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Situation Analysis on Child Labor in Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar



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SITUATION ANALYSIS
ON CHILD LABOR IN
TANZANIA MAINLAND
AND ZANZIBAR

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This situation analysis report was prepared to help the United States Department of Labor (USDOL) staff understand the situation of child labor in Tanzania and to provide an overview of the particulars of child labor in Tanzania, and of the extent, scope and characteristics of the effort by governmental and non-governmental agencies in Tanzania to reduce or eliminate child labor.

In 2006 there were more than 2.4 million children engaged in child labor in Tanzania, of which nearly 600,000 were working in hazardous conditions. Child labor is related to poverty, lack of social protection measures, a weak education system, the failure of rural diversification programs, and culture.

There are existing laws and policies prohibiting child labor and especially its worst forms; Tanzania has adopted international standards and although some gaps remain, there is a robust legislative framework defining child labor and providing for the enforcement of child labor prohibitions. However, enforcement mechanisms remain weak.

There are also a number of governmental, international and grassroots efforts underway in Tanzania to reduce child labor. New initiatives to combat child labor in Tanzania should take advantage of the existing network of organizations working in this area to identify opportunities for program support and partnership.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADF	African Development Fund
ANGOZA	Association of NGOs of Zanzibar
ARSH	Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health
ASDP	Agriculture Sector Development Program
ATE	Association of Tanzania Employers
BAKWATA	Baraza Kuu la Waislam Tanzania (Muslim Council of Tanzania)
BCC	Behavior Change Communication
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CFS	Child Friendly Schools
CHODAWU	Conservation, Hotels and Domestic Allied Workers Union
CL	Child Labor
CLMS	Child Labor Monitoring System
CMACs	Council Multi Sectoral Aids Committee
COBET	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
COWPZ	Catalyst Organization For Women Progress In Zanzibar
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CREW	Credit Scheme for Productive Activities of Women
CSEC	Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
CSPD	Child Survival Protection and Development
DANIDA	Danish Development Agency
DDT	Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DSW	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare
DTV	Dar es Salaam Television
ELRA	Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FFA	Food-For-Assets
FFE	Food for Education
FFW	Food-For-Work
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FHI	Family Health International
FLE	Family Life Education
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GF	Global Fund
GSESP	Girls Secondary Education Support Programme

HBS	Household Budget Survey
IDI	In-Depth Interview
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IG	Income Generation
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
ITV	Independent Television
KIWOHEDE	Kiota Women’s Health for Development
LCA	Law of the Child Act of 2009
LGA	Local Government Authority
M&E	Monitoring & Evaluation
MCH	Maternal and Child Health Services
MDGs	United Nations Millennium Development Goals
MKUKUTA	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
MoE	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MOI	Muhimbili Orthopaedic Institute
MVC	Most Vulnerable Children
MVCC	Most Vulnerable Children’s Committee
NAP	National Action Plan
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NCPA	National Costed Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NISCC	National Intersectoral Coordinating Committee
NOLA	National Organization for Legal Aid
NOTA	Norway-Tanzania
NPA	National Plan of Action
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
ONE UN	One United Nations
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Act
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PADEP	Primary Agriculture Development Programme
PEPFAR	President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PHC	Primary Health Care
PHDR	Poverty and Human Development Report
PMCT	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission
PMORALG	Prime Minister’s Office Regional Administration and Local Government
PSW	Para-Social Workers
SACCOS	Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies
SELF	Social Economic Loan Fund
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SGR	Strategic Grain Reserve

SHP	School Health Programme
SIMPOC	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
SNA	Social Network Analysis
SOSPA	Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act
TACAIDS	Tanzania commission for AIDS
TAMICO	Tanzania Mining and Construction Union
TAWLA	Tanzania Women Lawyers Association
TBP	Time Bound Programme
TCTF	Vocational Training Trust Fund
TDHS	Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey
TEN	Tanzania Education Network
TFTU	Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions
THMIS	Tanzania Health and Malaria Indicator Survey
TMAP	Tanzania Multisectoral Aids Project
TPAWU	Tanzania Plantations and Agricultural Workers Union
TRCS	Tanzania Religious Councils
UNDAF	United Nations Development Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USDOL	United States Department of Labor
UTSP	Urambo Tobacco Sector Project
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority
WEDTF	Women’s Entrepreneurship Development Trust Fund
WFCL	Worst Forms of Child Labor
WFP	United Nations World Food Programme
ZASO	Zanzibar AIDS Association and Support of Orphans

INTRODUCTION

USDOL has contributed significantly to funding projects to combat child labor in Tanzania, and in the East African region. The situation analysis of Tanzania is a research exercise which provides an assessment of the country's policy environment as it relates to the elimination of the worst forms of child labor. The analysis uses key informant interviews, a literature review, and survey questionnaires to gather data to answer key questions about the state of child labor in the country, and to identify priority areas for child labor programming.

The situation analysis provides an assessment of the country's policy environment as it relates to the elimination of the worst forms of child labor, economic and social consequences of child labor in the country. The situation analysis focuses on identifying what legislation and policy commitments have been made and what programs exist to combat exploitive child labor. The analysis also includes an assessment of the extent and nature of child labor and the economic and social causes of child labor. The research reviews previous and current government and donor-funded programs focused on child labor and related to child labor. It also reviews lessons learned, good practices, and legacies of programs implemented by USDOL-funded projects, government, civil society, and other external donor activities. This information will inform how future USDOL efforts can make the most impact.

The scope of this analysis includes a review and assessment of the Tanzanian policy environment as relevant to exploitive child labor, through an analysis of the country's national legislation, policies and programs and international commitments. The policy environment will be assessed in the context of USDOL and other development partners' activities and programs focused on the worst forms of child labor and livelihoods. The assessment also includes programs that are not specifically focused on child labor but may have an impact on child labor.

It is expected that the findings and recommendations of this situation analysis will be shared among ministries, multilateral and bilateral donors, international organizations, civil society, workers' and employers' organizations and other key international, national and local stakeholders working on child labor issues. The report will be used to assess the level of efforts and areas of involvement for various stakeholders, complementarities, gaps and priorities in support of the Government of Tanzania's National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) 2005-2010 and Timebound Program, and to help USDOL and other stakeholders clarify and validate potential program area directions for future efforts.

METHODOLOGY

The research team conducted a review of published research on child labor in Tanzania and undertook a review of international and national legislation bearing on the issue. The research team also identified major stakeholders in child labor prevention, as well as related areas such as child protection and education, and conducted key informant interviews and focus group interviews with those informants. These stakeholders included representatives from national and international/multilateral donors, relevant non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and officials from key government ministries and local child labor committees. The researcher employed a respondent-driven “snowball” sampling technique to develop an inclusive list of sources who are well-informed about child labor and related areas in the country. The snowball sample began with an initial list of 52 organizations, each of which was approached to participate in two different survey interviews. The first interview was completed by 34 organizations and used an instrument designed to elicit information on the geographic reach of services provided by that organization. The second interview was completed by 46 organizations, and used a social network instrument in which the respondent was asked about his or her organization’s connections with other organizations among the initial list of 52 organizations. This instrument also asked respondents to nominate other organizations not on the list. The resulting expanded list included a total of 131 organizations. The additional organizations were not approached for interviews. A social network analysis (SNA) was used to characterize the relationships between different stakeholder organizations which address child labor in Tanzania. These stakeholder organizations were drawn from the sample mentioned above. These data were analyzed using special-purpose social network analysis software to show graphically the relationships between the major stakeholders in child labor policy work.

The research team also analyzed existing data from a 2006 Tanzania Integrated Labor Force Survey to provide information on prevalence of child labor, and other relevant information on Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC), child protection, and education. These data were triangulated with information collected from interviews and from the literature review to provide further information on the conditions, prevalence, and causes of child labor.

A mapping exercise was used to visually demonstrate areas of child labor prevalence, existing child labor programming, and the gaps between prevalence and program areas. Mapping data were gathered from two sources: 1) statistics on child labor prevalence from the Tanzania Labor Force Survey 2006 and/or the Tanzania National Panel Survey 2008-2009 and 2) written questionnaires distributed to the key informants in the sample described above. The written questionnaire gathered information on the activities and interventions of the organizations affiliated with each informant, including type and location of activity/intervention.

These data were used to create a series of maps that show the regions where child labor is most prevalent, where activities to address child labor exist, what types of activities exist, how many beneficiaries are targeted, and where gaps between activities and need exist.

SECTION I: OVERVIEW OF THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT SITUATION IN TANZANIA

Background

Tanzania has a population of 38.7 million people of which 1.1 million reside in Zanzibar¹. Children constitute about 31.4% of the population in Mainland Tanzania and more than half of the population in Zanzibar.² The population is predominantly rural, with three quarters earning income from small-scale farms (the Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS) of 2006 indicates that 77% of the rural labor force is employed in agriculture). The population in Zanzibar is more urbanized, with 40% living in urban areas. Poverty is pervasive in rural areas, both in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar.³

According to the 2007 Household Budget Survey (HBS), the population below the basic needs poverty line is 33.6% while the incidence of food poverty is 16.6% in Mainland Tanzania. In Zanzibar, the population below the basic needs poverty line is 48% while the population below the food poverty line is 13%. Poverty rates are higher in rural areas—37.6% of rural households live below the basic needs poverty line compared with 24% in urban areas. In Zanzibar, 60% of the people in Pemba live below the basic needs poverty line while 22% live below the food needs poverty line. The situation is not significantly different for Unguja, where 42% of the population lives below the basic needs poverty line and 10% lives below the food poverty line.

Table 1. Household Budget Survey 2007 (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2009)

Poverty Line	Year	Dar es Salaam	Other urban areas	Rural areas	Mainland Tanzania
Food	1991/92	13.6	15.0	23.1	21.6
	2000/01	7.5	13.2	20.4	18.7
	2007	7.4	12.9	18.4	16.6
Basic Needs	1991/92	28.1	28.7	40.8	38.6
	2000/01	17.6	25.8	38.7	35.7
	2007	16.4	24.1	37.6	33.6

Poverty is also characterized by numbers of dependents in a household: the larger the number of dependents, the higher the likelihood of illiteracy and poverty.

Life expectancy at birth is estimated to be 51 years⁴. Fertility rates are much higher among rural women (6.5), compared with urban residents (3.6). Fertility rates are associated with the education levels of women; the higher the education level, the lower the fertility rates. Tanzania

¹ (National Bureau of Statistics, United Republic of Tanzania, 2006)

² (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2003; United States Agency for International Development, President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief, & Salvation Army World Service Office, 2009) (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2008)

³ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, United Nations Development Programme, & Research on Poverty Alleviation, 2006)

⁴ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2003)

is ranked 159 out of 177 countries based on the Human Development Index⁵.

There has been a sustained rate of growth between 6 to 8% Gross Domestic Product (GDP) since 2005.⁶ Agriculture, the leading economic activity in Tanzania, has grown about 4.7% between 2000–2006, which is considered below average and inadequate to meet national goals of poverty reduction.⁷ Overall, Tanzania registered a 24% decline in GDP in 2008. Meanwhile, the services sector has grown at an annual rate of 7.5% since 2000; it now accounts for 48% of GDP. Mining has been the fastest-growing sector in Tanzania, with an average of 15% growth between 2000–2006. Likewise, the manufacturing sector has gone up by 7.5%; trade, hotels, and restaurants by 7.3%. Unemployment is most severe among youth between the ages of 15–24. It is important to note that the growth in GDP has not trickled down to Tanzania's poorest groups; the income poverty rate changed insignificantly between 2001–2007, and the share of household consumption in total GDP declined from 77% to 73% between 2000–2001 and in 2007.

In Zanzibar, the service sector has contributed substantially to economic growth in 2007; it contributed up to 44% of the GDP, followed by agriculture (27.5%) and industry (15.1%). Almost half of the resources to fund growth and poverty reduction in Zanzibar come from domestic revenues, but the economy is still highly reliant on external funding. For example, donor funding in 2005–2006 accounted for 94% of total development expenditure. In health, external financing contributed to two-thirds of the public health spending in 2005–2006. Government expenditure on social services is low; overall, 30% of the development budget was directed to improving social services and well-being in 2006–2007—13.2% was education and 11.1% was health—while 61% was directed to economic growth and reduction of income poverty.⁸

Child Poverty and Vulnerability

A significant number of poor children live in Tanzania. Poverty can have a strong impact on the development and survival rights of the child and extend over an individual's entire life. This pervasive lifetime influence of poverty contributes to a persistent pattern of intergenerational poverty.⁹ Tanzania's most vulnerable children (MVC) include the under fives, working children, street children, orphaned children or children whose parents have been infected with the HIV/AIDS virus, child mothers and children with disabilities.¹⁰ In Zanzibar, the definition of MVC extends to children who have difficulty accessing essential livelihood items, children born out of wedlock, and children from divorced families. Between 1.2 and 2.5 million Tanzania children have been orphaned. The 2007–2008 Tanzania Health and Malaria Indicator Survey (THMIS) indicates that 24% of Tanzanian children live with single parents while 15% live without parents. The overall percentage of children under the age of 18 with one or both parents dead is 11%. Regions with the highest number of orphans include Iringa (24%); Mara (15%); Tanga, Rukwa, and Kilimanjaro (13%); and Kagera (12%). In Zanzibar, Pemba has 60% of the MVC while Unguja has 40%. Districts with the highest numbers of MVC include Chakechake

⁵ (Watkins, 2007)

⁶ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009a)

⁷ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania et al., 2006)

⁸ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

⁹ (Yaqub, 2002)

¹⁰ (Leach, 2008)

(53%), Micheweni (15%), and Wete (12%).¹¹

Table 2. Percent of Children in Mainland Tanzania—Parental Status

Age	Living with Both Parents	Living with Mother but Not Father		Living with Father but Not Mother		Not Living with Either Parent				Missing Information on Father/Mother	Percentage Orphaned	Total
		Father Alive	Father Dead	Mother Alive	Mother Dead	Both Alive	Only Father Alive	Only Mother Alive	Both Dead			
<2	77.6	19.7	1.0	0.1	0.0	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.4	100
2-4	69.0	17.1	2.2	2.0	0.3	7.6	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.6	3.8	100
5-9	61.5	13.9	4.5	4.4	1.2	10.7	0.9	1.4	0.7	0.9	8.7	100
10-14	52.2	12.0	5.6	6.1	2.0	13.1	2.5	3.2	2.2	1.0	15.8	100
15-17	41.5	11.8	6.8	4.3	2.5	19.5	2.9	4.4	3.4	2.9	20.4	100
All	60.5	14.6	4.1	3.8	1.2	10.3	1.4	1.8	1.2	1.0	9.9	100

Source: National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2009

The Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey of 2004–2005 indicates that almost half of all children in rural Tanzania suffer three or more severe deprivations of basic needs, most of them are in the lowest wealth quintile and residing in rural areas (48%). Based on population and poverty estimates in 2007, 5.7 million children aged 0–14 live below the basic needs poverty line, and approximately 2.8 million children live below the food poverty line.¹² The incidence of poverty is higher in Mainland Tanzania compared to Zanzibar; approximately 41% of children in Mainland Tanzania suffer three or more severe deprivations compared with 62% in Zanzibar suffering at least one severe deprivation, particularly in rural areas.¹³

According to a study commissioned by the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), the incidence of absolute poverty—defined as suffering two or more deprivations—among Tanzanian children is 71%. The most frequent severe deprivations for children are shelter and water.¹⁴ At least four out of five Tanzania children suffered from severe shelter deprivation (78%), and three out of five children (63%) suffered from severe water deprivation in 2004–2005. There were declines in severe deprivation related to education and malnutrition mainly due to national programs aimed at improving these areas. In Zanzibar, rural children are far more likely to be deprived compared to urban children. Deprivation is likely up to three times higher for rural children. Almost three times as many children in mainland rural areas suffered from absolute poverty (83%) compared to urban-based children (29%). In Zanzibar, 49% of rural children live in absolute poverty compared to 10% in urban areas. Nevertheless, the incidence of poverty in Zanzibar (38%) is lower than that of Mainland Tanzania (72%).¹⁵

Significant regional variations exist due to differing levels of development. Children in the

¹¹ (Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar, 2009)

¹² (United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a)

¹³ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania et al., 2006)

¹⁴ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania et al., 2006)

¹⁵ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania et al., 2006)

southern and central regions are more deprived than children in eastern and western regions. Predictors of deprivations include family size, child gender, and particularly mother’s level of education.

Child abuse, exploitation, and neglect are reportedly on the increase, and prevention and response levels to child abuse and exploitation are low in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar due to limited community awareness and lack of effective response and preventive systems and structures.¹⁶ According to the 2007–2008 THMIS, orphaned children in Mainland Tanzania are more likely to engage in sex before the age of 15 than non-orphaned children (13% versus 10% for girls and 13% versus 11% for boys). In Zanzibar, cases of physical violence come before formal institutions, but sexual violence remains a major concern in the general public. Studies establish that adolescent girls are at most risk of sexual violence than any other group.¹⁷

Programs Targeting MVC

Support to MVC provided through the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare is limited in reach and scope. Programs are mainly implemented by national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) funded by the United States government and other donors. Some of the key international NGOs implementing programs funded by the US government are:

Table 3. NGOs Implementing MVC Programs

	Cost/Beneficiary	Budget	Target Individuals
Deloitte/Tunajali	80	4,980,000	62,000
PACT	100	5,000,000	50,000
Salvation Army	47	700,000	15,000
Africare	24	950,000	40,000
Pathfinder	109	1,200,000	11,000
Kihumbe	54	150,000	2,800
Balm in Gilead	57	400,000	7,000
Selian	50	150,000	3,000
PASADA	140	700,000	5,000
Total		14,230,000	195,800

Avg. Cost per Beneficiary	73.39
Weighted Avg. Cost per Beneficiary	72.68

Source: Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, OVC-MVC Data, 2009

The NGOs were selected through a competitive bidding process and the programs covered a period of five years from April 2004 – September 2009.¹⁸ These programs have demonstrated

¹⁶ (Leach, 2007)

¹⁷ (Maoulidi & U. Mallya, 2007)

¹⁸ (United States Agency for International Development et al., 2009)

significant impact on the lives of children, particularly those that targeted improved psychosocial well-being of children, better access to healthcare and health-related interventions, food, clothing, and other basic.¹⁹ However, sustainability is still questionable as community members remain dependent on government and other donors as evidenced in *Jali Watoto* program, one of the MVC programs evaluated by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) where 34% of the beneficiaries thought it was the government's and NGO's responsibility to care for MVC. In some of the interventions, the response of the community was not positive, indicating lack of ownership and interest in such programs, perhaps due to problems in the approaches used or other factors.²⁰ Likewise, the data collection and reporting mechanisms are still not synchronized despite the existence of a national monitoring system leading to inaccuracies in data, unavailability of data for some regions, and a general lack of a tracking system.²¹

Social Protection Schemes for the Poor

Formal social protection arrangements for the poor and vulnerable are overwhelmed and not working as effectively as they should. At the same time, formal-based insurance schemes are insufficient to cut across categories of vulnerable groups. By 2007, formal insurance schemes covered only 760,000 long-term beneficiaries and only 2.8% of the labor force.²² However, these schemes have been largely limited in reach and scope. For example, old age and disability insurance are hard to reach; the 2007 HBS shows that more than 80% of the elderly who attended government health facilities had to pay for services despite the existence of the elderly policy, which exempts them from paying service fees; insurance that covers educational benefits for children basically covers employees in the formal sector, who constitute a small percentage of the population;²³ and formal insurance schemes are not accessible to the poor. Likewise, access to financial loaning institutions is extremely limited to the poor.

Other social protection measures provided by government include education sponsorship for vulnerable children, mobility aids for children with disability, housing and resettlement for vulnerable individuals, income generation for persons with HIV and AIDS, some funding mechanisms for special groups such as women and youths, and public works programs (short-term interventions). These, plus other mechanisms, have their limitations; the major limitation includes limited coverage, access, and in some cases unsustainability.^{24,25} The United Nations

¹⁹ (Paul Hutchinson & Tonya R. Thurman, 2009)

²⁰ (Tonya Renee Thurman, Anna Hoffman, Minki Chatterji, & Lisanne Brown, 2007)

²¹ (Paul Hutchinson & Tonya R. Thurman, 2009)

²² (United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a)

²³ (Van Ginneken, 1999)

²⁴ (Research on Poverty Alleviation, 2007)

²⁵ Schemes, such as a multimillion dollar social support program that was managed by Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF), have had low coverage, are mainly donor dependent, and have not been expanded to other geographical areas; the Tanzania National Voucher Scheme for pregnant women is aimed at reducing the incidence of malaria in pregnant women and children. This seems to be working, but mainly in urban areas as it is linked to attendance to antenatal clinics, which in rural areas are few and in some areas, nonexistent; school feeding programs run by a number of organizations, including the WFP, have had limited coverage; direct assistance to MVC and their caretakers comes mainly from faith-based, non-governmental community organizations, though these have had significant impact, they are unsustainable, insufficient provisions and coverage and donor dependent; the youth and MVC programs are underfunded and implementation is obstructed by low numbers of staff, weak systems, and

World Food Programme (WFP), for example, is often able to cover a limited number of regions as evidenced in one their food-for-work (FFW) or food-for-assets (FFA) programs implemented since the 1980s. The program focuses on food security and disaster mitigation in drought-prone and poverty-ridden areas. The targeted regions are Arusha, Dodoma, Tabora, Singida, Shinyanga, Mwanza, Kilimanjaro, and Manyara; likewise, school feeding programs, such as the Food for Education (FFE) program, have had a significant impact, including increased gross enrollment at the assisted schools and attendance rates that were regularly below 40% before the program increased to 75% in 2001.²⁶ The average enrollment of primary school students at assisted schools in 2007 was 32% higher than that of 2002.²⁷ During the same period, boys' and girls' enrollments increased by 29% and 35%, respectively.²⁸ The following diagram clearly depicts the impact of such programs on enrollment:

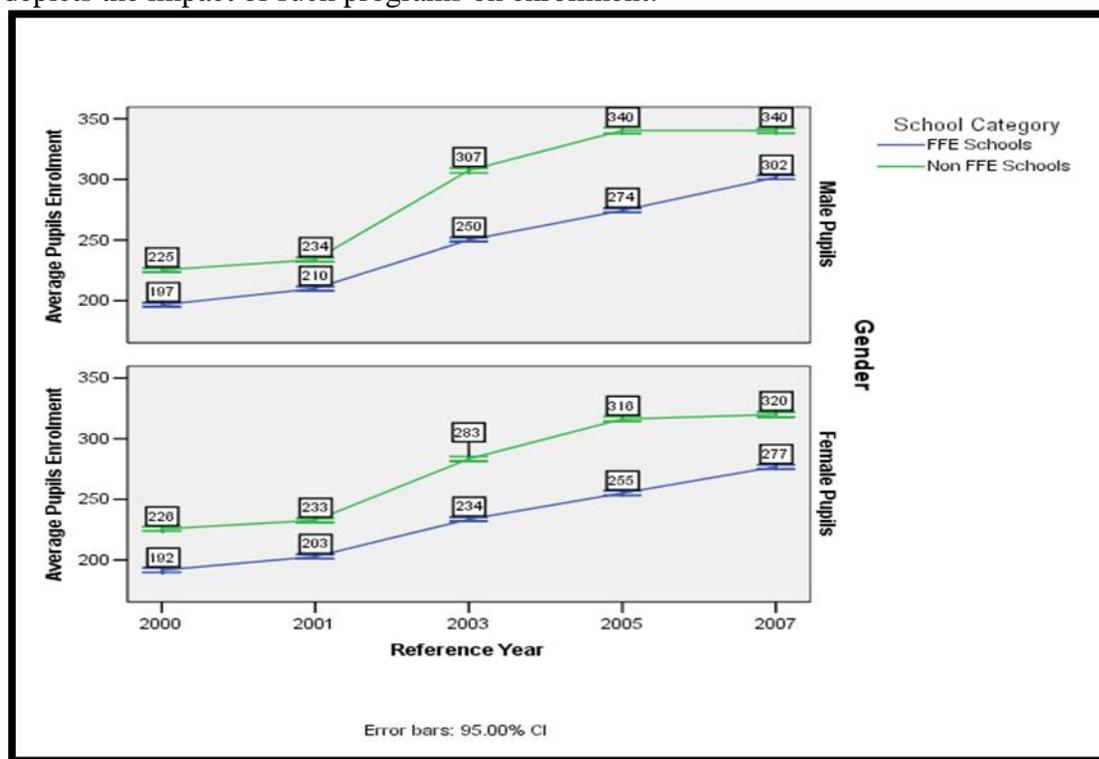


Figure 1. Impact of WFP and FFE Programs on School Enrollment

Though these programs have proved effective in increasing enrolment rates, such programs are not easily replicated by other schools without donor or government funding. There is also a lack of knowledge on the need for such interventions, food insecurity in some of the regions, and lack of legislation to ensure enforcement. The programs also need to address the nutritional status of children and cover larger areas in order to have substantial impact children. The pilot Cash Transfer Programme—implemented by Save the Children between October 2007 and June 2009 in three villages in the Lindi district—was a timely intervention in terms of ensuring access to food and other basic needs, but it did not have an impact on the nutritional status of children

structures.

²⁶ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009c)

²⁷ WFP's analysis of enrolment data collected from FFE schools between 2002 and 2007.

²⁸ (World Food Programme, 2008)

because the type of food purchased did not meet minimum nutritional requirements for children. Similarly, the reach was very minimal— in 21 months, the project was only able to reach 60 out of 150 households.

Over the years, the poor therefore have developed their own coping mechanisms, including formation of Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOS). It is reported that approximately 50% of the SACCOS are operated in urban areas, such as Dar es Salaam, Kilimajaro, Mbeya, and Kagera, and only 26% of the members are female.²⁹ Vulnerable children and their caretakers are supported through welfare schemes by friends and extended family members or through other informal, community-based means.

Investment in Education, Health and Water and Sanitation

Recently, investment in the development sector has significantly increased, particularly sectors affecting the development and welfare of children—including education, health, water and sanitation and food and shelter—but it is still inadequate compared to the actual need. Thus, basic education and health programs, as well as water, have received a substantial share of the public budget, but the quality of services, unequal distribution among regions, gender inequalities, and dependence on external provided remains a great challenge.³⁰ More than half of the budget for these sectors depends on donor funding, and lack of coordination, lack of strategic planning, and implementation of children’s issues has been a major concern.

Some of the studies have concluded that national planning and budget processes do not directly prioritize children’s development, nor are they pro poor. Although allocation in health and education has increased, there have not been changes in other aspects of well-being such as nutrition and child protection. Likewise, the mainstreaming of children’s issues in budget processes is not systematic. A brief synopsis below provides information on the status of service sector delivery for the key sectors:

Education—Continued expansion in access to primary education, less for secondary and tertiary education. Net primary school enrollment for Mainland Tanzania is 97.2% in 2008 and minimal disparity exists across regions and between rural and urban children, boys and girls, poor and rich. However, pass rates are low; for example, in 2007, 54% of children leaving primary school passed their primary level examinations. There are gender variations and regional pass rates. Although efforts were made to increase access to secondary education, entrance into secondary education is still hindered by many factors, including poor quality of education, limited access, and lack of financial resources at the household level. Thus, expansion in secondary school has not necessarily benefited the poor. Access to technical and vocational education and training is extremely limited because it has been underfunded.³¹

Health—Under five mortality has declined, and Tanzania is considered on track to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) for under five mortality in 2015. The THMIS 2007/2008 indicates that under five mortality rates have declined from 112 deaths per 1000 live

²⁹ (Research on Poverty Alleviation, 2007)

³⁰ (Research on Poverty Alleviation & United Nations Children’s Fund, 2010)

³¹ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

births in 2004/2005 to 91. However, neonatal and maternal mortality rates have remained high over the past decade with little improvement. More than 8,000 women die from maternal causes each year (UNICEF, 2009). Wide variations exist in rates of under five and maternal mortality across regions, mainly influenced by wealth quintiles, mother's level of education, and fertility behaviors. In Zanzibar, under five and infant mortality rates have fallen since 2004/2005 from 101 to 79 in 2007/2008. Neonatal remains high at 31, a 7% increase over the same period. However, variations exist between Unguja and Pemba. In Pemba, under five mortality is higher (89 to 72), and maternal mortality (1998) is 377 per 100,000 births. But in Zanzibar, investment in the health sector led to increased access to health facilities from 33% in 1991/1992 to 49% in 2004/2005. However, access to these facilities is limited, and women from wealthier families have greater access to health facilities than women from poorer households.

Percentage of households with insecticide-treated mosquito nets is extremely limited—only 39% of the population has such nets, and 59% are urban based. Regional distribution is also uneven, with the Mara region having 57% coverage while Iringa has 18% coverage. Pemba and Unguja have up to 76% coverage. Access to anti-malaria drugs and malaria treatment is encouraging; 60% of pregnant women and 57% of children under five receive anti-malaria drugs.

HIV and AIDs prevalence rates have declined across all age groups.³² HIV prevalence among youth aged 15–19 years is 1.0%, although prevalence among girls is higher than boys.

Women and children—particularly girls—experience different forms of sexual- and gender-based violence in Tanzania. Violence is experienced in the household, the community, and in institutions. Children are vulnerable from sexual, physical, psychological, and emotional abuse from parents and other community members while women experience violence mainly in the household. Although Tanzania has a gender-based violence (GBV) strategy, little action has been taken to address this problem.

Water and sanitation—access to clean and safe water is still limited in both urban and rural areas. Improvement in hygiene practices is hindered by lack of water and soap, sanitary latrines, and effective waste disposal; as a result, waterborne diseases are prevalent and a major cause of death in children less than five years of age. The Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) 2004/2005 found that 54% of Tanzania households had access to clean water sources. The HBS 2007 data shows that poorer households are paying more for water than wealthier households as a proportion of total household expenditure.

³² (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

SECTION II: CHILD LABOR IN TANZANIA MAINLAND AND ZANZIBAR

The ILFS of 2006 indicates that more than 2.4 million children below 18 years are engaged in child labor in Tanzania; 591,846 are working in hazardous conditions primarily in commercial agriculture, mining and quarrying, domestic service, and commercial sex. Compared to the 2001/2002 ILFS, the problem seems to be decreasing. At that time, an estimated 4,735,280 children ages 5–14 were working (36.2% percent boys and 34.5% girls), and approximately 77.4% were working in the agriculture sector, followed by services and manufacturing. This decline in the percentage of child labor is attributed to several factors, including the government and International Labor Organization (ILO) interventions to address child labor, policy and legal interventions, as well as improvement in enrollment rates in the education sector. However, efforts to eradicate the problem are still greatly needed. An analytical report of the ILFS 2006 points out that child labor is still pervasive; more than 20% of mainland children ages 5–17 are working.³³ The problem is still more rural than urban based.

Children work in the household, in the community, and in mostly all productive sectors. Within the household, they work as domestic workers, in family enterprises, and in subsistence agriculture (including growing cash crops); in the community, they work in commercial agriculture, particularly household cash crop farms or plantations; they work in urban areas as commercial sex workers and hawkers; and they work in industries such as mining and fishing. The National Action Plan for the Elimination of Child Labor states that not all work done by children is classified as child labor targeted for elimination. It recognizes work done in the household that does not affect health or personal development or interfere with education.

The ILFS 2006 categorized hazardous work as work that involves exposure to dangerous tools or animals; carrying heavy loads frequently; working underground or at great heights; work that is physically, emotionally, or sexually abusive; exposure to chemicals; and long working hours. The survey found that 70% of the children aged 5–17 are engaged in economic activities outside their homes while 84.8% work both at home and outside their homes. There is also a gender dimension to child labor: a larger percentage of girls (85%) are involved in both economic activities as well as household activities compared to boys (84%), though the margin of difference is minimal. Again, poverty, family size, and literacy rates of mothers emerged as key push factors into child labor. The survey found that most children whose families earn less than 100,000/-a month—approximately USD75—engage in economic activities to supplement family income.³⁴

Sectors Employing Children

Research respondents seemed to have similar ideas regarding the regions where child labor is most rampant—Dar es Salaam, Arusha Mererani, Shinyanga, Tabora, Iringa, Mwanza, and Tanga. These regions have high numbers of child laborers because of the demand for domestic work, mining activities, stone quarrying activities, tobacco and tea plantations, fishing activities, and the growth of the informal sector. One respondent from Arusha Mererani (District Executive Officer) mentioned that child labor is also prevalent on flower farms and in pastoral communities

³³ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2008)

³⁴ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania, 2008)

whereby the Maasai force their children to herd cattle for days without resting or attending schools. He mentioned that child labor has diminished to a large extent in the mining area in Mererani because there is now a law that prohibits employment of children generally.

Child labor is recorded to be most prevalent in the agriculture sector, in mainly large-scale plantations that produce tea, sugar cane, rubber, coffee, sisal, wheat, cotton, tobacco, and rice.^{35,36} Studies show that almost 80% of rural-based children aged 5–17 support their parents by working in plantations and agriculture farms. During the harvest season, they work on neighboring farms to earn extra income. A report by the ILO³⁷ indicates that one of every three children aged 10–14 work outside their households mainly as farm workers and in exploitative and abusive conditions. Child labor in commercial agriculture is mainly associated with sugarcane, sisal, tobacco, tea, coffee, cloves, and cut-flower plantations and is primarily concentrated in the Arusha, Iringa, Kilimanjaro, Mbeya, Morogoro, Rukwa, Tabora, Tanga and Zanzibar regions.

Key gender issues in child labor in agriculture include how girls combine work in agriculture with domestic chores, resulting in further reduced educational opportunities for them. Girls in rural areas tend to begin work young—at 5, 6, or 7 years of age. The work that girls perform in agriculture is often not recognized because they work on the family farms as part of their daily routine or they undertake piecework or work under a quota system on larger farms or plantations as part of migrant worker families.

The combined effects of household poverty and gender relations contribute to reduce development opportunity for girls. Girl's labor is used to substitute for their mothers' example by caring for siblings and other household chores. Child labor has also contributed to early and forced marriages and gender discrimination between boys and girls due to the gender roles and gender stereotyping in many families that are inculcated at a very young age in the socializations of children, especially girls.

The domestic work sector is also one of the growing sectors employing children, particularly girls. Girls aged 7–18 are believed to migrate from rural to urban areas looking for employment in the domestic sector in conditions that are habitually hidden, abusive, and exploitative.^{38,39} According to the children themselves, other sectors considered hazardous include mining, drug trafficking, and prostitution (RAWG 2007). The percentage of boys working in rural areas is similar to the percentage of boys working in urban areas, with minor differences across all the years except for the fact that in 2006. The percentage of working boys in urban areas seemed to have reduced significantly, from 83% in 2001 to 51% in 2006. This, however, contradicts REPOA's findings from a baseline study on child labor in 2003, which concluded that child labor is more rampant in urban areas than in rural areas.

³⁵ (George S. Nchahaga, 2002)

³⁶ (A. Masudi, A. Ishumi, F. Mbeo, & W. Sambo, 2001)

³⁷ (International Labour Organization, 2006)

³⁸ (E. Kamala, E. Lusinde, J. Millinga, & J. Mwaitula, 2001)

³⁹ (Kate Forrester Kibuga, 2000)

In the mining sector, largely in small artisanal mines, children work on the surface and underground. Children working underground are commonly known as “snake boys”—children who crawl through narrow tunnels hundreds of meters long to position mining equipment and ignite and sometimes assess the effectiveness of explosions.⁴⁰ Child labor in mining also involves children working in quarrying and stone crushing. Children engage in these activities from the age of 10 years, travelling from areas surrounding the mines or stone quarries. The ILO rapid assessment on child labor in mining indicated that more than 85% of children working in mining areas came from communities surrounding the mines or from neighboring regions. Thirty percent of the children were girls working in mining support services such as domestic work and in small restaurants in the informal sector.

Child prostitution is more rampant in cities and small towns than in rural areas. A 2001 study⁴¹ estimated that more than 1,500 girls were involved in prostitution in Dares Salaam alone. In addition, two studies undertaken between 2009 and 2010 illustrate that child prostitution is on the rise in Tanzania, especially in the densely populated urban and suburban areas.⁴² Girls under 15 years old are known to be working in nightclubs, liquor shops and brothels and at the same time, most of them practice prostitution.

Girls who enter into prostitution ranged in age from 9 to 17. Statistics are limited on the number of boys that enter into prostitution, and there has not been a national study to highlight the situation.⁴³

More girls work in rural areas than in urban areas, but between 2001-2006, there is a significant reduction in the number of girls that enter into child labor in rural areas as compared to urban areas (most probably girls are moving from rural to urban areas to look for work). Although the trend has indicated a reduction in percentages of children entering into child labor generally—including a reduction of children entering into child labor in urban areas—the percentages of boys entering into child labor in rural areas is higher than girls, while the percentage of girls entering into child labor in urban areas is higher than boys. There is still a greater incidence of child labor in Mainland Tanzania than in Zanzibar.

The following table highlights the urban rural dimension as well as the gender dimension across different years. There are, however, differences in terms of data—the Poverty and Human Development Report (PHDR) 2009 states that the incidence of child labor in rural areas reached 25% while in urban areas it was 7.7%. This is different from what is provided in the ILFS, which provides the trend over the years.

⁴⁰ (J.A. Mwami, A.J. Sanga, & J. Nyoni, 2002)

⁴¹ (E. Kamala et al., 2001)

⁴² (Baregu & Others, 2009; International Labour Organization, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, 2009)

⁴³ (Mwami, Sanga, & Nyoni, 2002)

Table 4. Children Engaged in Economic Activities, 1999/1991–2006

		1990/1991	2000/2001	2006
Rural	Male	73.9	83.7	51.0
	Female	73.5	82.2	49.0
Urban	Male	74.3	70.0	47.7
	Female	58.7	66.5	52.3
Tanzania	Male	74.9	80.7	50.4
	Female	70.9	78.6	49.6

Source: Tanzania Integrated Labor Force and Child Labor Survey, 2000/2001 and 2006

Causes of Child Labor

There are multiple and interlinked causes of child labor in Tanzania. Although poverty is documented to be the major cause of child labor, other causes include lack of social protection measures, weak education system, weak enforcement mechanisms, cultural-related reasons, failure of rural diversification programs, and weak child protection measures and structures.⁴⁴

Poverty

With high levels of poverty, many children are pushed to work to supplement family income, work for their own income to meet their individual needs, pay for school fees, and care for their siblings.⁴⁵ Poverty levels have also impacted the development of social sectors, and therefore children from households with low income do not have access to basic services. Children in rural areas are more likely to live in poverty compared to children in urban areas. With over dependency on subsistence agriculture, many families are not able to make ends meet as there are numerous challenges associated with agriculture such as poor infrastructure, poor soil, inequality (gender and income), and the rising prices of farm inputs as well as the falling prices of cash crops.

Falling Education Standards

Studies show that children who engage in child labor at an age below 18 are associated with lower education attainment and delayed development of basic literacy and quantitative skills.⁴⁶ Although investments in education access and quality have improved, a significant gap still exists in terms of equity in access. In addition, investments have focused on quantity as opposed to quality.⁴⁷ With such a high demand for improvement in quality and access, investment in education is thinly spread out, leaving some of the critical issues such as teacher training, access to learning materials, and lack of funds, the result is poor quality education with high dropout rates and high rates of absenteeism, many of them engaging in child labor. Evidence reveals that children from low income households have less access to education⁴⁸ because they cannot afford to make contributions to various development activities in schools⁴⁹ such as building classrooms,

⁴⁴ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

⁴⁵ (Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, United Republic of Tanzania, 2008)

⁴⁶ (Kidolezi, Yohanne N., Holmes, Jessica A., Ñopo, Hugo, & Sommers, Paul M., 2007)

⁴⁷ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

⁴⁸ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b)

⁴⁹ (George S. Nchahaga, 2002)

purchasing uniforms, exercise books, and other school needs. The school environment or the learning environment has also contributed to high dropout rates and low attendance rates. The physical conditions of buildings, lack of teachers, severe punishments, and quality and relevance of education have been discouraging students.

In addition, there has not been sufficient investment in vocational education and training and thus limited opportunities for children that have completed primary education but are below the age of employment.

Cultural Factors, Illiteracy Rates Among the Adult Population, and Unequal Gender Relations
Studies reveal that household with less educated women are more likely to have working children than families with educated women.⁵⁰ Illiteracy rates are high among Tanzanian adults, particularly women. Cultural factors that contribute to the problem of child labor include early marriages and polygamy. Women are denied rights to own or inherit property, particularly land, giving rise to many women who are landless and widows who have no assets to help them cater to their needs. In some of the regions, girls still undergo female circumcision and early marriages.

In Search of a Better Life

In some cases, children work because they believe there are better prospects away from home. They go into mining areas believing that within a short span of time, they will be rich. In the guidelines on the design of direction action strategies to combat child labor in mining, one of the strategies aimed at addressing the perceptions of children regarding prospects in mining is to target individuals and small groups for counseling and peer influence (ILO, 2008).

Cheap Labor

Some employers prefer employing children because they are easier to control and exploit. Most children do not know their rights and because they are also poor, they are pushed to seek and maintain their employment. They are often silent when exploited or overworked. Children in most cases do not negotiate contracts, and they lack bargaining power and are restricted from joining trade unions.⁵¹ Employers prefer children because they are nimble and sometimes more efficient than adults; however, trade unions have argued that the sole reason why employers prefer child labor is because it is cheap.⁵²

The Hazards

Even under the best conditions, children in agriculture commonly suffer accidents, injuries, and illnesses. As the ILO notes, “children suffer from long and arduous working hours, few health and safety protections or services, inadequate diets, rest and leisure, and are further denied education even where primary school attendance is possible.”

Working children often work with unsafe farm machinery and tools that they are not always able to operate safely. For example, some children who cut sugar cane use heavy machetes that they

⁵⁰ (National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, Economy and Empowerment, Tanzania Gender Networking Programme, & Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Youth Development, 2007)

⁵¹ (Tanzania Plantations and Agricultural Workers Union, 2001)

⁵² (Tanzania Plantations and Agricultural Workers Union, 2010)

cannot wield properly and suffer various injuries as a result. When children perform chores that are simply too strenuous—such as carrying heavy or oversized loads of picked coffee, tea, tobacco, and other crops—they suffer from problems ranging from back injuries to permanent disabilities or deformities.

A particularly dangerous threat to children working on plantations is regular exposure to hazardous substances used in agriculture such as toxic chemical fertilizers and pesticides. The ILO, noting that the great majority of workers in the agricultural sector live in developing countries, states:

The bulk of chemical products manufactured in these countries or imported by them is used in agriculture. Pesticides, chiefly insecticides, are among the most commonly used of agrochemicals. All too often they are applied without adequate protective equipment or other precautionary measures. Workers in these countries are too often untrained in the proper use of pesticides. Often they cannot read the languages in which instructions are written. As a result of these and other factors, pesticide poisoning is widespread.

While some pesticides, such as Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) and other organochlorine compounds, have been banned in industrial countries, they are regularly used in developing countries. Although there are significant benefits from the use of agrochemicals, the effects of the use of these chemicals on child workers in many countries may be more dangerous as a result of climatic conditions, precarious working conditions, inadequate or even nonexistent medical facilities, ineffective or understaffed regulatory bodies, and general ignorance of the hazards involved in handling pesticides. An ILO study on the use of agrochemicals states that “industrialized countries use 80 percent of the world’s agrochemicals but probably suffer only 1 per cent or less of all deaths due to pesticide poisoning; developing countries, on the other hand, suffer 99 per cent of all such deaths while using only 20 per cent of the world’s agrochemicals.” The effects of these safety and health hazards may be far more severe to children than to adults. A recent study on children in hazardous work⁵³ states:

A growing body of research indicates that, because of anatomical differences between children and adults, child workers are considerably more vulnerable to workplace health hazards. Age seems to be an important factor in the effect of toxic chemicals, and children exposed to them early tend to become ill or disabled much more quickly than do adults with similar exposure. Children are more susceptible to thermal stress and environmental temperature changes, and are more sensitive to ionizing radiation. They are also more vulnerable to carcinogens, and, if exposed to them, the probability of their developing cancer is greater than that of adults having equal exposure. Furthermore, children who work are more likely than adults to suffer occupational injuries owing to inattention, fatigue, poor judgment, insufficient knowledge of work processes, and the fact that equipment, machinery and tools used are designed for adults.

The hours of work range for boys and girls. Boys work for approximately 20 hours a week, girls work for 19 hours, and the terms of payment is often cash although a small percentage are paid in kind. The average income is Tshs. 1,117 for boys and Tshs. 425 for girls. Working children receive no other benefits apart from meal(s) and accommodation if it is part of a contractual

⁵³ (Bekele, Myers, UNICEF, & International Labour Office, 1995)

agreement between the child and the employer.⁵⁴

Reports show that 43% of the employed children in Mainland Tanzania work overtime without any pay; however, in Zanzibar, children who work overtime are usually paid. Some of the children save this money to start their own small businesses (38%); others save to assist with family expenses (26.8%).⁵⁵

Table 5. Types of Payment

Type of payment	Boys	Girls	Total
Cash only	77.1%	79.3%	78.2%
Cash and in kind	22.9%	20.7%	21.8%

Source: ILFS, 2006

The injury rate occurring from work is 17.9% for boys and 16.1% for girls. Of injured children, 47.9% were injured while employed in private households as domestic workers (the majority, 72%, were girls). The rate of injury reported in Zanzibar is lower, 3%, compared to Mainland Tanzania, 13%. Children are exposed to heavy loads, dangerous working tools, and hazardous chemicals. A majority of these cases are reported to employers; for girls, it is 94% of the cases and 88% for boys. However, we do not know what action is taken by the employer when an injury is reported. A higher percentage of boys were affected while working in agriculture, hunting, forestry, and fishing (58%), but even the percentage for girls is high (38%).⁵⁶

Gaps and Priority Areas of Action

The 2006 labor force survey highlights some of the key sectors engaging children in child labor including the scope and coverage. Agriculture is still the leading sector employing children. The survey raises issues concerning the hazards that children face and the fact that girls are more vulnerable than boys.

In the 2006 labor force survey mining makes up a small proportion of those children who are reported to be working in child labor, only 9%. This is well behind manufacturing and wholesale and retail work, as evidenced also in the mapping (annex I). Thus interventions in the area of mining may not be as much needed as policy makers overemphasize. Literature shows that the decline in child labor in mining is mainly due to legislation but it is not clear whether child labor has been replaced by adult labor. It is important therefore to establish this fact and specific surveys or rapid assessment can determine the extent of child labor in mining areas as well as a more detailed analysis of the response mechanisms.

Commercial sex work does not seem to be addressed directly by the ILFS, and it is not clear why this is the case. In general, there is insufficient data or information on the extent of commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC) in Tanzania. The current data is insufficient to draw a national picture on the extent of the problem. There is evidence that there is greater mobility of

⁵⁴(National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, Economy and Empowerment et al., 2007)

⁵⁵(United Republic of Tanzania, 2008b)

⁵⁶(United Republic of Tanzania, 2008b)

children from rural to urban areas, but insufficient information that establishes the kinds of work that they engage in when they move to urban areas. More importantly, little is known about the coping mechanisms of children in prostitution. As discussed in a recent research study⁵⁷, children in prostitution in Ilala district (one of the districts in Dar es Salaam) enter into prostitution for survival reasons, but they mainly use their income to purchase alcohol. Little is known about the health and psychological hazards of CSEC.

Child domestic work is hidden and harder to determine the extent compared to other forms of child labor. The mapping (Annex I) reveals limited number of regions with child domestic labor. However it also reveals that child domestic labor is no longer just an urban phenomenon, it is spreading to semi urban and rural areas, indicating an increase in the number of children working as child domestic laborers. However, since labor officers are unable to reach children in households, it has become one of the most complicated sectors to determine actual numbers of working children.

Policy and Legal Framework

Policies

Child labor issues were well incorporated into the first National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (popularly known as MKUKUTA). One of the goals under the MKUKUTA was reduction of child labor from 25% to less than 10% by 2010 and establishing effective social protection measures by 2010, including increasing access to education and other basic services to children. The aim was to increase protection to vulnerable children, particularly working children. MKUKUTA was in line with the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other policies that aim to increase access to education as well as prohibit child labor.

Agriculture Policy, 1997

According to the **Agriculture and Livestock Policy of 1997**, it is estimated that the ratio of males to females in the agricultural sector is 1:1.5. Women in Tanzania produce about 70% of the food crops and bear substantial responsibilities for many aspects of export crops and livestock production. However, their access to productive resources (land, water ,etc.); supportive services (marketing services, credit and labor saving facilities, etc.); and income arising from agricultural production is severely limited by social and traditional factors. This in turn has hampered their capability and efficiency in the agricultural sector. Unfortunately, the policy does not have in place concrete data of children working in plantations, hence the Ministry has no strategies laid down to combat child labor in this particular field.

⁵⁷ (Baregu & Others, 2009)

Child Development Policy, 2008

The policy strongly prohibits every form of child labor, particularly children employed as domestic workers; those employed in mines, plantations, fishery, and prostitution; and those employed as business hawkers in the streets. It goes further to state that child labor is detrimental to the child's well-being and development, and it denies them their right to acquire education.

In terms of gender equality, the policy states that the government, together with other stakeholders, should take the necessary steps to make sure that parents and guardians provide equal opportunities to boys and girls. Moreover, it places special emphasis on a child's right to nutrition, health and shelter, education, safety, and the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of gender.

National Employment Policy, 2008

The main aim of the policy is to stimulate employment growth and to attain decent employment for all Tanzanians; more anything else, the policy is geared toward decent employment creation than. The policy contains several objectives, including promoting the goal of decent and productive employment as a national priority; other objectives focus on labor standards. Elimination of child labor is among its stated objectives, though the policy states that it aims to formalize the informal sector (thus indirectly reducing the problem of child labor). It also states that it aims to enhance skills and competencies of workers in the formal and informal sectors, particularly the rural areas.

The policy recognizes the problem of child labor and highlights the rural urban dimension of child labor. It states that the four major areas with rampant child labor include agriculture, mining and quarrying, domestic service, and commercial sex. The policy further recognizes that monitoring of child labor is limited because of the lack of sufficient human resource to monitor it. Thus, the objective under the child labor component is to eliminate or reduce to minimal levels the child labor practices countrywide. It further states that the government in collaboration with other stakeholders shall establish guidelines and implement programs aimed at eliminating the worst forms of child labor and mandates employers to comply with labor laws guiding employment of minors.

LEGISLATION

Article 12 of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania provides equality of all human beings as a fundamental principle of human rights. Article 14 of the Constitution provides for specific rights that are also mentioned under the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) such as the right to life and protection. The Constitution also provides for principles of nondiscrimination and sets the age of children to be under 18 years. These provisions in the Constitution set a basis through which legislation on rights of children in Tanzania is formulated.

For over 30 years, Tanzania lacked a comprehensive legislation addressing children's issues. The pieces of legislation in existence were insufficient to guarantee all rights of children; in addition to the lack of a comprehensive legislation, there were conflicting provisions in the laws, particularly on issues regarding age and entitlement to rights. For example, a clear definition of who a child was did not exist;⁵⁸ provisions were outdated and did not adequately protect children

⁵⁸ For example, different definitions of a child are concurrently used, ranging from the age of 12 to 18 (TGNP and SIDA, 2006; Mamdani, M., et al, 2009). The penal code provided for the age of criminal responsibility as 12 years,

from violence, abuse, neglect, and exploitation.⁵⁹ Because of these shortcomings, the legal framework on rights of children faced major implementation challenges.

Law of the Child Act of 2009 (LCA)

Two main pieces of legislations provide for child labor prohibition: the Law of the Child Act (LCA) and the Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004 (ELRA). Child labor provisions are provided under part VII A of the LCA of 2009. The Act picks up several issues related to child labor and has taken into consideration the provisions in the ELRA (Part II, Fundamental Rights and Protections, Sub Part A) as well as the international conventions governing children's rights and child labor. For Tanzania, this is positive progress given the fact that for many years there was no legal framework governing child labor. However, even with this progress, setbacks have occurred. One of the issues is that both Acts give the mandate to make regulations to separate ministries, thus the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and the Ministry of Employment, Labor and Youth have the mandate to make child labor regulations.

The minimum age of employment is provided for in the ELRA (Section 15) and in the LCA (Section 77) as 14 years, but only for *light work*. Although the LCA has harmonized some of the provisions, several policy issues still need to be straightened out in order for the LCA to be effectively implemented.

Some provisions require further amplification; for example, the ELRA (Section 5(2)) states that a child *may be employed*, while the LCA states that working is a right and that a child has a right to light work. Although Section 77 (3) expounds on the meaning of light work, it still leaves room for misinterpretation. As pointed out in the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) 2009 report, the concept of "light work" depicted in the LCA is different from that envisaged under the ELRA or C.138, which provides that a child of 14 shall only do light work. Light work in this case applies to all ages above 14. Questions such as the specific hours, load, type of work, and risks could have been explained to remove grey areas. In a recent review of enforcement of child labor legislation,⁶⁰ the concept of light work is found to be ambiguous and subject to different interpretations. It is a concept that is not clear to many law enforcers and government officials responsible for supervising labor and safety standards; more importantly, the standards for measurement are not really there. In light of this elusiveness, it is necessary to define light work across different sectors.

The LCA provides for hazardous work, but makes no mention of the hazardous list provided for in the ELRA. Similarly, Section 82 of the LCA provides that hazardous work includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; carrying heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; working in places where machines are used; and working in places such as bars, hotels, and places of entertainment. According to C. 138, hazardous work as provided in article 3 states that full account should be taken of relevant international labor standards concerning *dangerous substances, agents, or processes* and that the sectors extend to water,

while the Criminal Procedure Act defined a child as a person who has not attained the age of 16; The employment and Labor Relations Act provided for the age of employment to be 14 years (light work); The Law of Marriage Act, 1971 established the age of marriage to be 18 years for boys and 15 years for girls; and the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) provided for a minimum age for sexual consent to be 18 years (TGNP and SIDA, 2006).

⁵⁹ (National Bureau of Statistics Tanzania et al., 2006)

⁶⁰ (Government of Tanzania, 2009)

electricity, transport, storage and communication, plantations, and agriculture undertaking for commercial purposes, sanitary services, and construction as a minimum (article 5(3)). These sectors have not been included in the LCA section.

Section 83 of the LCA provides for prohibition of sexual exploitation; this is in line with C. 182 on elimination of worst forms of child labor (WFCL) as well as the Optional Protocol to the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and the Anti Trafficking Act of 2008. The section should include a definition of child prostitution as defined in the Optional Protocol as well as extend the definition in 83(2 a–c) to include *transferring, using, procuring, or offering* a child for prostitution by any person or a group of persons for remuneration. The current section states broadly that a child shall not be engaged in work or trade that exposes the child to activities of sexual nature, but the act of using, *procuring, offering, or transferring* a child for prostitution is not mentioned.

C. 138 makes reference to the need for ensuring that the conditions in which children and young persons are employed or work are maintained at a satisfactory standard (minimum age recommendation (146), recommendation 12 (1)). The recommendations further elaborate that all rights apply to ordinary workers and include annual holiday with pay of at least four weeks; equal pay for equal work; minimum of 12 hours of night rest; and social security plans that include medical care and sickness benefits. Therefore, it is essential to add information concerning all details outlined in Section 15 of the ELRA—nature of contractual relations, right to leave and other benefits, termination of employment as provided by Section 35 of the ELRA, termination benefit, disciplinary procedure, reporting dispute and dispute settlement, and right to participate and join in trade unions.

Education Act, Cap 353, R.E. 2002

The Education Act provides for the right to education for all children in Tanzania. All children of school going age have to be enrolled in primary education (Section 35(1) provides for mandatory enrolment for children aged 7 years and above), and it is the duty of the parents or guardians living with the children to ensure enrolment. Section 36 explicitly provides that any child who is 5 years old should be enrolled in a pre-primary education. As a result of this legislation and other government efforts to improve enrolment, primary school enrolment has gone up and the demand for enrolling children has also gone up. However, the Act does not provide remedies for children who have dropped out of school due to difficult circumstances such as lack of school fees, poor household income, or exposure to vulnerability.

Employment and Labor Relations Act, 2004

ELRA governs the relationship between employer and employees and has provisions regarding child labor. Section 5(1) of ELRA expressly provides for the prohibition of child labor, but only to those children younger than 14. Subsection 2 of the same provision makes an exception that children aged 14 and above can be employed to do light work and any work that is not harmful or dangerous to their health and development with their academics. Section 5(7) provides for the punishment of procurement of children for employment as 5 million shillings or imprisonment.

The Land Acts

Land has long been recognized as a primary source of wealth, social status, and power because it provides the base for shelter, food, and economic activities. It is the basis of life for the majority of its citizens, particularly those residing in rural areas. The National Plan of Action for the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children 2001–2015 states that land ownership has a bearing on violence against women and children.

The land reforms started with the formation of the first National Land Policy in 1995; its principle objective was the guarantee of rights to ownership of land, particularly for marginalized groups such as women. The Policy was followed by enactment of the Land Act No. 4 of 1999, the Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999, and the Land Tribunal Act No. 2 of 2002. The Acts maintain a dual system of land tenure, that is, customary and statutory, giving the two equal statuses. In law, this remains a major contradiction as customary and statutory tenure do not guarantee similar rights.

The Land Act of 1999 and the Village Act of 1999 emphasize equal rights for both men and women to acquire, hold, use, and deal with land. The Acts provide for the involvement of women in decision-making bodies on land matters, for example, village/ward tribunals must have a representation of 43% women.⁶¹

Nevertheless, even with this development, the recognition of customary tenure, and the implementation of the Land Act within a context of a highly patriarchal community, discrimination of women and girls in property ownership is still rampant. Under customary tenure, women have access to the use of land and property by virtue of their relationship to men (NGO Declaration, 1997). Such rights are known as “secondary” rights; other holders of secondary rights include migrants, pastoralists, and young people. These rights are of uncertain duration, are not well defined, and are subject to change. They are based on maintaining good relations between parties. Women may hold land for use, but ownership rights are restricted. Other weaknesses in the law include provisions that do not guarantee women certain rights, such as the right to prepare wills (Section 3(3)) and denial of rights to inheritance (Section 20 makes mention of the Customary Law Declaration Order of 1963, which inherently takes away the right for women to inherit).

The Act further provides for the application of customary law in all matters related to dispute settlement.⁶² The law does not provide security of tenure for land currently used by women, particularly in rural areas.⁶³

Anti Trafficking Act 2008

The Anti Trafficking Act expounds on the meaning of sexual exploitation. It extends the meaning of prostitution to mean transaction, scheme, or design involving the use of a person by another for sexual intercourse in exchange for money profit or any other consideration. This provision is far broader than the definition expounded in the Penal Code.

⁶¹ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a)

⁶² (E. Mallya, 2005)

⁶³ (Demere, K, 1997)

The Act states that trafficking is an offense and involves the recruitment, transport, transfer, harbor, and receiving a person under the pretext of employment, training, or apprenticeship for prostitution, forced labor, or slavery. Trafficking of children is considered severe; and when the victim is a child, the Act states that the consent of the child, parent, or guardian should not be used as a defense.

Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) of 1998

The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) provides for a broad definition of sexual exploitation of children. Section 138B provides that a person faces imprisonment or a fine if that person knowingly permits any child to remain on any premises for purposes of causing that child to be sexually abused or to participate in any form of sexual activity; acts as a procure of a child for purposes of sexual exploitation; induces a person to be a client of a child; indecently exposes a child; threatens or uses violence to procure children for sexual abuse; or gives money in consideration for sex with a child. The Act breaks new ground in this area by specifically providing a section on child sexual abuse and exploitation.

It repeals the penal code by stating that actions such as procuring, trafficking of children under 18 years of age for sexual proposes, and detaining a person without their consent in brothels or premises for sexual intercourse is committing a crime. Illegal acts extend to the act of buying, selling, or bartering and promoting, facilitating, or inducing the buying or selling or bartering of any person for sexual purposes is an offense.

Strategies

National strategy for gender development, 2005 states that the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania mandates various institutions to implement national and international commitments regarding human rights and gender as stated in the United Nations Human Rights Declaration (1948), the Convention on the Right of the Child, and other conventions and international commitments providing for the prevention and elimination of discrimination and violence against women and children. The government therefore has gender mainstreaming programs as well as national and sectoral policies addressing gender equity and equality. It has also established a mechanism for the coordination and monitoring of the implementation of gender and development policy.

The National Action Plan for Most Vulnerable Children highlights the government's plan of reaching the MVC with supportive services (2005–2010). The plan is now under review. The MVC Action Plan was rolled out to districts mainly supported by UNICEF and thus was not fully implemented in all districts of Tanzania. It faced scarce funding from government, which added to its weak implementation.⁶⁴

At the village levels in selected villages, MVC committees have been established with support from UNICEF to oversee and monitor issues of vulnerable children. They are also responsible for compiling data on MVC, advocating for the rights of children, preparing plans and budgets, and making referrals with other institutions such as schools, health centers, and institutions

⁶⁴ (Wilde, E. & Baregu, K., 2008)

providing other support services to children. These committees are not part of a recognized government structure and thus lack certain and continuous government budgets for implementation.

Policy Related Gaps and Priority Areas of Intervention

- Lack of a Comprehensive Framework to Address Child Poverty and Deprivation

It is clear from the findings that the incidence of absolute child poverty among children in Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar is high. Poverty levels have directly increased vulnerability to child labor. So far, implementation of programs for children has been adhoc, patchy and incoherent, thus in terms of actual impact on the welfare of the child, there have been gaps. Current interventions to address child vulnerability do not necessarily reach children as implementing agencies are clearly unaware of how to reach such children. Linkages between child labor and child poverty and vulnerability are still not clear to many of the key implementing agencies addressing rights of children.

- Gaps in Agriculture Policy

The agriculture policy provides an opportunity for sector policies to directly address the problem of child labor through strategic planning, budgeting and monitoring. However, the policy lacks strategies to address child labor in the agriculture sector.⁶⁵ This is a gap in the current policy; funding to eliminate child labor in agriculture through the Ministry responsible for agriculture is nonexistent. Likewise because of this gap, the agriculture sector strategy, does not take into account child labor thus there is no budget for activities to eliminate child labor. Further, the agriculture extension officers who would have been an asset in educating communities about child labor and its impact have not been trained on child labor and their role in eliminating child labor.

- Implementation of the Employment Policies and Action Plans on Child Labor

The existence of labor policies and action plans to eliminate child labor is an effective entry point to sustainable elimination of the problem of child labor in Tanzania. However, funding for activities to eliminate child labor is minimal. The lack of funding for the effective implementation of the National Action Plan on the Elimination of Child Labor has led to a stagnation of several activities as pointed out by the National Child Labor Coordinator during the in-depth interview (IDI).

Development of program implementation guidelines to guide implementing agencies is an activity that has been highlighted in the policy but it has not been implemented. Implementation guidelines are highly needed by implementing agencies as mentioned by the respondent from Family Health International (FHI). Without the implementation guidelines, opportunities to address child labor by implementing agencies with funding for MVC activities are underutilized.

⁶⁵ (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007)

Although the draft hazardous list has been developed, its finalization and adoption as part of the legal framework has not been completed, thus its enforcement has become stalled. The Labor Laws provides that anyone found employing children in the hazardous sectors will be liable to a fine or imprisonment, but only if the list exists. Legally, this list does not exist and thus enforcement of the law is hampered. Further, the regulations on child labor do not exist. It is only with the recent enactment of the Law of the Child Act that Tanzania mainland is discussing and is in the process of developing child labor regulations. The regulations are a requirement for the enforcement of child labor provisions.⁶⁶

- Enforcement of Legislations

The Laws providing for rights of children provide another opportunity for Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar to effectively enforce provisions prohibiting child labor. While the legislation in Tanzania mainland has been passed, the legislation Zanzibar is still under discussion and has not been passed as an Act of parliament. One of the main issues is the implementation and enforcement of the legislations. Given the minimal funding for children's issues generally, it is questionable whether the Government of Tanzania, through the relevant ministries will release the required funding for implementation of the Acts. An important aspect of implementation is a critical reflection of the Law of the Child Act in Tanzania mainland to evaluate if it adequately addresses the needs of working children.

⁶⁶ (Baregu, 2011)

SECTION III: IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENTS

The Government of Tanzania ratified the CRC 1991;⁶⁷ the ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labor (2001) ; the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (2003); acceded to the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (2004); acceded to the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (2003); the Convention Governing Specific aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa; and the UN Convention on the Status of Refugee (2003). Tanzania has not ratified the Hague Convention on Civil Aspects of International Child Abduction and The Hague Convention on Inter-country Adoption.⁶⁸

Implementation of ILO Conventions on Child Labor

The employment of children is the subject of various international conventions, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights,⁶⁹ the International Convention on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights,⁷⁰ the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,⁷¹ the UN Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery,⁷² the UN Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others,⁷³ the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child,⁷⁴ the UN Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography,⁷⁵ and various ILO Conventions.

The standard UN Convention on the Rights of the Child is a landmark treaty among international conventions dealing with children.⁷⁶ This convention, ratified by the Republic of Tanzania in 1991, contains three overriding principles. First, in all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be the primary consideration.⁷⁷ This applies equally to legislation dealing with child employment as it does to any other legislation affecting children. Second, States Parties shall ensure the rights contained in the convention, including the right to be protected from economic exploitation in Article 32, without discrimination of any kind.⁷⁸ Third, States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all

⁶⁷ (National Organization for Legal Aid (NOLA), 2007)

⁶⁸ (The African Child Policy Forum, 2008)

⁶⁹ Adopted by the UN General Assembly, December 10, 1948, see Art. 4 (non-slavery) and Articles 23–25 (general labor rights).

⁷⁰ This convention entered into force on May 20, 1976. Article 7 (general labor rights) and Article 10(3) prohibit the economic exploitation of children. Ratified by the United Republic of Tanzania, June 11, 1976.

⁷¹ Entry into force May 20, 1976. Ratified by the United Republic of Tanzania, June 11, 1976; see Articles 8 (no forced labor) and Article 24 (general child welfare).

⁷² Entry into force April 30, 1957. See the entire convention and in particular Article 1(d).

⁷³ Entry into force July 25, 1951. See entire convention and in particular Article 20.

⁷⁴ Entered into force September 2, 1990. See particularly Articles 31, 32, 33, 34, and 36.

⁷⁵ Entered into force January 18, 2002. See also Option Protocol on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflicts, entered into force February 12, 2002 and ratified by the United Republic of Tanzania on April 24, 2003.

⁷⁶ This was ratified by the United Republic of Tanzania on June 10, 1991.

⁷⁷ Article 3.

⁷⁸ Article 2.

matters affecting them.⁷⁹ Article 32(1) of the convention provides that States are under a duty:

to ensure that young people are protected against economic exploitation and against any work likely to harm their safety, health or physical, mental, moral or social development or to jeopardise their education.

The Republic of Tanzania is required under this provision to have regard “to the relevant provisions of other international instruments.” The most relevant are the ILO Conventions and Recommendations, especially Convention No. 138, the Minimum Ages for Employment.⁸⁰ In its preamble, Convention No. 138 notes the terms of earlier conventions⁸¹ and sets the minimum age for [full-time] admission to employment or work as no less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, not less than 15 years.⁸² Each Member State must make a declaration on a minimum age for admission to employment of work. This has been set by the Law on the Child Act at 14 years of age.

Article 3 adds extra protection as it provides that where the work by its nature of the circumstances in which it is carried out is likely to jeopardize the health, safety, or morals of young persons, the age of admission to employment shall not be less than 18 years. However, notwithstanding this article, the convention provides that authorities may authorize the employment of 16-year-olds in such occupations on condition that their health, safety, and morals are fully protected and that they have received adequate specific instruction or vocational training in the relevant branch of activity.⁸³ ILO Recommendation No. 146 qualifies this exception by requiring that States should take steps to take immediate steps to raise the age of entry into such employment to 18 years of age.

A further condition of employment of children under 18 is added by the ILO Minimum Age Recommendation (No. 146). An ILO recommendation does not have the binding force of a convention and is not subject to ratification. However, recommendations are often adopted at the same time as conventions and provide additional or more detailed provisions.⁸⁴ It requires that the conditions in which children and young persons under 18 are employed or work reach, and are maintained at, a satisfactory standard.⁸⁵

⁷⁹ Article 12.

⁸⁰ Ratified by the United Republic of Tanzania, December 16, 1998.

⁸¹ The Minimum Age (Industry) Convention 1919 (No. 5); Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920 (No. 7); Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention 1921 (No.10); Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) Convention 1921 (No. 15); Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (revised) 1936 (No. 58); Minimum Age (Industry) Convention (revised) 1937 (No. 59); Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention (revised) 1937 (No. 60); Minimum Age (Fishermen) Convention 1959 (No. 112); Minimum Age (Underground Work) Convention 1965 (No. 123).

⁸² Article 2(3). Notwithstanding this, a Member whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed may, after consultation with the organizations of employers and workers concerned, where such exist, initially specify a minimum age of 14 years.

⁸³ Article 3(3).

⁸⁴ The provisions contained in recommendations enable the underlying principles of the convention to be set out and stated more precisely, and serve as a guide to national policies (see ILO website).

⁸⁵ Para 12(1) Minimum Age Recommendation No. 146.

In relation to employment of children over the age of 13, the Minimum Age Recommendation No. 146 also addresses the conditions of employment. It specifies that a number of areas be paid special attention. These include:

- a) The provision of fair remuneration and its protection, bearing in mind the principle of equal pay for equal work.
- b) The strict limitation of the hours spent at work in a day and in a week, and the prohibition of overtime, so as to allow enough time for education and training (including the time needed for homework related thereto), for rest during the day, and for leisure activities.
- c) The granting, without possibility of exception save in genuine emergency, of a minimum consecutive period of 12 hours of night rest and of customary weekly rest days.
- d) The granting of an annual holiday with pay of at least 4 weeks and, in case, not shorter than that granted to adults.
- e) Coverage by social security plans, including employment injury, medical care, and sickness benefits, whatever the conditions of employment or work may be.
- f) The maintenance of satisfactory standards of safety and health and appropriate instruction and supervision.

Minimum Age and Hours of Work in the Law of the Child Act

The LCA (Section 77 (2)) sets the minimum age of employment at 14. While this complies with the requirement in Article 32(2) (a) of the CRC and ILO Convention No. 138 that a minimum age of employment be set, the LCA lacks clarity. It does not make clear whether the specified age of 14 is the age at which a child may be employed full time or part time.

If the provision is intended to refer to the age at which a child can work full time, this does not appear to comply fully with ILO Convention No. 138, which sets the minimum age for admission to employment or work at no less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, not less than 15 years.⁸⁶ Article 2(3) of ILO Convention No. 138 goes on to state, however, that notwithstanding this article, a member whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed may, after consultation with the organizations of employers and workers concerned, where such exist, initially specify a minimum age of 14 years. It is not clear whether Tanzania regards itself as falling into this exceptional category. If so, the regulations should contain a clear commitment to move the age to 15 at some specified time or on some specified event.

The CRC and ILO Convention No. 138 both require that the minimum age for full-time employment should not be earlier than the age of completion of compulsory schooling. It is not clear whether children have completed their compulsory schooling in Tanzania by their 14th birthday, which appears to be the age at which a child may take full-time work. The LCA restricts hours of working in that it states that a child (i.e., under the age of 18) may only work for 6 hours a day, and no earlier than 8 a.m. and no later than 6 p.m.

⁸⁶ Article 2(3). Notwithstanding this, a member whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed may, after consultation with the organizations of employers and workers concerned, where such exist, initially specify a minimum age of 14 years.

Although the LCA specifies the numbers of hours that can be worked per day and that children may not work at night, it does not specify *how many days* a week a child may work. As a result, a child could be legally employed 42 hours a week even when of compulsory school age, a period of time over and above what would generally be regarded as the maximum desirable hours of employment a week. Further, the LCA does not set out any requirements for children to have regular breaks during the day or weekly rest days, contrary to recommendation No. 146. While Section 23 of the ELRA 2006 sets out the breaks and rest days to be granted to an employee, these are adult-based and would benefit from some reconsideration for child employees.

Exploitative, Hazardous Labor and the WFCL

All three forms of labor are prohibited by international conventions that Tanzania has ratified. While exploitative labor and hazardous labor are addressed by the LCA, there is no reference to ILO Convention 182 Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor (1999). The WFCL are defined in this convention as all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery,⁸⁷ the use of children for illicit activities,⁸⁸ and work which, by its very nature or circumstances, is likely to harm the health, safety, or morals of children (hazardous work). In determining the types of work that constitute hazardous work, ILO recommendation No. 190 on the WFCL provides in paragraph 3 that consideration should be given to

- a) work that exposes children to physical, psychological, or sexual abuse;
- b) work underground, underwater, at dangerous heights, or in confined spaces;
- c) work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;
- d) work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging their health;
- e) work under particularly difficult conditions such as work for long hours or during the night or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.⁸⁹

In the accompanying ILO recommendation No. 190, the inevitable exceptions to the clear wording of the convention are to be found. National laws and regulations may authorize the employment of children in hazardous⁹⁰ work and the work listed in paragraph 3 of the convention (see above) from the age of 16, but only on condition that the health safety and morals of the children concerned are fully protected and that the children have received adequate specific instruction or vocational training in the relevant branch of activity.⁹¹ These words are repeated in Section 82 (4) (b) of the LCA; however, Section 82 does not specify that the exception only applies to children who have reached the age of 16.

⁸⁷ Such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage, and serfdom and forced or compulsory labor, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict.

⁸⁸ Including the procuring of children. Illicit activities include, in particular, the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties.

⁸⁹ ILO recommendation 190 on WFCL, Article 3.

⁹⁰ Defined in the convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labor (No. 182) Art.3(d).

⁹¹ The use of the age 16 means that 16-year-olds still of compulsory school age could take such employment.

Monitoring and Enforcement

Monitoring and enforcement are contained in Sections 85 and 86 of the LCA. Section 85 provides that the employer shall keep a register of children employed or engaged in an industrial undertaking, but does not require those employers who employ children in the agricultural or commercial sector to keep such a register.

Many countries require employers who are employing children of compulsory school age, and sometimes children who are no longer of compulsory school age, to obtain a license or a permit. Others require the child to get a license or permit to allow them to work. There is no such requirement in Tanzania. However, employment of children contrary to the prohibitions contained in the LCA, can lead to a sanction: either a fine or a term of imprisonment.

In order to regulate child employment and enforce the law, it is essential that the labor inspectors know where and by whom a child is employed. Without such information, the child's welfare cannot be adequately safeguarded.

SECTION IV: POLICY LEVEL AND GRASSROOTS INTERVENTIONS

Interventions on Children Generally

Programs Targeting Children Generally

There are several programs implemented by government ministries, departments, and agencies as well as NGOs to address issues affecting children generally. The range of these programs is huge. The chart below outlines some of the related interventions supported by donors and those implemented by government.⁹²

⁹² (Baregu, 2008)

Table 5. Institutions Supporting Children Implemented in 2008

Target Group	Main Activity	Location	Donor	Implementing Agency
Vulnerable Children with respect to basic needs	Child Survival and protection	57 regions in 14 regions	UNICEF	Central Government
HIV AND AIDS Orphans and vulnerable children	Access to education, treatment and care	18 regions	USAID	Includes Pathfinder, Africare, Salvation Army, FHI, Schools and village committees
Elderly as caregivers to orphans	Support to elderly care givers and child survival	National	Private	Help Age International
Children and youth	Basic services and protection	6 districts in 5 regions	UNICEF	UNICEF, District Councils and NGOs
Women of Reproductive Age and children	Life saving pre and post natal maternal and child health services (MCH)	3 districts in Kigoma region	Tanzania Religious Councils (TRCS)	TRCS, local and international NGOs, and Community Based Organizations (CBOs)
Women above 18 years in need of economic and social support	Access to credit	Dar and Tanga Regions	Central Govt., ILO, Danish Development Agency (DANIDA), UNICEF, and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)	Credit Scheme for Productive Activities of Women (CREW)
Widows and Single Women	Income support	National; Moslem women	Private contributions	Baraza Kuu la Waislam Tanzania (Muslim Council of Tanzania) (BAKWATA)

Source: National Multisectoral Draft Social Protection Framework, 2008

Table 6. Programs Implemented by Government MDAs

Ministry of Education	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare	Ministry of Labor	Ministry of Agriculture	Ministry of Community Development
Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET)	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMCT) is in a pilot phase in five public facilities in Tanzania	National Employment Creation Program (targeting young people)	Primary Agriculture Development Programme (PADEP)	The establishment of the Junior Council in December, 2002.
Education II Project (ED – II P)	MVC Programme	Time Bound Programme for Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labor in Tanzania	Agriculture Sector Development Program (ASDP)	National Plan of Action (NPA) Implementation Framework towards UNGASS Commitment has been developed
Family Life Education (FLE)	Global Fund Programme	Elimination of Child Labor in Tobacco Farming	Strategic Grain Reserve (SGR) Program	Child Survival Protection and Development (CSPD)
Norway- Tanzania (NOTA) School Feeding Programme (SFP)	Special programs for Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health (ARSH) through traditional, mass and innovative media in its Behavior Change Communication (BCC) campaigns	Promoting gender equality and decent work throughout all stages of life in Tanzania (2001-2006 conditional cash transfer (CCT)) Promotes linking women's empowerment with reduction of Child Labor through:	food for farming" and small seed inputs (WFP)	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMCT) programmes on reduction of severe impact of HIV and AIDS to children
School Health Programme (SHP)	Community Health Fund Programme	Sponsoring education and skills training	WFP & International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) - supplementary school-feeding program (mainly targeting vulnerable children; and provide support to HIV/AIDS patients with supplementary food).	Reproductive and Child Health Programme undertaken throughout the country, for the under five children and pregnant mothers get free medical services
Vocational Training Trust Fund (TCTF)	National Health Insurance	Revolving Loan Fund –Cash guarantee fund for beneficiaries to access loans from commercial bank		
Tanzania Multisectoral Aids Project (TMAP)	Out-of-School Youth to Youth HIV and AIDS Communication Initiative			
International Programme for Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)	Children with disabilities given priority care at Muhimbili Orthopaedic Institute (MOI).			
Girls Secondary Education Support Programme (GSESP)	Establishment of Primary Health Care (PHC) and Maternal and Child Health Services (MCH)			
Pilot Child Friendly Schools (CFS) have been established in 11 districts	National AIDS Control Programme			
	National Malaria Control Programme			
	First Health Rehabilitation Programme			
	Tanzania Essential Health Intervention Project			
	Community Based Health care Programme			
	School Health Project			
	National Eye Care/Onchocerciasis Project			
	Trachoma Control Initiative			

Source: Baregu K., Status of Children Living Without Parental Care, 2008

Programs Targeting Child Laborers

Government Programs

Children gained political attention during the 1990s mainly because of the influence of the international community. The ILO, through its international program on elimination of child labor chose Tanzania as one of the beneficiary countries of funds to combat child labor through a multi-donor support program aimed at supporting convention 182 on elimination of WFCL. In 1994, a memorandum of understanding was signed between the ILO and the Government of Tanzania to address child labor.

During that time, there was no child labor unit to specifically address child labor, although there was a Ministry responsible for employment and labor; there were no national or district-based child labor committees; no child labor focal points in selected districts; absence of a legislation targeting the elimination of child labor or providing for the minimum age of employment. The IPEC program therefore was a welcomed intervention. For the first five years, it sought to set up structures, facilitate policy discussions, and establish consensus on the concept and extent of the problem of child labor in Tanzania.

Tanzania was among the countries to implement the IPEC Time Bound Programme (TBP) on elimination of the WFCL.⁹³ Through the TBP, the following has been done:

- National child labor strategies on WFCL developed
- Ensured that child labor issues were mainstreamed in key sectoral policies, strategies, and processes
- A draft list of hazardous work has been produced in accordance with the ILO C,182 on elimination of WFCL
- Established structures to facilitate the management of child labor programs and issues from the national to district levels. The structures include the National Intersectoral Coordinating Committee (NISCC) and its subcommittees and the district child labor subcommittees. In Zanzibar, there is a national steering committee on Child Labor (CL), of which NGOs are members, led by Ministry of Health and Social Welfare. It is supposed to be implementing the National Action Plan (NAP), but there is no action plan on child labor in Zanzibar. The committee is not very effective and does not meet regularly. It was supported by ILO and is now under the JP5 program, but there are not enough funds for it to meet regularly as funds are required to organize the meetings.
- Tools have been developed such as monitoring and evaluation tools to monitor trends of child labor in TBP districts; tracking and tracing methodologies for child domestic workers in a few districts; Child Labor Monitoring System has been integrated as part of the local government monitoring system;
- Baseline studies and attitude surveys in 11 TBP districts; rapid assessments of the child labor situation in various sectors; inputted the child labor element in the labor force survey and initiative the child labor survey in 2001 and 2006; documentation in both Kiswahili and English and dissemination of information widely to partners, research institutes, universities, local government, and communities

⁹³ (Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Youth Development, United Republic of Tanzania, 2009)

- The TBP supported the national response through implementation of projects in 22 districts, 16 projects funded through the ILO TBP and (01 through the Urambo Tobacco Sector Project (UTSP)

The government with the support of the International Organization for Migration (IOM) implemented a project to curb child trafficking, the project among other things built capacity of nongovernmental organizations, law enforcers, prosecutors, and the justice service providers on how to address the problem of trafficking.

In Zanzibar, United Nations Development Framework (UNDAF) funded a withdrawal and prevention program through JP5 that removed 600 children out of child labor in 4 districts, but it is now closed and there are no funds to continue it. Ministry of Labor is expecting to get funding from ILO (possibly through Brazilian grant) for CL trainings for teachers. There is an inadequate number of staff in the child labor Unit and there are indications that there is still limited commitment to address child labor, for example, there are insufficient labor inspectors to monitor child labor in the formal sector, but even these cannot monitor child labor in the informal sector where child labor is most rampant. Thus child labor in the informal sector is largely not monitored. Labor inspectors in Zanzibar say that they have not been trained on child labor and although funding for child labor has been requested, they still have not received any funding. The funding was to enable them develop child labor regulations and review the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA).

With the establishment of the Child Protection Unit within the Ministry concerned for Social welfare in Zanzibar, there seems to be conflicting roles and mandates on issues of child labor. However, according to the Employment Act, this is the role of the Child labor Unit. A comment was made by one of the officers that the ILO programs for Zanzibar are short spanned and don't show much impact.

Programs Implemented by Partners

There are several NGOs, private sector as well as trade unions that have implemented a number of activities aimed at eliminating child labor. A study undertaken in 2002 (ILO, 2002) notes that there are multitudes of NGOs all over Tanzania that have been at the forefront in the movement to sensitive communities about child labor. These have worked with the ILO through the ILO IPEC TBP and government. There are also NGOs that have been funded by other donors to undertake activities.

Tanzania Women Lawyers Association (TAWLA) for example has provided legal aid to children in child labor (about one per month), including domestic workers and has undertake awareness rising programs, studies on child labor and provided support on development of the LCA (respondent, TAWLA, 2011). TAWLA drafted bylaws as part of the TBP in 2007–2008 and trained/disseminated districts on these. However, there was no follow up after dissemination, and unclear if bylaws have been enforced. Kiota Women's Health for Development (KIWOHEDE), Kuleana, Dogodogo Centre, Child in the Sun, Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE), Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions (TFTU), Conservation, Hotels and Domestic Allied Workers Union (CHODAWU), Tanzania Mining and Construction Union (TAMICO), Tanzania

Plantations and Agricultural Workers Union (TPAWU), Dar es Salaam Television (DTV), Independent Television (ITV) and many others have all worked in various capacities to address child labor (ILO, 2002).

ATE focal person for child labor elaborated that ATE conducts monthly CL sessions (30 minutes long, not extensive). Members have to pay to attend; there are usually 30–40 employers a month. In the industrial sector, child labor is underground and employers hide children when they know a labor inspector is coming. There is also evidence of child labor in medium-sized enterprises, including hotels, where children clean rooms and cook. This has to be followed up by trade unions.

Regional focal points are supposed to be coming up with proposals to address child labor. ILO is working with employers, employees, and ministry responsible for labor, thus there is regular engagement of the key tripartite partners but this does not happen for NGOs.

In 2006, REPOA undertook a baseline for the TBP and has been a close collaborating partner on child labor research. The research focused on mining, fishing (Mwanza), domestic work, and agriculture, results have been disseminated. REPOA also coordinates a policy group with ATE, Mererani, TAWLA, and KIWOHEDE and they often inform the Ministry responsible for labor about the gaps in child labor policy and interventions. REPOA also monitors vulnerable groups and includes children in WFCL through support to research on children. They have a children's research program, funded by UNICEF and has now been integrated into the general research program at REPOA. The research items include MVC, street children, and child laborers, and looks at causes and effects. There is also a loosely connected child policy group coordinated by REPOA and supported by UNICEF, Save the Children and some other NGOs, but they do not have a mechanism to formalize and officiate their dialogue and perhaps ensure that decisions reach policy makers, further ILO is not part of the group. Under TBP, there was a Child Policy Group with ministries, REPOA, ILO, and others, but there was a lack of motivation and no incentive to continue once the project of support to the TBP was over, this group was also coordinated by REPOA but it later died because the participation of government and other actors became minimal over time.

The UN functions through the One United Nations (ONE UN) program which provides one common framework for development assistance in which every agency participates by implementing programs addressing policy and downstream issues depending on areas of focus. UNICEF has a new country program that will focus on child protection issues. Child labor issues will be handled primarily by ILO and child trafficking by IOM, with no specific interventions for child labor by UNICEF, though it expects to interface with ILO and IOM on these issues. The key informant respondent from UNICEF elaborated that UNICEF is piloting the formation of child protection structure for different government agencies to work more closely around child exploitation and violence issues. Child protection teams have been linked to formal community structures, and have to ensure that all structures stay within their mandate and scope. The Officer responsible for Child Protection at UNICEF did not realize that child labor was part of this or about child labor committees being part of this but saw the importance of linking them to the child protection structures. In addition, UNICEF and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) conducted violence against children study in Tanzania, coordinated by

Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children; the study has recently been launched. UNICEF will work with ministries to develop a national plan of action to address GBV. There are opportunities to incorporate child labor.

The ILO through the IPEC TBP program of support has integrated child labor into the national agenda for poverty reduction in Tanzania (child labor integrated into the National Poverty Reduction Strategy and Growth plan, Vision 2030) as clearly elaborated by an ILO officer through the key informant interviews. ILO has contributed greatly to drawing attention of authorities to the problem of child labor. IPEC has engaged partners/stakeholders in discussing the problem of child labor and giving it publicity for example, child labor in mining was an “eye opener” of how children are abused and exploited in mines. Likewise, with other sectors agriculture, child prostitution and trafficking and domestic work “brought reality home” for policy makers to set up legal framework/policies to eradicate child labor. The Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labor (SIMPOC) has been adopted by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) for regular, updated data collection on CL, which is a main achievement because it ensured sustainability as it is a government-owned process

Focus group discussions and key informant interviews reflect quite a number of interventions undertaken by NGOs in Zanzibar particularly during the implementation of the ILO IPEC TBP. After TBP ended, some of the organizations continued to receive funding from ILO for child labor activities. Association of NGOs of Zanzibar (ANGOZA) conducts awareness raising at national level; other NGOs that now work on child labor include Catalyst Organization For Women Progress In Zanzibar (COWPZ), Kawaha, Tamwa, and Piro (Pemba). COWPZ has created awareness at local levels (all Zanzibar districts) through drama. There has been impact among local leaders, who have tried to stop CL. They also have Income Generation (IG) training for parents. Kawaha withdraws and prevents children from work and works with local leaders in Pemba to address child labor in fishing and clove plantations. Piro in northern districts in Pemba does awareness raising, prevention, and material support, including withdrawing children and sending them to school.

With support from the TBP, Zafida in Zanzibar has withdrawn children and placed them in schools, provided counseling, and monitored for follow up. They have helped set up Children’s Councils, which are still in existence and community-owned, to monitor children. Zafida has supported these clubs since 2009. Other donors supporting ongoing activities include Farm Africa (Kenyan organization), Global Fund (organize health committees) and has requested more Global Fund (GF) funding for capacity building and to check progress of child labor committees.

While there is room for synergy and amplification of child labor issues through ongoing initiatives, focus group discussions and key informant interviews in Zanzibar reveal that there is little to show synergy between programs and opportunities are not adequately exploited. For example, the Women’s Entrepreneurship Development Trust Fund (WEDTF) supports IG for women to sustain business activities and has 4,126 women with a Tsh 500 million fund (Donors are African Development Fund (ADF), Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoE), and Social Economic Loan Fund (SELF)) and repayment rate is =98%. The group has attended ILO trainings on business skills and entrepreneurship but do not undertake direct activities aimed at eliminating child labor. Likewise, the Zanzibar AIDS Association and Support of Orphans

(ZASO) through funding from Africare, Deloitte “We Care” program, and charitable donations, supports over 689 orphans with education, health, child protection, although child labor is found in coastal areas (mainly tourism), children in these areas are not reached (many of them are probably orphans).

Interventions for MVC

Government Interventions

	Districts	Wards	Village/Mitaa
Total	133	2613	12792
Total %	100	100	100
Reached	91	1527	7627
% Reached	68.4%	58.44	59.63

Table 6. MVC Reached by National Programs

Department of Social Welfare started implementing MVC programs in 2000 after realizing the extent of problem in Tanzania, mainly due to HIV and AIDS and poverty.⁹⁴ A number of programs have been implemented to address child vulnerability in Tanzania. These have been implemented by government departments, agencies and Ministries, civil society organizations, faith based organizations and community organizations. Given the magnitude of problems and the multi dimensional issues affecting vulnerable children of different age groups, the programs have not been sufficient and since funding for vulnerable children has mainly come from the President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), funding for child labor specifically has not been there. Many have focused on children orphaned by HIV and AIDS compared to other categories of vulnerable children. A key informant respondent from US Embassy in Dar did point out that most U.S. aid money is for PEPFAR, which means that not many NGOs will work on child labor directly. Likewise, the actual number of vulnerable children reached with support is minimal compared to the need. Programs are usually nationwide through in most cases do not cover every part of the nation. Most of the programs are donor funded.

A national MVC data management system has been set up to within the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (DSW). The systems not only includes the numbers of vulnerable children identified and reached, but the coverage, donors, funding and type of support provided. Data collection tools have been developed and data is collected from village level and entered in the national MVC register (Lema, (USAID Tanzania), 2009). In February 2008, the National Costed Action Plan (NCPA) for MVC was launched by the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (DSW) in partnership with USAID/PEPFAR, Global Fund, UNICEF, and Prime Minister’s Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PMORALG). The plan was implemented by a number of partners, local and international, covering over 90 districts.

With support from donors, the DSW has been able to develop national identification guidelines for MVC; national care taking skills manuals; national monitoring and evaluation framework;

⁹⁴ (Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Youth Development, United Republic of Tanzania, 2009)

national community justice facilitation manuals; most vulnerable children's committees (MVCCs); trained national facilitators; established quality standards for service provision for MVC; identified MVC in more than 90 districts and built capacity of community-based structures to support MVC.

In 2007, the DSW, in collaboration with national and international partners, established a Para-Social Workers (PSW) system aimed at improving delivery of social services at community level. It is a collaborative venture between the department, and social work training agencies in the United States and Tanzania. The role of the PSWs is to conduct outreach programs, undertake identification of MVC, provision of support and referrals and ensure the continuous engagement of actors and local government on issues concerning MVC⁹⁵ Training has been done in 8 districts with the training of 520 PSW.

Implementation of national MVC programs has been slow since the funding for such programs is very limited. Additionally, the numbers of MVC are increasing (estimated at 4 million by 2010).⁹⁶ The NCAP has only been implemented in 39% of the country, the DSW has a serious shortage of human resource, and the funding for the implementation of the NCPA was estimated at \$35 million USD per year. Below is the budget allocation situation in the department. Over the years, budget allocation for the Department has been minimal, far below the need:

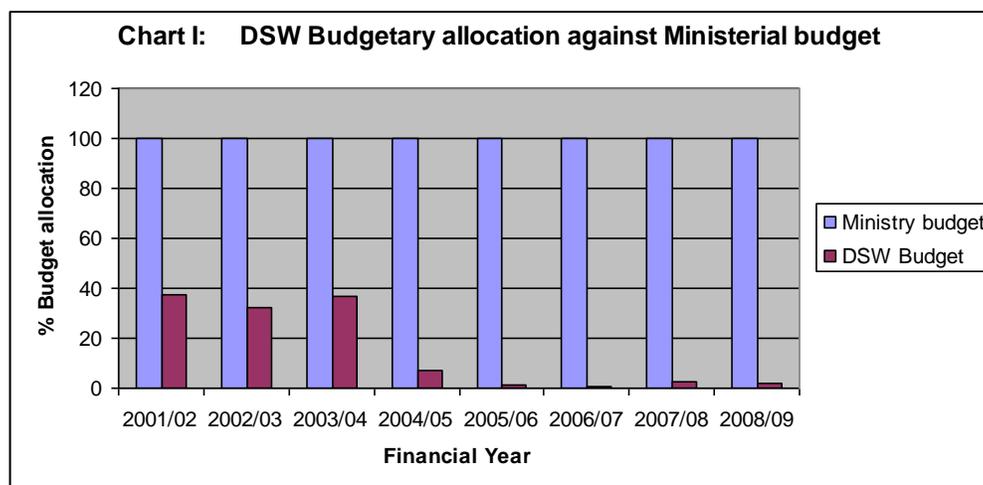


Figure 2. Change in DSW budget as a fraction of total Ministry budget

Interventions by International NGOs

International NGOs have been widely funded by external sources to implement programs for MVC. Their focus has been child vulnerability, but particularly vulnerability occasioned by HIV and AIDS. Given the fact that children orphaned by HIV and AIDS are often victims of child labor, these programs can be said to have contributed to the reduction of child labor in Tanzania.

The main donor has been USAID with increasing funding for orphans and vulnerable children yearly. Programs have been involving various partners in Tanzania including among others, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (Department of Social Welfare), coordinated by national

⁹⁵ (Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Youth Development, United Republic of Tanzania, 2009)

⁹⁶ (Nyangara, F. & Lema, E., 2009)

coordination Framework and Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E) framework, Tanzania Commission for AIDS (TACAIDS), and PMORALG (Lema, (USAID Tanzania), 2009). The table below highlights the trends in funding since 2005:

Table 7: Funding Levels for MVC: Source: USG Tanzania Consultative Workshop, 2009

Year	Amount (Million)
2005	\$ 5.7
2006	\$ 8.7
2007	\$ 14.7
2008	\$ 25.2
2009	\$ 24.9

With that level of funding and coverage, interventions have been focused and successful. National level advocacy activities have focused on anti-stigma advocacy and MVC NPA launch, which led to implementation of some grassroots interventions as well as capacity building of key actors (Lema, (USAID Tanzania), 2009). Capacity building support targeted Government of Tanzania key staff in selected Ministries and included technical assistance in strengthening of systems. Other key activities were the strengthening local NGO response to child vulnerability—more than 100 NGOs/CBOS through a subgrant mechanism and community level capacity building targeting about 13,000 community volunteers and service Corps volunteers (Lema, (USAID Tanzania), 2009).

The number of children targeted for support has been steadily increasing, but that does not guarantee that working children are an actual target. Feedback from a key informant indicates that the definition of a working child is sometimes not clear to many actors working in the area of MVC, for example, Family Health International (FHI) is assisting in the national identification process for MVC. Though one criterion for MVC is engagement in child labor, they are not sure of the definition of a working child. For instance, domestic workers are not seen as child laborers. This indicates that the identification criterion for child laborers is not known. They also do not know the support package for such children; therefore, the strategies for supporting them such as withdrawal and rehabilitation, protection, reintegration, and family empowerment.

The aim of the ongoing MVC programs is to scale up innovative, sustainable, and locally owned interventions for OVC. Overall, Track 1 OVC support contributed to 7% of the total OVC budget. In 2004, there were 11, 989 children reached with support; by 2009, there were 290,341 children. The percent of achievement of goals and objectives of the programs seemed to be satisfactory. The programs contributed to raising the national OVC profile, improved coordination of OVC implementing partners and donors, enhanced Local Government Authority (LGA) community care for OVC, improved systems and improved national advocacy against

stigma.⁹⁷

Table 8. Targeted Against Actual Number of Children Reached Per Year through NGO Interventions Targets: Source: USG Consultative Workshop, 2009

Year	TARGET	RESULTS	% Achieved
2004		11,989	
2005	31,500	34,419	115.6
2006	104,670	145,290	138.8
2007	228,160	221,315	97.0
2008	329,510	290,341	88.1
2009	389,793	SAPR 267.837	

However, there are weaknesses that have been associated with these programs, ranging from issues of ownership and sustainability to issues of quality service provision weaknesses to limited linkage with national priorities. In a consultative workshop undertaken by USAID Tanzania in 2009, participants felt that the major gaps were the following:

- Programs had a stronger focus on the child rather than the family
- Programs were not empowering families to sustain themselves, thus the nature of support provided was not sustainable (food handouts, uniforms, etc.) and there was limited involvement of MVCC and family members in planning
- Limited involvement of community members and families in implementation of programs and lack of coordination between different actors at local level for example the MVCC, LGAs, and Council Multi Sectoral Aids Committee (CMACs)
- Limited capacity of implementers, including government, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), and community members
- Inadequate reach of selected groups of vulnerable children such as children with disabilities and street children

Responses from Key Informant Interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Respondents seem to have different views concerning interventions that have been undertaken to address child labor in Tanzania.

Key informant interviews and focus group discussions in Dar es Salaam revealed that many of the interventions do not address child labor directly but believe that interventions addressing vulnerability issues have in a way been addressing child labor. So, for example, one of the respondents from an NGO said:

“we believe our interventions such as paying school fees for children who come from poor families will help to reduce child labor...”

The response doesn't differ with what the acting director of Food and Nutrition Centre said, that they address child labor through engaging in school feeding program to reduce dropouts in school. Conversely, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, Department of Social Welfare

⁹⁷ (Nyangara & Lema, 2009)

stated that they target group MVC of ranging from age 0 to 18 years in 86 districts. While the Ministry of Gender, Community Development and Children said they address child labor through development of policies, legislations, and guidelines concerning all children, including child laborers. They also undertake social mobilization, through community leaders at community level and provide education to the communities on the effect of child labor. They currently have an ongoing program targeting children of age 5 to 17 years addressing children's rights.

Kiota Women's Health for Development (KIWOHEDE) targets girls of age 9 to 18 years in a number of districts addressing the child labor problem through vocational education provision and counseling. Maasai Women Development Organization (MWEDO) in Arusha and Manyara does not work specifically on child labor but has an education program to support girls' attendance to secondary school. Their target is 13-19-year-olds and is currently reaching 300 beneficiaries. MWEDO has an economic empowerment program (IGA) for women with 5,000 women that have contributed to revolving funds in IG groups (10–20 women per group).

In Kilimanjaro region, a Community Development Officer pointed out that they have a child labor program that covers Moshi Municipal. The aim is to protect most vulnerable children, including child laborers from abuse and exploitation. They also have an ongoing program that promotes inclusion in which children living in difficult condition are accessing financial support and school fees. In Shinyanga, the Social Welfare Officer explained that they address child labor by withdrawing children from labor and providing them with financial and other support (targeting specifically working children). The program, however, is small, with a budget of \$4 million for two years. They are working in collaboration with other programs to ensure sustainability. In Iringa, the District Executive Officer mentioned that his responsibility is to make sure that government strategies and policies on child labor are efficiently implemented. They therefore provide education support to vulnerable children and collaborate with the district NGOs to implement child labor programs. He mentioned that their target is to reduce rapidly the 16,000 children in WFCL in Mufindi, including Njombe and Ludewa. He said:

“...we usually have direct interventions in plantations around Mufindi and withdraw working children from the plantations...”

In Arusha urban, the regional child labor coordinator highlighted that there is currently no child labor program, although there are programs implemented by other NGOs addressing issues of children's rights. In Lindi urban, the community development officer said that they intend to reach out to children affected by child labor through use of MVCC; they also plan to supervise enforcement of the Law of the Child Act, 2009 and formulating by laws that could help reduce the child labor problem. Their annual budget for MVC reaches 5 million Tshs. or even more depending on location and donors. They are collaborating with the local ward officials and school head teacher to educate about the effects of child labor. Likewise, the Mtwara Mikindani Social welfare officer stated that through provision of civic education to both family and children focusing on the effects of child labor, they have provided support to affected families, so far they plan to reach out to all of Mtwara region and the budget has been set for 2011–2012. On the other, hand Tabora–Uyui District Social Worker said that they plan to identify most vulnerable children among 124 villages and 24 wards:

“...we have AIDS budget addressing all issues of child labor, even though the development office have their own budget. It has been tough for us to meet projected goals due to budget deficit and other social issues but we are making progress...”

The nature of support provided to MVC targets children who are in homes and thus reduces the risk of children entering into child labor. However, there is no direct support that targets working children, and this is because the targeting mechanism is not meant to reach working children. Thus, there is no a withdrawal intervention or re-integration with families. Support provided by programs includes psychosocial support, shelter, education, healthcare, nutrition child participation, and economic strengthening.

Respondents in focus group discussion as well as the IDI had similar responses regarding what has been done to address child labor in Tanzania. In regions like Arusha urban (regional child labor coordinator), Shinyanga (social welfare officer), and Dar es Salaam, respondents said that the government has addressed child labor by undertaking awareness raising programs and mass education in the society. In focus group discussions in Dar es Salaam, respondents indicated that the Ministry of Employment, Labor and Youth Development have funded a child domestic work and CSEC programs to remove children from child labor. Respondents from Lindi (community development officer) said that interventions on child labor have been done through campaigns and implementation of action programs through support from the ILO. In Kilimanjaro (community development officers) mentioned that in their opinion not much has been done in that region but believed that by formulating policies on child labor and gender, then the government has supported child labor. He felt that the only way it has been addressed in Kilimanjaro is through the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare on the Day of the African Child every 16th June. In Mtwara Mikindani (social welfare officer) said that there are policies which address rights of children generally in different sectors. However respondents from Tabora (social worker) said that there is no direct program addressing child labor but there are several ongoing meetings on human trafficking, gender issues and child labor will probably be one of the topics in the future.

SECTION V: GOOD PRACTICES ON CHILD LABOR INTERVENTIONS

Although child labor is still a problem in Tanzania, there are indications that some of the interventions have been successful in reducing the problem. These successful practices can be replicated in future interventions on child labor. The Social Welfare Officer in Mtwara Mikindani and the Social Worker in Tabora, Uyui district stated that there is a clear need to do more to address child labor, particularly in addressing the major constraint in addressing this problem, which is funding from government and donors. They stated that interventions on HIV and AIDS have been very positive because funding has been flowing and thus facilitating greater impact, particularly in terms of prevention and impact mitigation.

Furthermore, the response from Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and Ministry of community Development, Gender and Children stated that there have been insufficient interventions to address child labor. Since the problem is also structural, caused by inequality and poverty, it must be continuously addressed in order to achieve bigger impact. Some of the good practices highlighted by respondents from the IDI and FGD include the following:

Mass Awareness Targeting Behavior Change

Responses from IDI and FGD reflect high levels of understanding of the child labor problem. The respondents from Kilimanjaro, Shinyanga, and Iringa mentioned that what has worked so far is the actual reduction of child labor due to the fact that children are now empowered in terms of understanding their rights. In Arusha Mererani, there is increased knowledge about the effects of child labor in mining (FGD with child labor committee members).

Interventions Targeting Increased Access to Education

Responses from focus group discussions with children and parents revealed that investments made by programs in education were able to achieve one of the most important needs for the children and the parents—ensuring that children had school needs such as uniforms, books, and financial contributions. The child labor committee in Arusha Mererani felt that increasing access to vocational training in skills such as tailoring and integrating children in primary and secondary schools contributed to the successful implementation of child labor programs. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) respondents from Kilimanjaro, Lindi, and Shinyanga indicated that they liked the emphasis on education because it is one of the ways believed to have potential of removing children from the current poverty status:

“...we know that the root cause of child labor is poverty and so by providing children with education, the programmes have given them an opportunity to move out of poverty and to save them from the hazards of being employed as domestic workers...” (IDI respondent, Lindi)

Kiota Women’s Health for Development (KIWOHEDE) from Dar es Salaam responded that they

have been providing vocational education to children withdrawn from child domestic labor and CSEC through support from the ILO and other donors and this has proved to be one of the best ways to give the children a second chance. Many of the children who graduate are able to access decent work and begin a new life. This was also highlighted by the National Child Labor Coordinator based in Dar es Salaam.

Capacity Building and Establishment of Systems

The National Child Labor Coordinator pointed out that one of the most successful practices thus far is the building of capacities of the human resources as well as systems. Through capacity building, Tanzania has a legislation in place addressing child labor issues, there is a Child Labor Unit in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar, and there are monitoring systems to monitor trends of child labor. The Child Labor Committees that have been established in selected districts have been able to undertake education campaigns against child labor and continue to do so whenever facilitated. They partake in planning processes at district and village levels and are able to influence the budgeting process so that some of the issues affecting or impacting child labor are sustainably addressed.

The feedback from the Child Labor Focal Point at the ILO shows that the steering committees are functioning very well and they are a source of information for partners. The steering committees have also strengthened ownership and ensured sustainability when the TBP program of support ended. The technical committee reports to the National Intersectoral Steering Committee and is based at the Child Labor Unit. Currently, capacity building on child labor is budgeted for in 16 districts (IDI, National Child Labor Coordinator) and the ILO office in Dar es Salaam is planning to train the Child Labor Unit new officers on ILO conventions.

Integration of Child Labor in National Policies, Strategies, Budgets, and Systems

Through networking and advocacy programs, child labor issues have been integrated and mainstreamed in national and sectoral policies, strategies and budgets. The integration of child labor into these key national processes will contribute to sustainability of interventions on child labor and is likely to strengthen ownership.

The National Child Labor Coordinator affirmed that there is greater commitment on part of the government to undertake interventions and fund child labor and there are currently budget lines to support child labor directly and child labor-related interventions. This is a new development that needs to be applauded. He further stated that there is a National Action Plan on child labor, which is an indication of the commitment to undertake interventions. However, he pointed out that they need to print and disseminate the NAP so that stakeholders can implement it.

Integrating child labor indicators into the child labor survey has been a commendable achievement. The National Bureau of Statistics Senior Statistician indicated that the module will continue to be used and has served as a reference for other countries in Africa (other countries

use it to improve their modules). It was a survey that was designed by the tripartite partners and it is demand driven. The NBS now undertakes child labor surveys in collaboration with the ministry responsible for labor.

Linking Child Labor Programs to Access to Healthcare

Towards Sustainable Action for the Prevention and Elimination of Child labor in Tobacco Farmini in Urambo district (2007-2010) is a program that aimed at building on acquired partner skills to address the root causes of child labor in tobacco growing in Urambo. Its objective was to strengthen capacities of communities and families to effectively address child labor. Some of the good practices of this program include increasing access to medical care by more than 1000 children through community Health Fund (CHF). CHF are sustainable healthcare interventions and thus likely to be sustained. This is a notable good practice that ensured access to healthcare by children that were at risk from child labor as well as children withdrawn from child labor. The intervention also linked access to healthcare to child labor, something that is not common in child labor interventions. The program was also able to undertake studies to determine the extent of child labor in tobacco farming and findings were used to educate stakeholders about the hazards to tobacco farming on their children. This research capacity was further built as they trained the district council on child labor research methods.

SECTION VI: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There has been significant reduction in the incidence of child labor in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar as a result of various interventions undertaken by government MDAs, Civil Society Organizations, and Donor Community. Significant achievements have been made and there are already good practices that can be scaled up. However, challenges remain, and there is room for improved programming and implementation.

Upscaling Child Labor Interventions

Though awareness raising has been undertaken and registered significant impact, there are still areas that need awareness raising interventions as well as other child labor intervention such as direct action linking children to education alternatives. Implementation has generally been patchy, thus some areas are not reached with any kind of support.

Interventions should focus in the following areas:

- CSEC
With the growth in cities and municipal towns and mobility of children from rural to urban areas, commercial sexual exploitation of children is increasing thus reflecting the need to intensify efforts in the area of child commercial sexual exploitation. Particularly in researching on the impact of urbanization on vulnerable children and their coping mechanisms; imparting knowledge to the tourism and hotel sector on the effects of CSEC and their role in reducing the problem; engaging the media, civil society organizations and other actors on how they can effectively address CSEC; and build capacity of the ministry responsible for vulnerable children to monitor the trends of CSEC and ensure availability of data disaggregated by age, location and sex.
- Child Labor in Agriculture
Children from poor households in rural areas have continued to work in the agriculture sector to supplement domestic income; this is likely to be the trend in the coming years especially with the introduction of the Kilimo Kwanza campaign. Interventions targeting children in the agriculture sector should be gender sensitive.
- Child Domestic Work and Child Labor in the Informal Sector
Domestic work is hidden and there is insufficient documentation in Tanzania on child labor in the domestic sector. Likewise, child labor in the informal sector is hidden because the informal sector is often not inspected by labor inspectors. The informal sector is also unregulated, posing a risk of abuse and exploitation. Increasing capacity of

the ministry responsible for labor to set minimum standards for the employment of children in the non hazardous informal sector and domestic sector as well as monitor labor standards in the domestic sector is important.

Several respondents through the FGD and IDI emphasized on the need to strengthen poor households financially and facilitate income generation skills and grants. This is regarded as the best way of ensuring that children do not go back to child labor.

Increase Geographical Targeting and Multipronged Interventions

Increase child labor interventions in districts with highest numbers of vulnerable children (particularly children living without parental care) in Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar and in districts with high poverty rates (both income and food poverty); however, it must be remembered that in these areas, there is already a number of implementing agencies on the ground, interventions should aim to strengthen linkages between organization and evaluate opportunities for synergies. Because of high poverty and deprivation levels, children face numerous poverty related problems, including lack of shelter, food, education, health and other essential needs. Interventions must seek to ensure that targeted children have access to a complete package and also ensure that there is a continuum of services even when programs end so that children continue to have access to such support up to a time when they can develop and survive without it. This will mean developing effective sustainability strategies in collaboration with local government, civil society organizations, parents and children themselves.

Increase Sensitization and Awareness Raising Focusing on Agriculture Sector

Responses from IDI and focus group discussions indicate that levels of knowledge about child labor differ from region to region and sometimes from institution to institution. Sensitization has not trickled down to plantations owners, who often do not see the problem of child labor (FGD respondents). Continued education and awareness campaigns to communities, caretakers and children on the impact of child labor in agriculture but coupled with capacity building and women empowerment activities related to their legal rights to own forces of production, engage in decision making at household, local government (for example the opportunity provided in the Lands Act) and community levels and increase knowledge and literacy skills to parents, income generation knowledge and skills, care taking practices and any other relevant skill set for parents with working children. Education and awareness campaigns should target all districts but particularly districts that have not been reached with child labor programs.

Strengthening Data Management and Research on Child Labor

Data collection and management systems have been developed and seem to be functioning, however, the problem is the frequency of data collection on child labor. Advice from the senior statistician is that child labor data should be regularly collected rather than wait for large surveys such as the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), which is done every 3 years, HBS every 5 years, and agriculture survey every 3 years. This timeframe for larger surveys is too long for child labor data. It therefore should be done at least every 2 years. For example, currently, the

Government of Tanzania does not have data on how many children in labor have been withdrawn or prevented by various institutions.

There are also serious financial constraints with regard to the collection of child labor data, and the NBS indicated that there is lowered stakeholder drive to support the generation of data on child labor. Although data has been used to improve planning and budgeting, it should be used more to influence behaviors and attitudes.

In terms of research, not much has been supported in the recent years, although opportunities for doing this have existed. The Africa Child Policy form, funded by the Oak Foundation, wanted to research violence against children, so they have consulted with UNICEF who has advised them to fund another survey focusing on children outside of family care and child domestic workers. The Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children has recently completed a survey on gender-based violence, but child labor was not adequately covered in the survey.

REPOA has a children's research fund that supports research initiatives undertaken by institutions and individuals on children's issues. Issues of child labor have not been widely researched.

Improve Coordination, Harmonization and Create Synergies with Other Child Protection Programs

Generally, both Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar needs to strengthen programmatic interventions for children in labor and synergies should be created with ongoing programs, for example, child laborers should be among MVCs targeted for support under PEPFAR funding, and the new MVC costed plan of action should go beyond conventional responses. Ministries should look at how to engage child labor factors in the MVC identification and planning process. Multipronged child rights and poverty-focused activities should be implemented by civil society in order to have a broader and lasting impact on the problem of child labor.

Interventions for children in labor can be addressed through the UNDAF framework. ONE UN is an opportunity to forge closer ties with other agencies implementing child labor interventions. The ILO has access to funds under ONE UN for child labor, and UNICEF has become more open to working with ILO on Child labor (IDI, UNICEF Child Protection Specialist).

It is important to note that with various institutions implementing programs that impact on child labor, coordination becomes critical to successful implementation. Coordination at both ministerial level and among implementers is highly missing but much needed. The current Implementing Partners Group coordinated by the Department of Social Welfare and financed by UNICEF can be a good entry point because it consists of the main implementers of child protection programs. Currently, UNICEF is not aware of about the NGOs working on child labor and how ministries are coordinating responses on child labor. The Child Policy Forum which was coordinated by REPOA can also be used as a springboard to a more sustainable coordination mechanism managed by government (Ministry Responsible for Labor). The Child Labor Policy Forum had a huge advantage as it was linked to a research institution that has visible opportunities to influence policy dialogue at national level.

Coordination will enhance joint planning, strategizing, joint use of resources, and joint monitoring and evaluation of programs for children. FHI is finalizing a mapping study that will map all public and private services for children in Tanzania, including all actors implementing children's programs. The result of this mapping can be beneficial to the Ministry of Labor in terms of identifying potential partners and planning for more effective coordination and harmonization of intervention.

MVC monitoring systems for the different ministries need to be harmonized; there should be a shared database on MVC. The child labor monitoring system (CLMS) was not established in the ministry responsible for labor and no one seems to know if it is functioning well. There are no harmonized tools to gather data on how many children are working.

Support Implementation of the Law of the Child Act

The law of the Child Act is an effective entry point into improving enforcement and implementation of child labor interventions, however, its implementation needs to be supported. The Child Act ensures all children do not do hazardous work, but as it was explained by one of the IDI respondents, it was a nightmare to define hazardous work and to establish a common understanding of the concept. Publicizing the Act and supporting activities that will facilitate its effective enforcement will add great value to interventions against child labor.

Labor laws provide inspection power but this has not happened as often as desired, the LCA can facilitate more effective inspection. Labor Inspectorate has offices in most regions, but sensitization is needed to incorporate child labor inspections in daily inspection work.

Support Implementation of Child Rights and Welfare Policies and Strategies

With the absence of sufficient resources to ensure that children, particularly vulnerable children have access to the bare basic needs such as water, food, shelter, education and good health, implementing child labor programs will always be met with insurmountable challenges because child labor cannot be effectively tackled in an environment of insufficiency in basic needs.

Decision makers need to be mobilized to support interventions to promote the general wellbeing of children. Advocacy can start from local government levels to national levels and should include capacity building in budgeting for children and in planning and monitoring the trends of child poverty and deprivation

Support the Child Labor Unit in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar

Both units have staff and capacity to undertake child labor interventions but they lack funding for many of their activities. The Child Labor Unit in Mainland Tanzania currently has an annual budget of 48,000,000 (approximately 35,000 USD). But they often do not get the full requested budget. Right now they are also not funded by any donor but have an agreement with the Brazilian government to implement the National Action Plan focusing on awareness raising and set up zonal networks with three partners.

Feedback from child labor coordinators shows that there is need to train and support labor inspectors so that they can monitor child labor more effectively.

Strengthen Child Labor Committees

Capacity building activities have been undertaken for child labor committees at all levels, but these have not been followed up. In Zanzibar, respondents highlighted the need to consider merging child labor committees with other children's committees, for example, MVCC where they exist.

Support Development and Implementation of Action Plans on Child Labor

In Zanzibar, there is no National Action Plan for the elimination of child labor. This plan needs to be in place in order for Zanzibar to effectively and comprehensively address the child labor problem. Likewise, in Mainland Tanzania, the implementation of the National Action Plan is generally weak as the plan lacks funding.

Strengthen Ownership of Child Labor Programs

Funding for child labor programs should ideally be coming from government sources, however, this has been difficult. The result is patchy, uncoordinated funding to child labor interventions by various donors, often not known by the Ministry responsible for labor. A plea from the ministries in both Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar is for donors to adequately involve and engage the ministries responsible for labor before funding interventions. Sufficient engagement will ensure that priorities as defined by government are addressed and that there is ownership and sustainability of interventions.

Some of the weaknesses in implementation have been “hanging” children, meaning that when interventions end, no one knows what happens to the children that have been withdrawn, and this is attributed to poor design of programs, lack of effective monitoring and tracking systems, and lack of government ownership.

APPENDIX: MAPPING EXERCISE AND SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS

In order to show the geographic extent of child labor and efforts to combat it within Tanzania, a series of maps were prepared using data from the 2006 Integrated Labor Force Survey (ILFS),⁹⁸ in combination with data derived from a survey questionnaire that was designed and conducted specifically for this study, to assess where governmental and non-governmental organizations are working to reduce child labor.

These maps show how child labor is distributed across Tanzania and give some indication of the degree to which efforts to combat child labor correspond to those areas in which child labor is most prevalent.

The first three maps show the estimated prevalence of child labor in three sectors in 2006: agriculture, hunting, and forestry; household work; and wholesale and retail work. These categories represent the most common categories of children's work as reported in the 2006 ILFS. The shading of the maps shows variations in estimated prevalence. The shading categories are based upon approximate quintiles from the distribution of prevalence across districts of child labor for children's participation in agriculture, hunting, and forestry; the same shading scheme is used for the other two sectors to facilitate comparison. Though the data are 5 years old, the overall patterns are consistent with the findings of the literature review and key informant interviews, suggesting that agriculture/forestry continues to be the sector in which most child labor occurs largely because of that sector's dominant role in the country's economy. Child labor associated with household work and with wholesale/retail work, by contrast, is much less prevalent.

⁹⁸ (National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, Economy and Empowerment et al., 2007)

Legend

Prevalence of child labor in agriculture, hunting and forestry

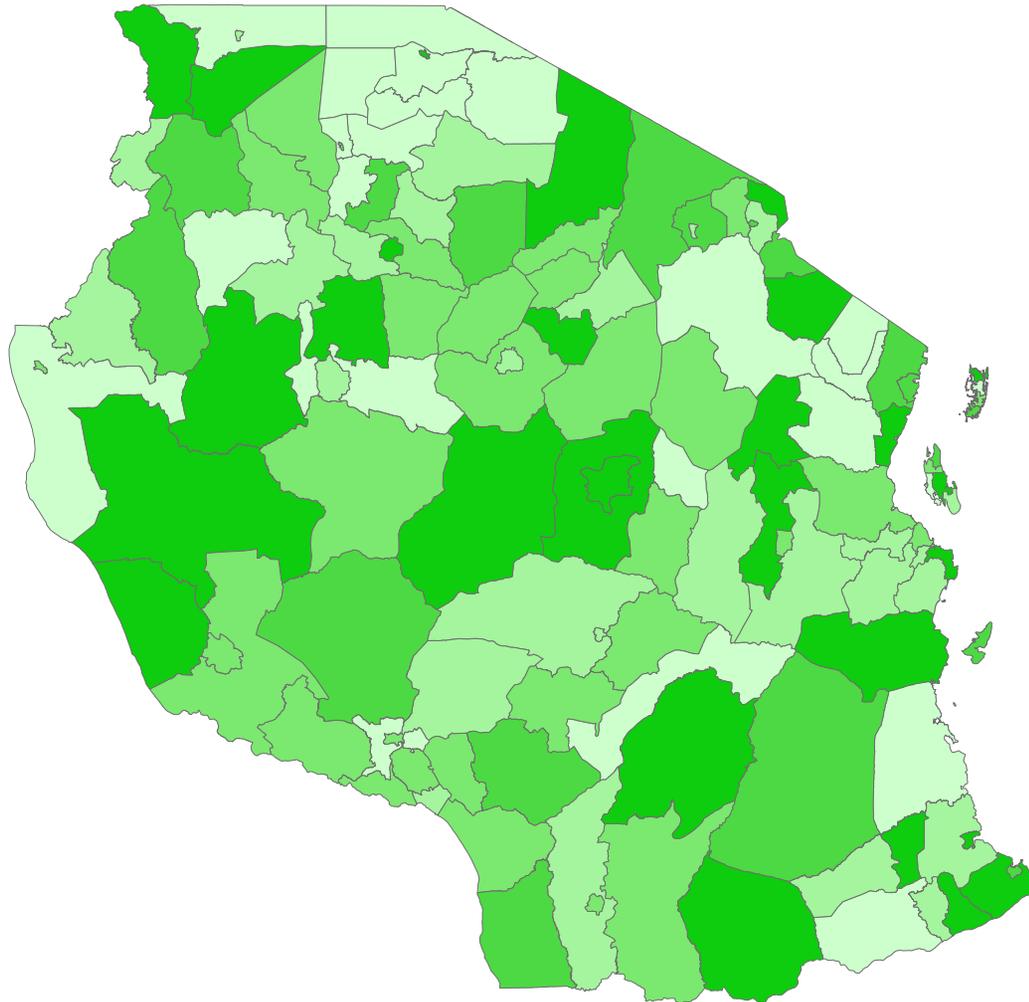
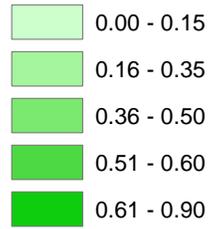


Figure 3. Prevalence of child labor in agriculture, hunting, and forestry.

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Prevalence of child labor in household work

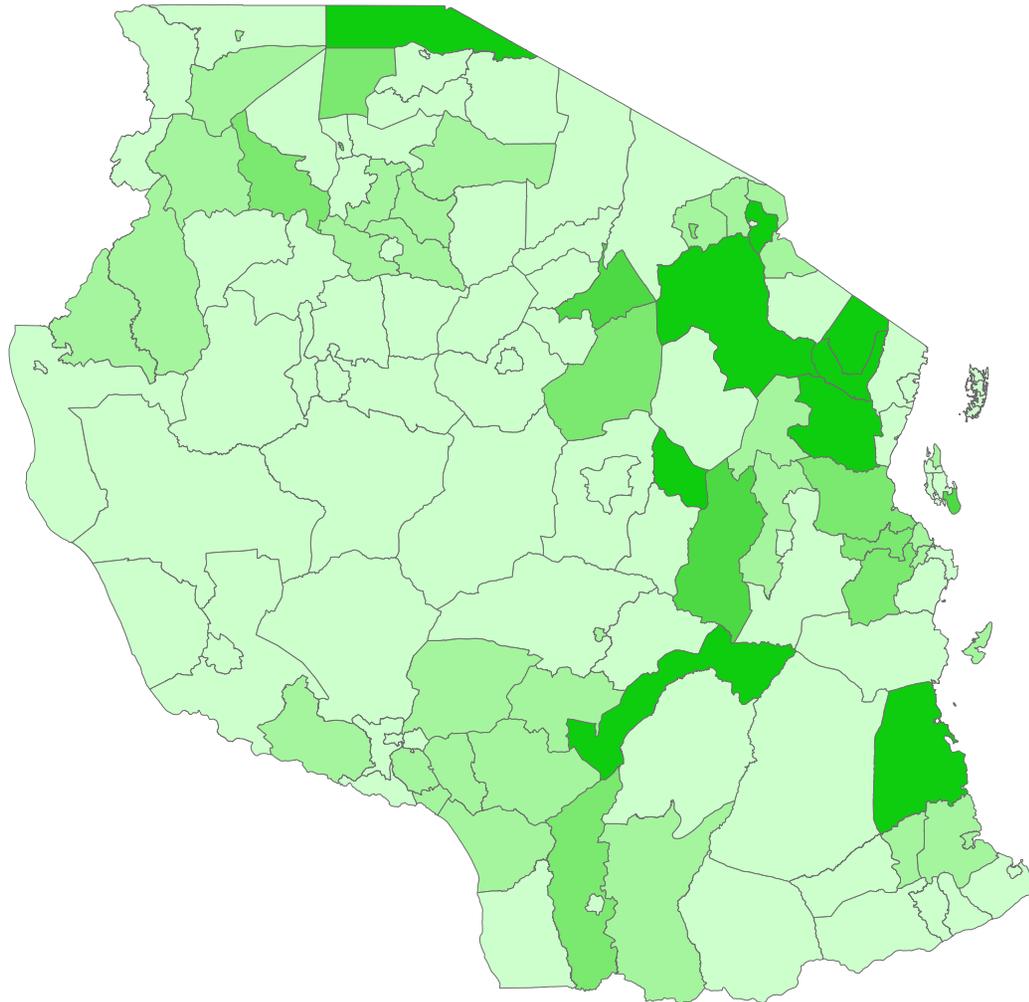
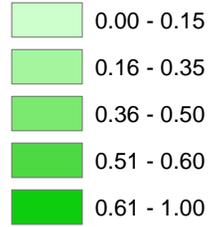


Figure 4. Prevalence of child labor in domestic work.

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Prevalence of child labor in wholesale & retail work

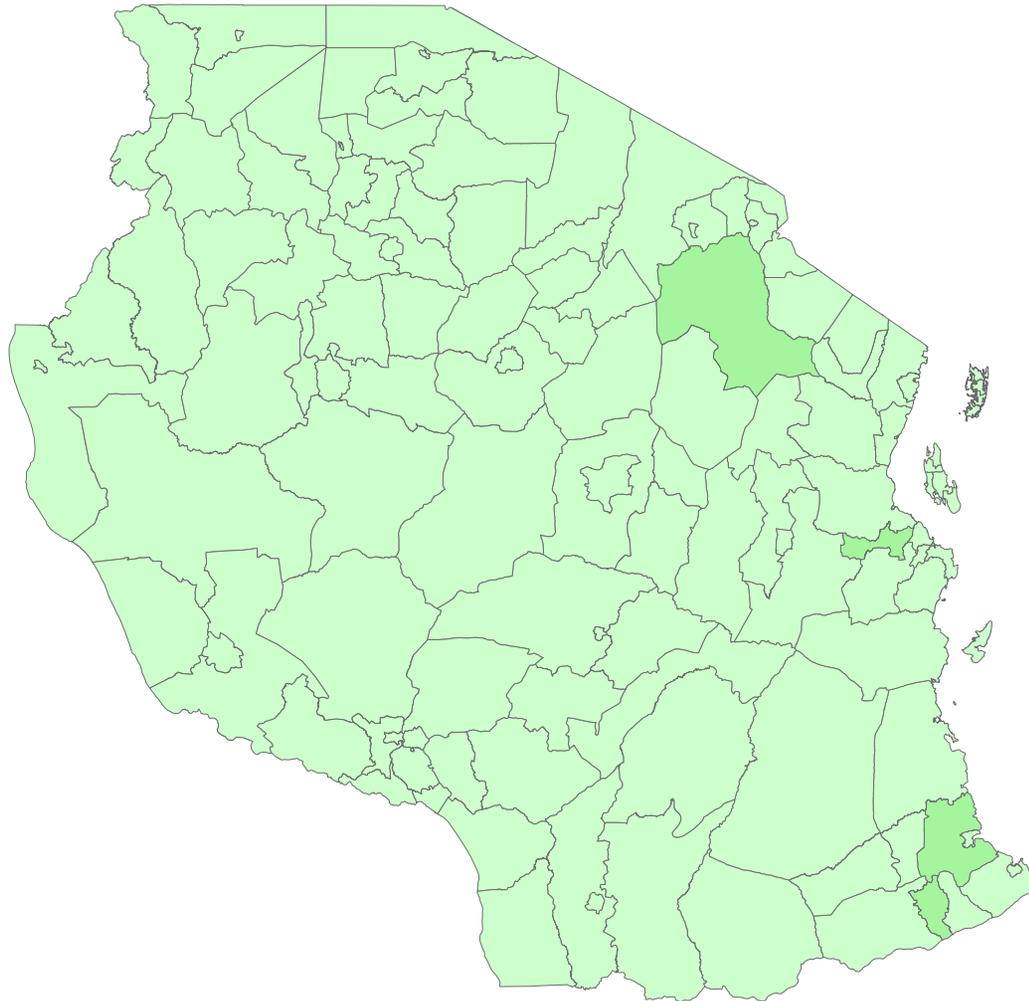
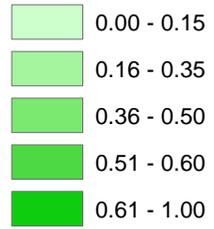


Figure 5. Prevalence of child labor in wholesale and retail work.

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Incidence of injuries due to children's work

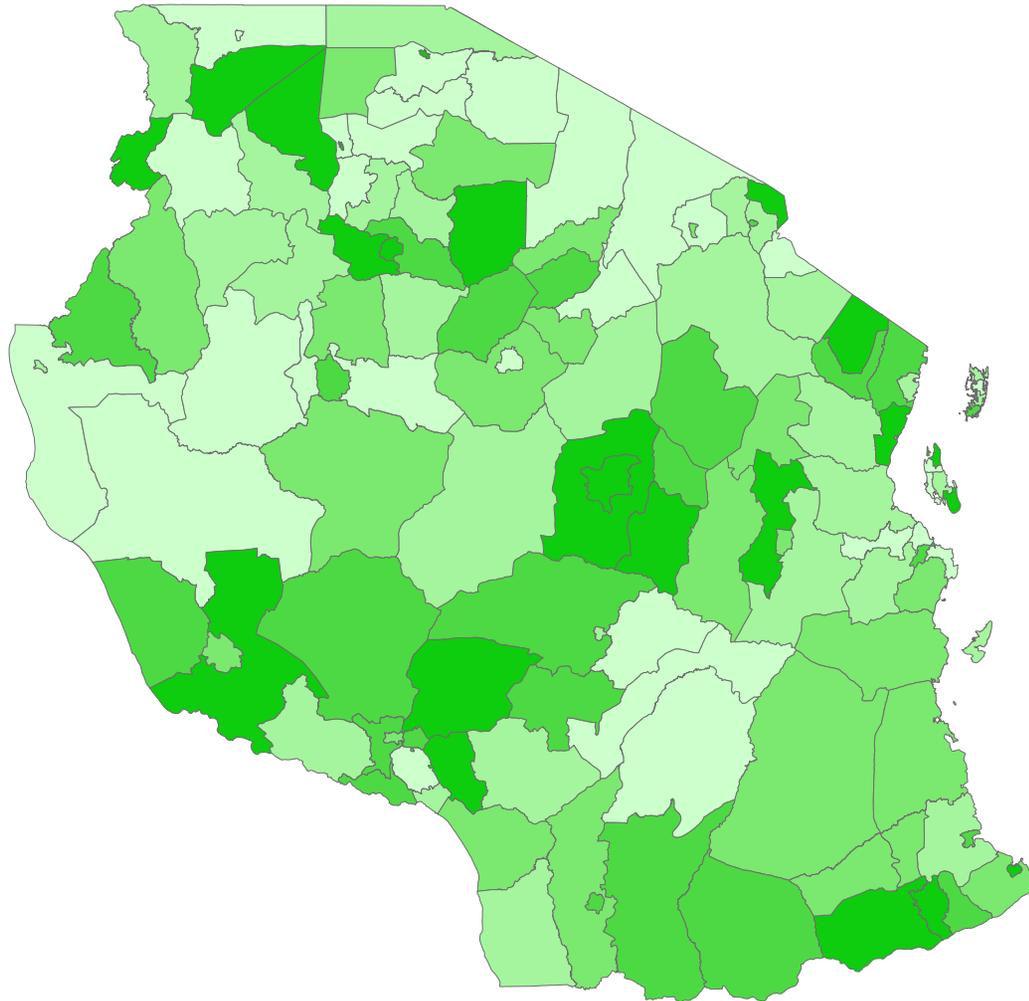
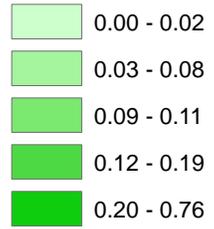


Figure 6. Incidence of injuries due to children's work.

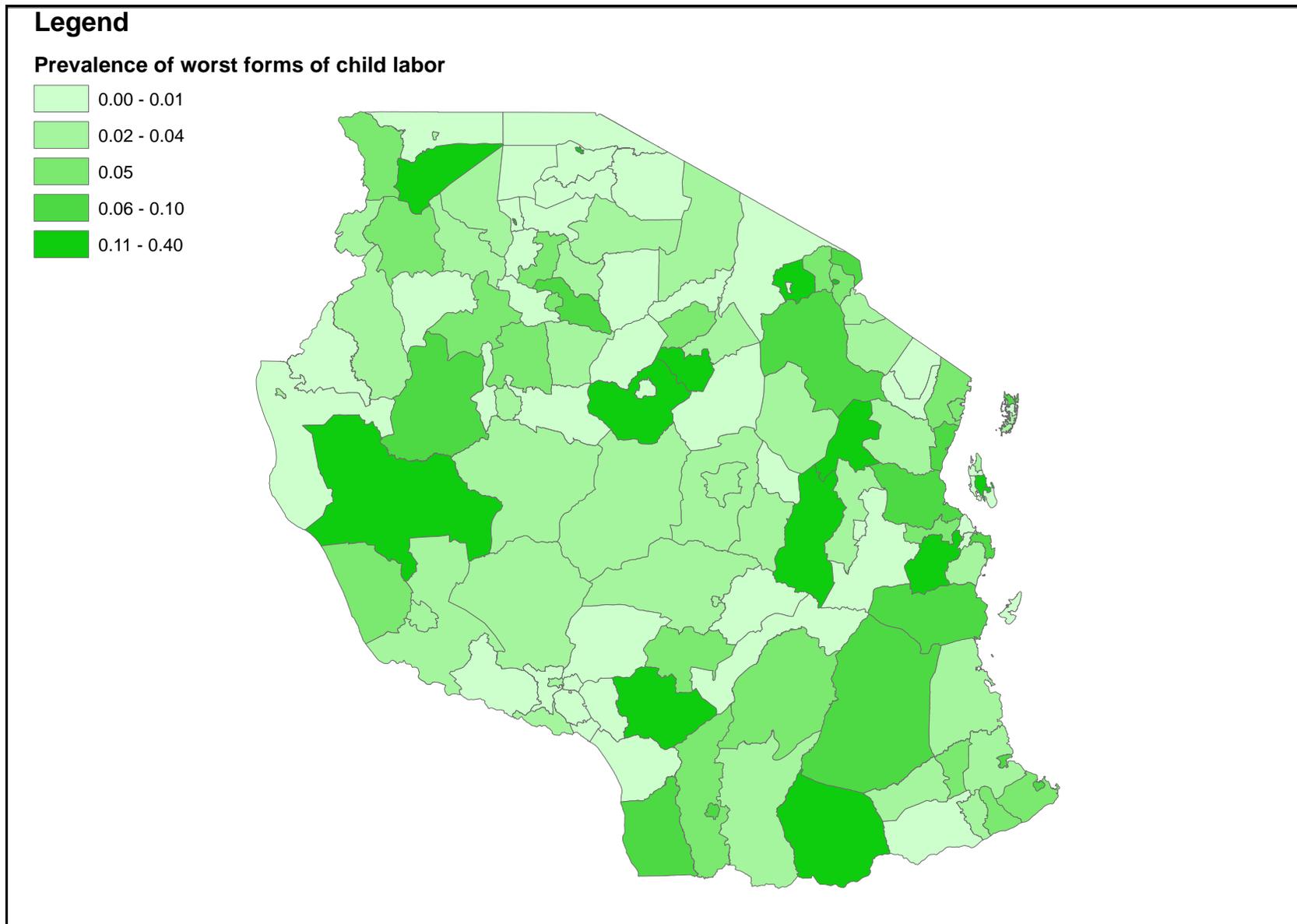


Figure 7. Prevalence of worst forms of child labor.

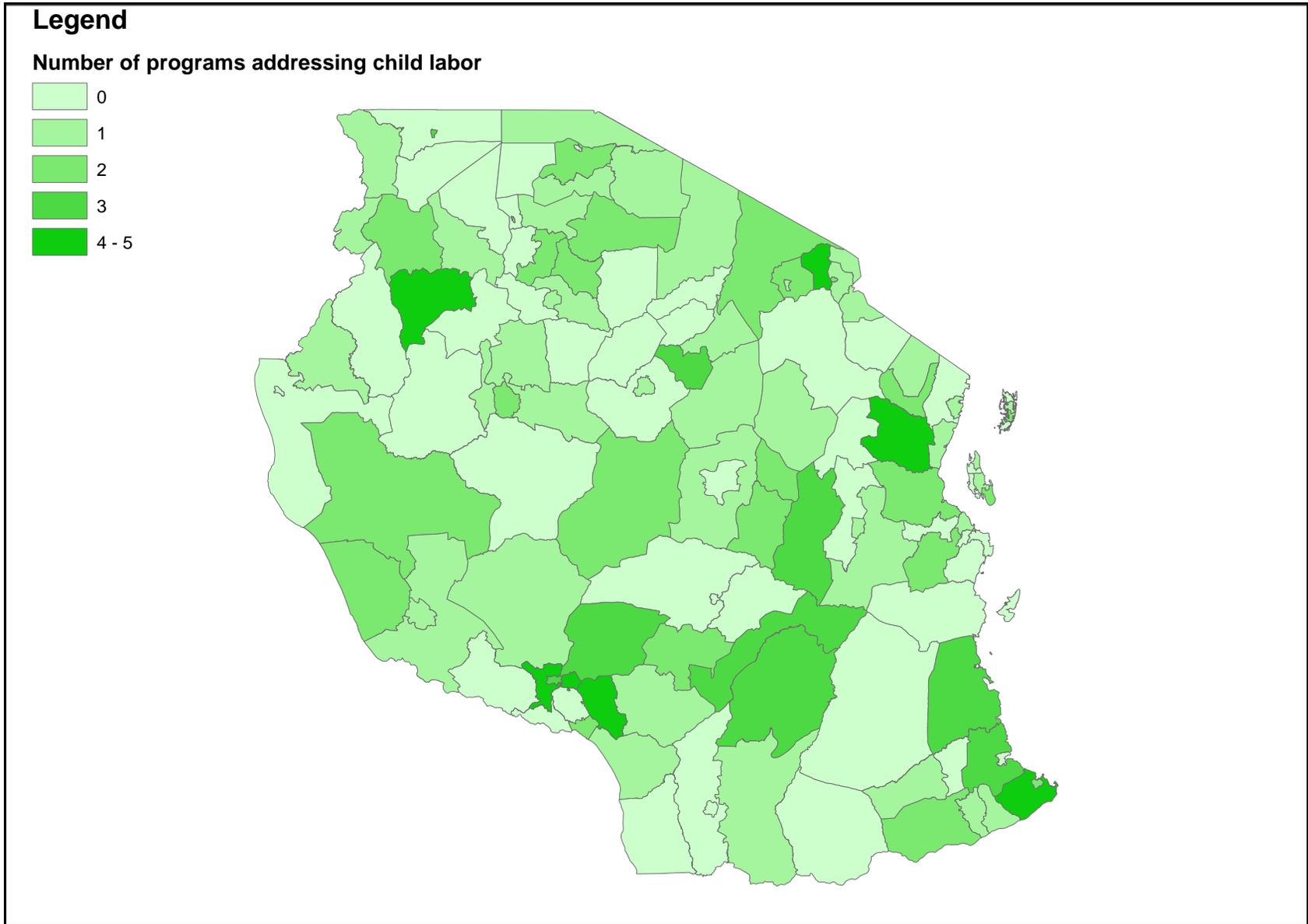


Figure 8. Number of programs addressing child labor.

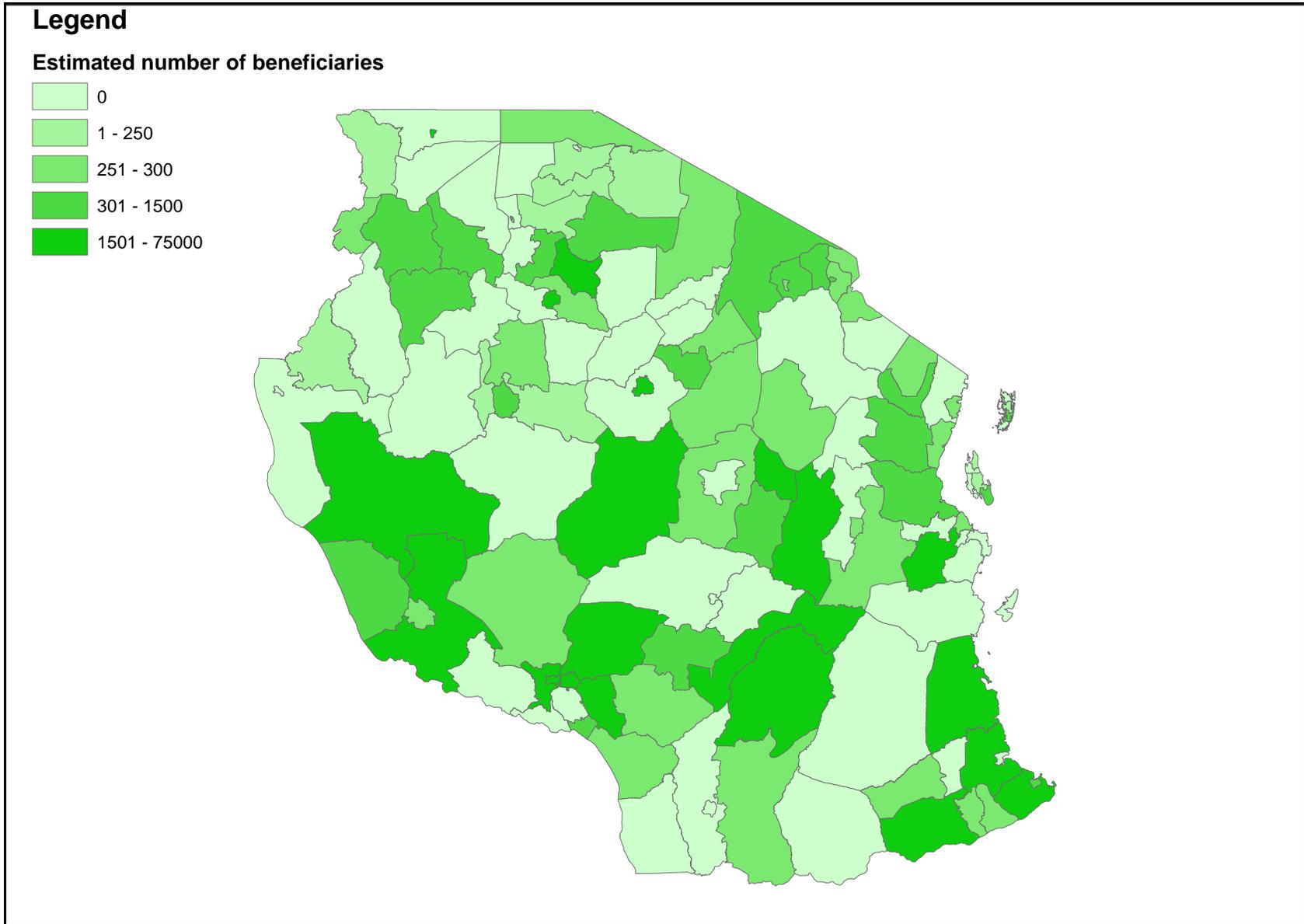


Figure 9. Estimated number of beneficiaries.

The next two maps show the estimated 2006 incidence of children's injuries due to work and the distribution of worst forms of child labor, respectively.

Finally, the next two maps show the count of agencies reported to be providing services to combat child labor in each district, and the estimated number of beneficiaries served.

The number of beneficiaries served varied widely from less than 100 to more than 70,000 per district. These numbers should be viewed with caution, as they are based on respondents' recollection and not project documentation. They are therefore likely to be unreliable. Missing values for a number of projects were imputed using the median number of beneficiaries reported per project per district, 300.

The next figure is a bubble plot showing the relationship between household involvement in forestry work and child labor. Each bubble represents one district. The bubble areas are proportional to the estimated population under 20 in that district. There are two series shown. Those districts in which at least one agency reported that it is working to reduce child labor are shown in black. Those districts in which no agencies reported they are working are shown in blue.

The plot shows a clear positive association between forestry work and child labor. However, there is a great deal of variability in the prevalence of child labor among those districts with heavy involvement in forestry, where the prevalence of child labor ranges from zero to over 60%.

The services provided by agencies working to reduce child labor are broadly distributed across regions in Tanzania, including in those areas with a low prevalence of both forestry work and child labor.

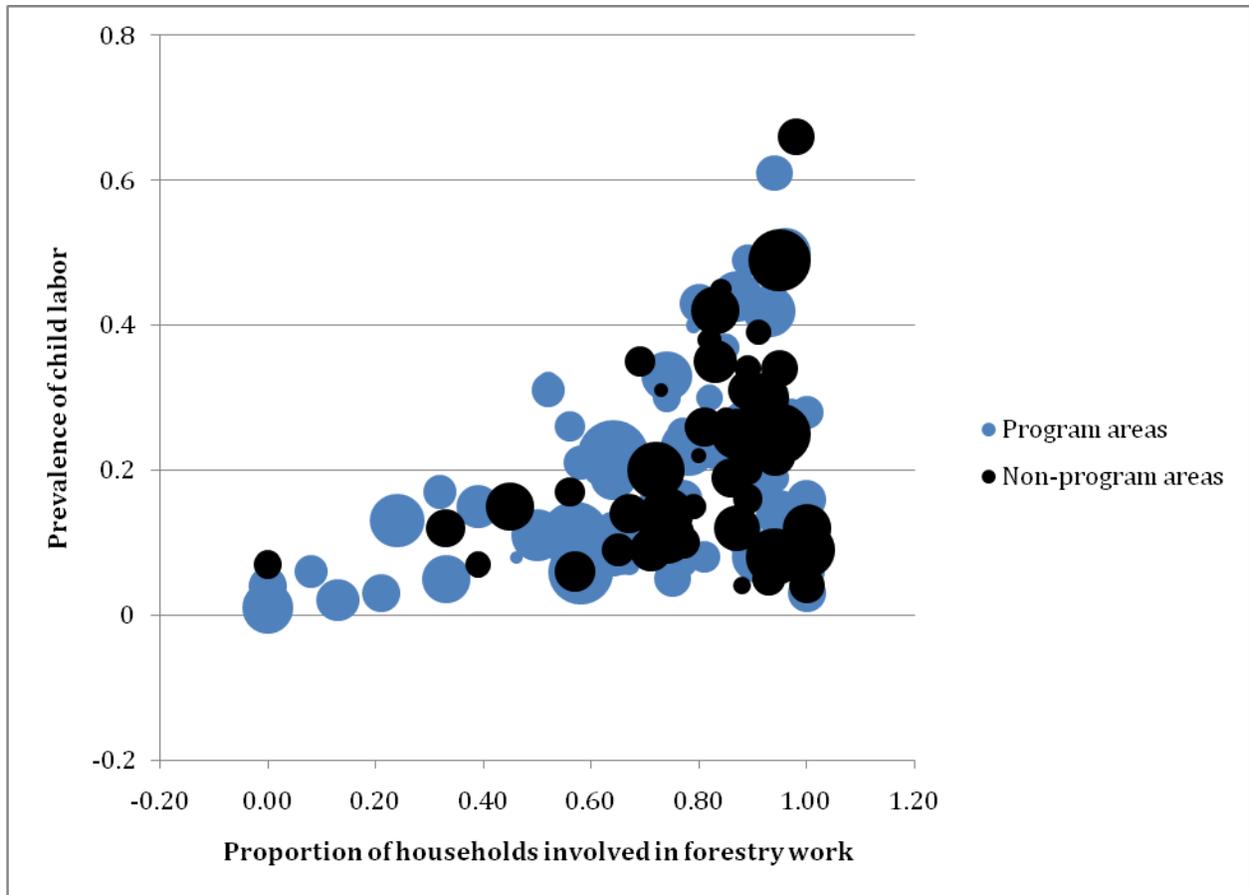


Figure 10. Association between forestry work and child labor, and distribution of projects to combat child labor across districts.

Social Network Analysis

A special-purpose survey was developed to collect data on the ties between agencies working on child labor and related issues in Tanzania. The following series of graphs depicts these connections as social networks.

The layouts of all graphs were done using the Kamada-Kawai algorithm,⁹⁹ which distributes the nodes (the dots representing the agencies) across the graph space according to the density of ties connecting them; more densely tied nodes are placed closer together with less densely connected nodes moving to the periphery. Ties are weighted equally.

The first graph shows which agencies reported that they have worked together on policy interpretation. The placement of arrows indicates the direction of response; an arrow leading from one agency to another indicates that a survey respondent at the “sending” agency nominated the “receiving” agency as one with which the respondent’s agency worked on policy interpretation related to child labor. A number of Government ministries, notably the Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children, occupy central locations in the network, suggesting that they play an important role in policy making. It is also notable that the organizations Tabora NGOs Cluster and White Orange Youth are also quite well connected to the other agencies and are likely to be important actors in the policy space surrounding child labor. Tabora NGOs Cluster is a civic organization focused primarily on HIV/AIDS and on providing services to protect orphans and vulnerable children. White Orange Youth is a small community based organization that also works primarily on HIV/AIDS. Although this focus does not necessarily overlap with child labor, it is clear that both of these organizations are well-connected to other community-based organizations and are likely to be able to mobilize resources to support collaborative efforts in a variety of development areas.

⁹⁹ (Kamada & Kawai, 1989)

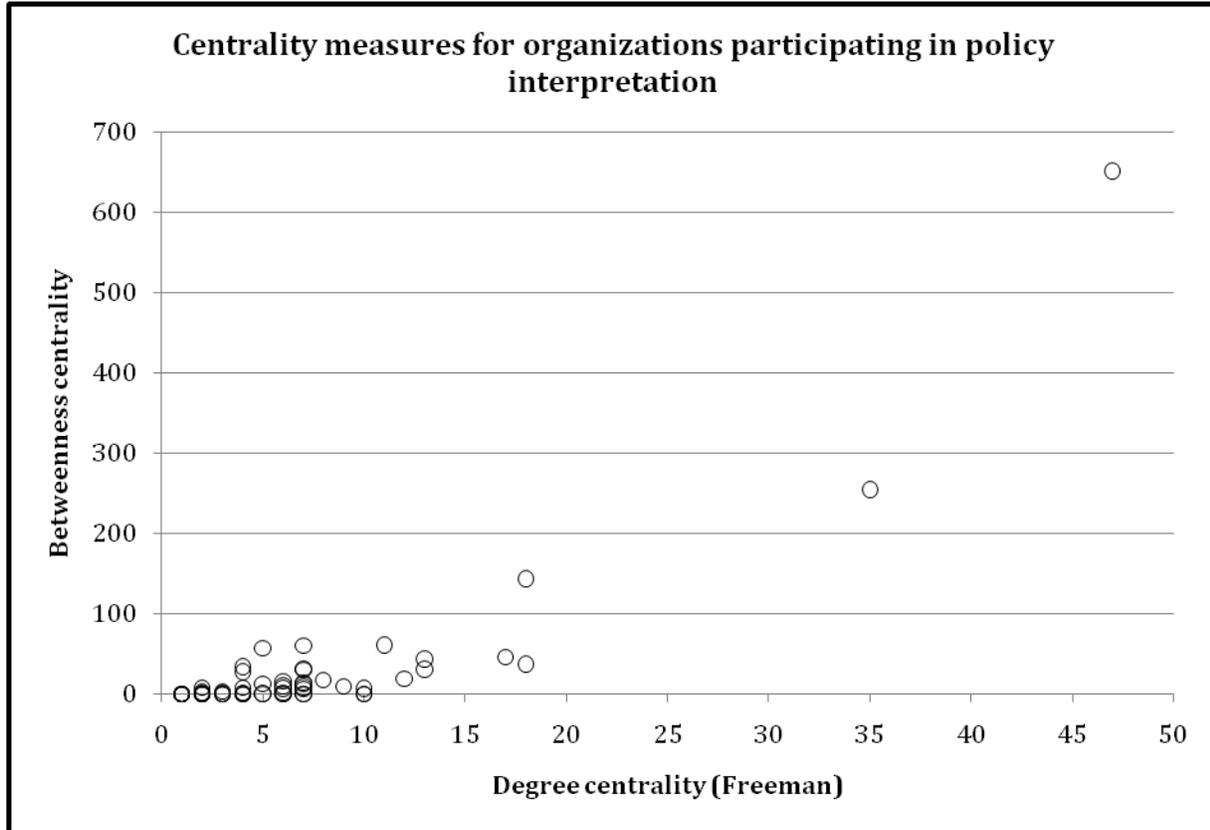


Figure 12. Comparison of centrality measures.

Two different centrality measures were calculated to identify those organizations closest to the center of the policy network: “betweenness” centrality, which is based on the fraction of shortest paths that pass through a node, and degree centrality, which counts the number of ties going in and out of a node. Both measures provide an indication of the importance of a node to information flow, negotiation, brokerage, and other functions of the network as a whole.¹⁰⁰ The scatterplot above compares these measures for the policy network. There are three organizations with especially high degree and betweenness centrality: the Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children, Tabora NGOs Cluster, White Orange Youth. The centrality measures for all 86 organizations in the network are shown in the scatterplot above, and table 11 provides centrality scores for the 9 most-central organizations in the network.

¹⁰⁰ (Freeman, 1977)

Table 9. Network centrality measures for organizations with degree centrality greater than 10 or betweenness centrality greater than 100.

Organization	Centrality Measure	
	Degree	Betweenness
Tabora NGOs Cluster	47	651.5
Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children	35	254.5
White Orange Youth	18	143.4
Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA)	11	61.0
Ministry of Education	17	45.7
Ministry of Labor	13	43.6
Department of Social Welfare	18	37.4
Tanzania Education Network (TEN)	13	31.0
Ministry of Health and Social Welfare	12	18.8

In order to make the network plot’s visual layout easier to read, the egocentric networks of the two organizations with the highest centrality have been extracted from the main network and are plotted below. An egocentric network is a subset of the whole network centered on a single node. In the first plot, all the nodes with direct ties (either in or out) to the Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children are shown, along with their ties to each other.

The second egocentric network is centered on Tabora NGOs Cluster and includes all the organizations to which it is directly connected, along with their ties to each other. Notably, White Orange Youth is included in this second egocentric sub-network but not the first, because there are no direct ties between White Orange Youth and the Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children, despite the former organization’s apparent importance among regional organizations. Tabora NGOs cluster thus appears to be a key bridging organization that can connect diverse groups within the policy network.

The last graph shows which agencies shared financial resources. Again, the direction of the arrow indicates the direction of resource flow. An arrow pointing from one agency to another indicates either that the respondent in the receiving organization indicated that that organization received financial resources from the sending organization, or that a respondent in the sending organization indicated that the sending organization provided financial resources to the receiving agency. Probably the most striking aspect of this graph is the central position occupied by the Economic and Social Research Institute, which receives funding from a large number of other agencies.

In general, the network of agencies working on child labor issues in Tanzania appears to be robust and includes a diversity of governmental and non-governmental agencies that seem to be actively involved in thinking about and defining programmatic solutions and sharing resources. Efforts to introduce new child labor projects in Tanzania should use this network as a resource to support program development.

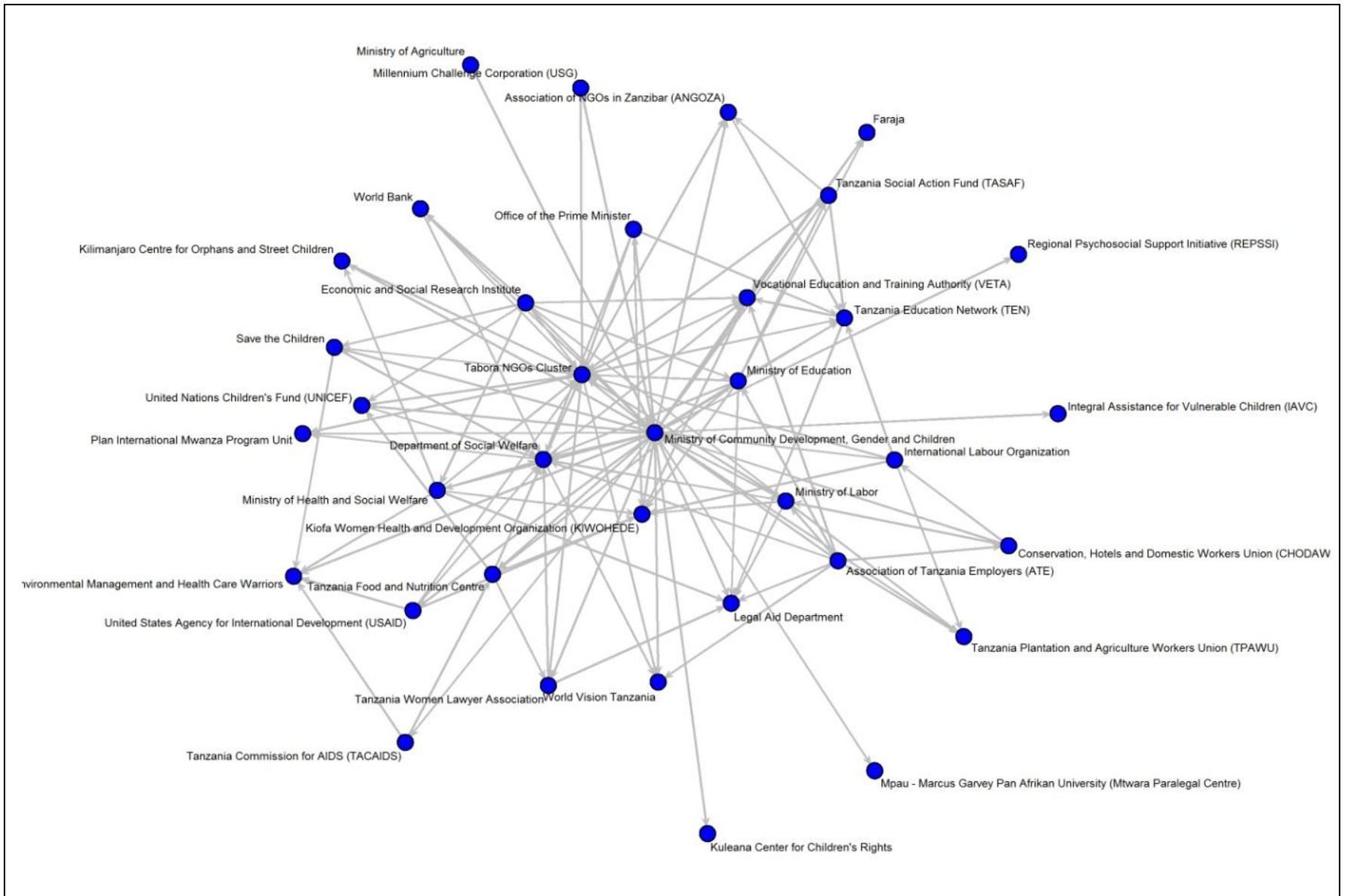


Figure 13. Egocentric network of Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children.

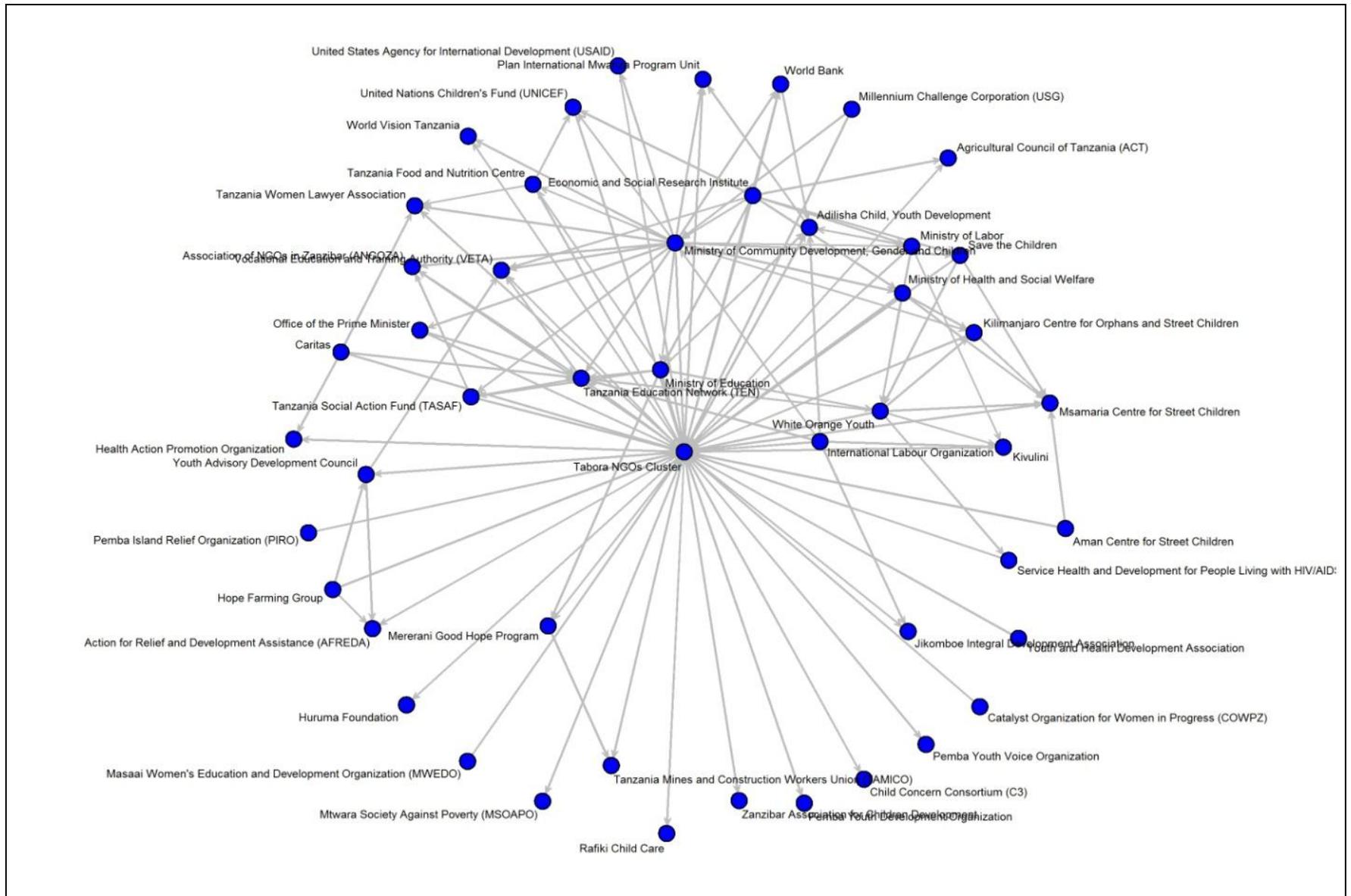


Figure 14. Egocentric network of Tabora NGOs Cluster, showing ties with White Orange Youth.

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