumbai			
	Upnagar			
	Thane	34		
	Rayagad	13	2.25	
	Ratnagiri	8	126	
	Sindudurg	23	115.07	
Pune	Pune	182		27.88877
	Satara	42		1,535.44
	Solapur	2		
	Sangli	31	155	1,427
	Kolhapur	15		
Nasik	Nasik	27	190.88	
	Dhule	15		
	Nandurbar	15		
	Jalgaon	2	511.94	
	Ahmadnagar		388.48	
Aurangabad	Aurangabad	116		
	Jalana	21		
	Parbhani	9	80.3	
	Hingoli		25.23	
	Beed	17	27	
North Maharashtra	Nanded	17		
	Usmanabad	5	0.59	
	Latur	34	250.38	
	Nagpur	350		
	Vardha	80	51.26	
	Bhandara	104	106.98	
	Gondhiya	69	63,40,738	
	Chandrapur	198	111.5	
	Gadchiroli	86		
North Maharashtra	Amravati	62		
	Buldhana	41		
	Akola	22		
	Vasim	28	48.85	
	Yevatmal	104		
	Total	**1,772**	**1,945.09**	**2,990.329**

Karnataka

The tables below give some district data for Bellary on total number of children, children attending school, drop outs and children brought back to school under different programmes. The data was collected by Sakhi, a organisation in Bellary district by filing RTI applicataions.the increase in unorganised sector workers.

Drop-out rate of children in Bellary district from 2006–08

Taluk	Total number of children 6– 14 years	Children attending school 6– 14 years	Children dropped out midway	Children above 7 years not admitted in school	Total	Percentage
East Bellary	54,794	50,816	1,012	399	1,411	2.58
West Bellary	51,299	47,553	865	279	1,144	2.23
Hadgali	29,518	26,322	467	25	492	1.67
H.B.Halli	28,987	25,209	1,242	57	1,299	4.48
Hospet	60,997	55,139	1,325	181	1,506	2.47
Kudligi	50,985	45,857	621	101	722	1.42
Sandur	38,675	33,906	1,742	129	1,871	4.48
Saruguppa	39,019	34,212	521	267	788	2.02
Total	354,247	319,014	7,795	1,438	9,233	2.61

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Data of children's education in Bellary district for the year 2007

Taluk	No of children	Age group 6–14 years		Age group 7–14 years			
		School- going children	Number of children admitted in school	Children above 7 years who dropped out midway A	Number of children not admitted in School above 7 years of age B	Total A+ B	Percentage
East Bellary	55,079	50,057	3,703	1,083	236	1319	2.39
West Bellary	49,923	45,655	3,589	424	255	679	1.36
Hadgalli	29,512	26,387	2,815	290	20	310	1.05
H.B.Halli	28,899	25,258	2,561	1042	38	1080	3.74
Hospet	59,789	55,419	4,001	276	93	369	0.62
Kudligi	50,126	45,246	4,491	371	18	389	0.78
Sandur	36,094	32,275	3,337	392	90	482	1.34
Siriguppa	39,678	34,596	4512	377	193	570	1.44
Total	**349,100**	**314,893**	**29,009**	**4,255**	**943**	**5,198**	**1.49**

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Data of children's education in Bellary district for the year 2007

Taluk	No of children (age group 6–14 years)	School- going children (age group 6–14 years)	Children not admitted in school below 7 years of age	Children out of school (age group 7–14 years)			
				Children who have dropped out midway A	Children not admitted in school above 7 years of age B	Total A + B	Percentage
East Bellary	57,020	52,651	3601	458	286	726	1.2732375
West Bellary	51,949	47,662	3,624	441	222	663	1.7262517
Hadgali	30,020	27,171	2,606	231	12	243	.8094604
H.B.Halli	29,670	26,509	2,413	679	56	735	2.4772497
Hospet	64,638	60,360	3,781	376	112	488	0.7549739
Kudligi	51,689	47,370	3,929	303	81	384	0.7429047
Sandur	39,935	36,633	2,829	376	96	472	1.1819206
Siruguppa	43,051	38,011	4,170	524	346	870	2.020859
Total	**367,972**	**336,367**	**26,953**	**3,388**	**1,193**	**4,581**	**1.2449**

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Census data for children in Bellary district for the year 2008

Taluk	No of children (age group 6–14 years)	School- going children (age group 6–14 years)	Children not admitted in school below 7 years of age	Children out of school (age group 7–14 years)			
				Children who have dropped out midway A	Children not admitted in school above 7 years of age B	Total A + B	Percentage
East Bellary	57,020	52,651	3601	458	286	726	1.2732375
West Bellary	51,949	47,662	3,624	441	222	663	1.7262517
Hadgali	30,020	27,171	2,606	231	12	243	.8094604
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Total	**367,972**	**336,367**	**26,953**	**3,388**	**1,193**	**4,581**	**1.2449**

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Drop-out children brought back to school under different programmes in Bellary district for the year 2006

Taluk	Drop- out children (age group 7–14 years)	Children admitted through Chinara angala to primary schools	Drop-out children studying in tent schools	Studying at home	Admitted in school through campaign	In boarding schools for 12 months	In boarding schools for 6 months	Alternative schools	Total number of children admitted in schools	Existing children out of school	Data on more children (migrants)
East Bellary	1,411	639	103	134	379	0	0	0	1255	156	0
West Bellary	1,144	557	128	132	367	0	68	0	1252	0	108
Hadagali	492	447	26	60	0	0	0	26	559	0	67
H.B.Halli	1,299	564	16	27	110	22	44	16	799	500	0
Hospet	1,506	242	355	51	295	0	0	0	943	563	0
Kudligi	722	571	0	47	121	40	0	0	779	0	57
Sandur	1,871	241	311	46	79	0	0	14	691	1,180	0
Siriguppa	788	660	13	15	40	0	0	0	728	60	0
Total	**9,233**	**3,921**	**952**	**512**	**1,391**	**62**	**112**	**56**	**7,006**	**2,459**	**232**

Note: In West Bellary, Kudligi and in Hadligi, numbers of extra children out of Bellary district were found. These children may be not from Bellary district but from out of Bellary districts and working somewhere in mining and other worksite.

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Data of drop-out children in Bellary district (February 2008)

Taluk	Drop-outs between February 2007–08 (age group 7–14 years)	Drop-out children from Bellary	Total number of drop- out children	Enrolment of drop out children in different programmes						Number of drop-out children after implementation of different programmes	Children not counted and were also drop outs , who have been brought back to schools
				Chinnara Angala	RBC	NRBC	Admission through campaign	Tent school	Total children		
East Bellary	1,319	14	1,333	645	90	115	526	97	1473	0	140
West Bellary	679	18	697	278	60	30	361	109	838	0	141
Hadagali	310	155	465	245	0	26	0	0	271	194	
H.B.Halli	1,080	0	1,080	594	0	0	40	0	634	446	
Hospet	369	245	614	201	46	0	138	143	528	86	
Kudligi	389	117	506	320	103	0	0	0	423	83	
Sandur	482	0	482	157	0	0	79	346	582	0	100
Siriguppa	570	0	570	238	100	0	47	0	385	185	
Total	**5,198**	**549**	**5,747**	**2,678**	**399**	**171**	**1191**	**695**	**5134**	**994**	**381**

Source: Sarva Siksha Abhiyan responses to RTI applications filed by local organisation Sakhi, Hospet

Glossary

Adivasi: The term used to refer to the indigenous or tribal population of India (Sanskrit language adi=beginning; vasi=dweller).

Anganwadis: A government sponsored child care and mother care centre in India. It caters to children in the 0–6 age group. The word means 'courtyard shelter' in the Hindi language. They These were started by the Indian government as a part of the ICDS programme to combat child hunger and malnutrition.

Artisanal mining: An artisanal or small-scale miner is not officially employed by a mining company, but rather works independently, mining or panning using his/her own resources. Artisanal miners often undertake the activity of mining seasonally

Assessment Survey Evaluation Report (ASER): Facilitated by Pratham, a NGO, ASER (meaning impact in Hindi) is the largest household survey undertaken in India by people outside the government. It annually measures the enrolment as well as the reading and arithmetic levels of children in the age group of 6–14 years.

Below Poverty Line (BPL): An economic benchmark and poverty threshold used by the Government of India to indicate economic disadvantage and to identify individuals and households in need of government assistance and aid. It is determined using various parameters which vary from state to state and within states.

Block: Block is a district sub-division in India.

Cent: Unit of measure of land commonly used in southern India and equals 1/100 acre (40.468 sq m).

Central Empowered Committee (CEC): Constituted on 17 September 2002 by the Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India, the CEC's broad task is to monitor and ensure the compliance of the orders of the Supreme Court (apex court of India) concerning the subject matter of forests and wildlife and other issues regarding environment.

Crore: Unit in Indian numbering (1 crore=10 million).

Dal: Dhal (also spelled Dahl, Dal, or Daal) is a dish made of lentils commonly eaten in several parts of India.

Dalit: This is a self-designation for a group of people traditionally regarded as low caste. Dalits are a mixed population of numerous caste groups all over South Asia, and speak various languages. The word 'Dalit' comes from the Marathi language, and means 'ground', 'suppressed', 'crushed', or 'broken to pieces'.

Dhaba: Small local restaurants usually found on roadsides and frequented my truck drivers.

District Information System for Education (DISE): Developed as a monitoring tool of the governments flagship education programme, Sarva Siksha Abhiyan, for all the districts of the country.

District: Local administrative units that generally form the tier of local government immediately below that of India's sub-national states and territories.

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA): In India a major legislative measures for the purpose of environmental clearance was in 1994 when specific notification was issued under the Environment Protection Act 1986 called the 'Environment Impact Assessment Notification 1994'. The legislation called for the assessment of long term and short term impacts of major projects undertaken and to evaluate beneficial and adverse impacts on the environment.

Fifth Schedule: The Fifth Schedule [under Article 244 (1) of the Constitution of India] essentially provides a historic guarantee to the adivasi people in the country on the right over their lands. The Fifth Schedule deals with the administration and control of specified areas (termed Scheduled Areas) and the adivasis living in these areas.

Free Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC): Exercise of the right to FPIC derives from indigenous peoples' (tribals/ adivasis) right to self-determination and is closely linked to peoples' rights to their lands and territories based on the customary and historical connections with them. As most commonly interpreted, the right to FPIC is meant to allow for indigenous peoples to reach consensus and make decisions according to their customary systems of decision-making.

Gram panchayat: Local governments at the village or small town level in India that can be set up in villages with minimum population of 300.

Greenfield area: Term used to describe a piece of previously undeveloped land, in a city or rural area, either currently used for agriculture or landscape design, or just left to nature.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP): A basic measure of a country's overall economic output. It is the market value of all final goods and services made within the borders of a country in a year.

Gutka: Gutka (also spelled gutkha, guttkha, guthka) is a preparation of crushed betel nut, tobacco, catechu, lime and sweet or savory flavorings. It is consumed much like chewing tobacco, and like chewing tobacco it is considered responsible for oral cancer and other severe negative health effects.

Hectare (ha): A unit of area commonly used for measuring land area (1 ha = 10,000 sq m).

Human Development Index (HDI): Composite statistic used as an index to rank countries by level of 'human development' combining three dimensions of health, literacy and standard of living.

Infant Mortality Rate (IMR): Number of newborns dying under a year of age divided by the number of live births during the year times 1,000.

Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS): The scheme was launched with the primary objective of improving the nutritional and health status of children in the age group 0–6 years.

Jansankhya Sthirata Kosh: Or the National Population Stabilisation Fund, under the Ministry of Family Health and Welfare, Government of India, the fund aims to promote and undertake activities aimed at achieving population stabilisation at a level consistent with the needs of sustainable economic growth, social development and environment protection, by 2045.

Jowar: Or sorghum, is the major staple food grain crop in many parts of India and is cultivated mostly under rain-fed conditions.

Kaccha: Refers to temporary or not so strong structures.

Kharif: A crop that is the autumn harvest. It is also known as summer or monsoon crop in India and is sown in the beginning of first rains in July.

Lakh: Unit in Indian numbering [10 lakh (1,000,000)=1 million].

Lokayukta: Helps people bring corruption to the fore mainly amongst the politicians and high ranking officers in the government service.

Mahua: Or *Madhuca longifoila* is an Indian tropical tree of great importance in the life of adivasis. Different parts of the tree have different uses — as food, for medicine and for the preparation of an alcoholic drink.

Main workers: Those workers who had worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. 6 months or more).

Mandal: *Mandal, taluk* or tehsil is an administrative level in India below states and districts.

Maoists: Also known as Naxals are an extremist group operating in different states in the country.

Marginal workers: Those workers who had not worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. less than 6 months).

Mid-day meal: Popular name for school meal programme in India. It involves provision of lunch free of cost to school children on all working days. The key objectives of the programme are: protecting children from classroom hunger, increasing school enrolment and attendance, improved socialisation among children belonging to all castes, addressing malnutrition, and social empowerment through provision of employment to women.

Millennium Development Goal (MDG): These are eight international development goals that all 192 United Nations member states and at least 23 international organisations have agreed to achieve by the year 2015. They include reducing extreme poverty, reducing child mortality rates, fighting disease epidemics such as AIDS, and developing a global partnership for development.

Mini-*ratna*: The Government of India seeks to make public sector more efficient and competitive by granting enhanced autonomy and delegation of power to make them a consistently profit-making units. By attaining the mini-ratna status, a public sector unit will have certain amount of autonomy with regard to capital expenditure, establishing joint venture companies, entering into Transfer of Technology agreements and implementation of schemes relating to human resources management.

National AIDS Control Organisation (NACO): National organisation that comes under the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India, and is concerned with the prevention, care and support on the issue of HIV/AIDS in India.

National Child Labour Project (NCLP): Scheme under the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India that envisages running of special schools for child labour withdrawn from work.

National Family Health Survey (NFHS): A large-scale, multi-round survey conducted in a representative sample of households throughout India. The survey provides state and national information on fertility, infant and child mortality, the practice of family planning, maternal and child health, reproductive health, nutrition, anaemia, utilisation and quality of health and family planning services.

National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 (NREGA): Renamed as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 it aims at enhancing the livelihood security of people in rural areas by guaranteeing 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to a rural household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work.

National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO): Organisation in the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation of the Government of India that conducts a nationwide, large-scale, continuous survey operation in the form of successive rounds.

Other Backward Castes (OBC): In the Indian Constitution, OBCs are described as 'socially and educationally backward classes', and the government is enjoined to ensure their social

and educational development.

Panchayat Raj (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act 1996: Progressive legislation passed through the 73 Amendment of the Indian Constitution that paved the way for a separate and progressive legal and administrative regime for genuine adivasi self-rule in Scheduled Areas.

Panchayat: Literally means assembly (yat) of five (panch) wise and respected elders chosen and accepted by the village community. Traditionally, these assemblies settled disputes between individuals and villages.

Parateacher: Covers a wide range of recruitment for teaching in schools and alternative learning centres. In a broad sense, any appointment, that is a deviation from the past practice in any particular state, is referred to as a parateacher. This broadly refers to large number of teachers recruited by the community (though not always), at less than the regular teacher pay scale, for the formal as well as alternative schools, to meet the demand for basic education within the limited financial resource available, in the shortest possible time.

Pattas: Title deeds for lands or houses in India

Primary Health Centre (PHC): These are the cornerstone of rural healthcare in India that supposed to meet the health care needs of rural populations. Each PHC covers a population of 100,000 and is spread over about 100 villages. A Medical Officer, Block Extension Educator, one female Health Assistant, a compounder, a driver and laboratory technician are assigned to look after each PHC. It is equipped with a jeep and necessary facilities to carry out small surgeries. The PHCs are established and maintained by the state governments.

Public Distribution System (PDS): Facilitates the supply of food grains to the poor at a subsidised price.

Public Information Officer (PIO): Under the RTI Act all government departments must appoint a PIO to whom the applications requesting information are sent. It is the PIO's obligation to provide information to citizens of India who request information under the Act.

Pucca: Refers to permanent and strong structures

Rat hole mining: Mining done in the form of a long narrow tunnel.

Ration cards: An important part of the PDS in India. On the basis of their economic condition, people can buy goods like food grains, sugar, kerosene, etc. at varying prices, with the help of their ration cards.

Right to Information Act 2005 (RTI): Act that mandates timely response to citizen requests for government information.

Rotis: Unleavened flat bread made from flour.

Rupees (Rs.): Official unit of currency in India

Sahayak: assistant or helper

Salwa Judum: Meaning 'peace march' in the Gondi language this is the controversial state supported anti-Maoist movement in the state of Chhattisgarh, India.

Samatha Judgement: The judgment given by the Supreme Court of India was the result of Samata's, a grassroots organisation's, decade long struggle against mining and protection of adivasis land rights.

Sarpanch: The Sarpanch or Chairperson is the head of the Gram panchayat.

Sarva Siksha Abhiyan: Or the 'Education for All' movement, is a flagship programme of the Government of India for achievement of universalisation of elementary education in a time bound manner.

Scheduled Area: Those regions with a predominantly adivasi population. Scheduled Areas are spread across nine states in India

Scheduled Caste (SC): Any of the historically disadvantaged Indian castes of low rank, now under government protection. Some Scheduled Castes are also known as dalits.

Scheduled Tribe (ST): Specific indigenous peoples whose status is acknowledged to some formal degree by national legislation in India.

Scheduled Tribes and Other Traditional Forest Dwellers (Recognition of Forest Rights) Act 2006: This Act is a key legislation passed in India and is concerned with the rights of forest-dwelling communities to land and other resources, denied to them over decades.

Sex ratio: Defined as the number of females per 1,000 males in the population. It is expressed as 'number of females per 1000 males'.

Special Economic Zone (SEZ): A geographical region that has economic laws that are more liberal than a country's typical economic laws.

State Domestic Product (SDP): Aggregate of the economic value of all goods and services produced within the geographical boundaries of the state, counted without duplication during a specified period of time, usually a year.

Taluka: see mandal

Under five mortality: This is the probability of a child born in a specific year or period dying before reaching the age of five, if subject to age specific mortality rates of that period.

Vimukta Jati: Nomadic tribes in India who due to wandering traditions of over hundreds of years without any good means of life under the influence of caste system, were forced to live under sub-human conditions.

Dhaatri Resource Centre
for Women and Children

Samata
Assertion for people

HAQ Centre for Child Rights

mm&P
mines, minerals & PEOPLE