ANALYSIS OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING CHILD LABOUR IN TOBACCO FARMING:

THE CASE OF URAMBO DISTRICT

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By

Daimon, Benedicto

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Masters of Science in Economics (MSc. Economics) of Mzumbe University

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CERTIFICATION

We, the undersigned, certify that we have read and hereby recommended for acceptance by the Mzumbe University, a dissertation entitled, **Analysis of the Factors Influencing Child Labour in Tobacco Farming, the Case of Urambo District.** In partial /fulfillment of the requirements for award of the degree of Master of Science in Economics (MSc. Economics)

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I, **Daimon, Benedicto,** declare that this dissertation is my own original work and it has never been submitted, published and presented to any other Institute or University for a similar or any other degree award.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANPPCAN	-	African Network for the Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect
CL	-	Child Labour
CRC	-	Convention on the Rights of the Child
EAP	-	Economically Active Population
ESAPs	-	Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GLSS	-	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GSS	-	Ghana Statistical Service
HIV	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICFTU	-	International Confederation of Free Trade Union
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
MKUKUTA	-	Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umasikini Tanzania
MoLEYD	-	Ministry of Labour, Employment and Youth Development
NAP	-	Nation Action Plan
NSGRP	-	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NBS	-	Nation Bureau of statistics
OLS	-	Ordinary Least Square
PMO-RALG	-	Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government

SAAPAWU	-	South African Agricultural Planters Allied Workers Union
SODECO	-	Social Development Consultants (U) Ltd
TFTU	-	Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions
UN	-	United Nations
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	-	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
URT	-	United Republic of Tanzania

ABSTRACT

This study identifies and examines socio-economic factors, which influence child labour in tobacco farming. The study is based on the field survey conducted in Urambo District. Logistic regression modeling was used on a sample of 253 households to determine the influence of education level of parent household, household meals per day, gender, distance from home to school and family parenthood type on children participation in tobacco farming. The study found that the parent's primary education and secondary education level, number of meals taken per day are strongly significant at 5%, 1%, 5% respectively and positive determinant of child labour in tobacco farming in the district. However, university/college education of parent household, gender and distance from home to school were not significant factors. Moreover, the outcomes of Odd ratio to be greater than one (1) give us some important indications about the future prospects of children participation in tobacco farming. Since the odd ratio of the variables one meal and two meals per day (indication of family wealth) are 6 and 2 respectively are greater than 1 then the odds of not participating in tobacco farming are greater per unit increase in meals taken. Thus, the children living in more wealthy families (three meals per day) are less likely to participate in tobacco farming. Since education odd ratio is less than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children participation in tobacco farming is lower for children whose parents have high education level. Based on the findings, the study provides policy recommendations to address the problem of child labour in the area and in other areas facing similar problems.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study, research problem and the objectives. It also underscores the definitions, significance of the study and research questions. Finally, an outline of the dissertation is introduced.

1.1. Background of the Study

Urambo district produces the largest quantity of tobacco within Tabora region (approximately 40,000 farmers are involved in the tobacco sector). Therefore, compared to other rural districts in Tanzania, Urambo could be considered wealthy due to the income earned from sales of tobacco products. The district is primarily a tobacco farming area in rural Tanzania, with few sources of income outside tobacco farming. The few alternative economic activities are mostly associated with agricultural production, including crops like cassava, groundnuts and/or, to a minor extent, maize, sesame seeds, beekeeping, mangoes, and animal husbandry (Masudi, Ishumi, Mbeo and Sambo, 2001). Most agricultural production is undertaken on a small scale, operating on less than three hectares of land per household. Most agricultural activities are highly labour intensive, but there is potential for introducing labour saving technologies. Tobacco farming is found in Iringa, Kagera, Kigoma, Mbeya, Rukwa, Ruvuma, Shinyanga, Singida and Tabora regions and is typically marketed with the assistance of cooperative unions (Masudi, et al., 2001). In Tanzania, the majority of tobacco is sold through cooperatives. For example, in 2006/07, 50.6 metric tons of tobaccos were sold, where 42.2 tons were sold through cooperatives (Bank of Tanzania, 2008; Maghimbi, 2009). In general, the productivity of labour in agriculture in Tanzania is low, largely due to inadequate access to inputs, technology and microfinance; high production costs; poor agri-business management skills; poor infrastructure and environmental factors (Gordon, 2008; Conforti and Sarris, 2007). In Urambo in particular, traditional tobacco

growing methods are labour intensive, with many small holders manually tilling the land.

Child labour is a widespread problem in developing countries. When children under the age of 15 works, their labour time disrupt their schooling and, in a majority of cases, prevent them from attending school all together. Compounding this, the health of child workers is very poor, even accounting for their poverty status, than that of children who do not work. In addition, many labouring children are subject to especially cruel and exploitative working conditions (Todaro and Smith, 2009).

The International Labour Organization Office (ILO), a UN body that has played a leading role in the child labour issue estimated that some 120 million children in developing countries aged between 5 to 14 years are working full time, with another 130 million working half time. Some 61% of these 250 million working children or nearly 153 million live in Asia, while 32% or 8 million live in Africa, and 7% (or over 1.7 million), live in Latin America. Although Asia has the largest number of child labourers, in relative terms, Africa has the highest child labour rates, estimated at about 41% of all children between 5 and 14 years old. The ILO reports that some of its surveys show that more than half of working children toil for nine or more hours per day (Todaro and Smith, 2009). It is worth noting, however, that some authors argue that African rural societies do not consider child labour as a criminal activity, and consider that the productive activity of a child living in a rural and traditional environment is a means of social integration and should be regarded as teaching the child survival skills (Grootaert and Kanbur, 1995). This view does not consider child labour in a traditional environment as a problem per se, but as a form of "on-the-job" training. On the other hand, childhood is probably the best time for knowledge acquisition from formal education. In this sense, it is natural to see going to school as the preferred alternative to working (Grootaert, 1998; Heady, 2003).

1.1.1 Tobacco Growing Area in Tanzania

In Tanzania, tobacco is one of the major cash crops (Barie 1979; Ministry of Agriculture and Food [MoAF] 1999), ranking fifth in the country's cash crop exports in order of importance after coffee, cotton, cashew nuts and tea in 1997 (Bank of Tanzania [BoT] (1997: 70), third after coffee and cashew nuts in 1998/99 (BoT 1999) and fourth after coffee, cotton and tea during the 1999/2000 crop season (MoAF 1999). It contributes about nine percent of the country's export earnings (BoT 1999: 30). It is grown mostly on small and medium scale subsistence farms in Tabora, Ruvuma, Shinyanga, Singida, Rukwa and Kagera, where the small scale farmers are organized under cooperative unions; but it is also grown on large scale plantations or estates such as in Iringa, where some Greek farmers have their own association, the Southern Highlands Tobacco Growers Association (SHTGA) and Mbeya. In Tanzania, only two methods are used in tobacco curing, namely curing by steam technology or flue curing (as is done by large farmers in Iringa, Chunya in Mbeya) and curing by fire heating technology (as is the case in Songea in Ruvuma and, Urambo in Tabora). Flue cured tobacco accounts for 70-80 percent of the crop's total production, while fire cured tobacco accounts for 20-30 percent.

Whether grown on small subsistence farms or on large plantations, the crop involves numerous stages and processes of work, which are for the most part labour intensive and thus require more human labour inputs than machinery and automation. The range of activities includes, though is by no means limited to, the following: Clearing bush and thickets for cultivation; Cultivation: manual tilling of the land or, where mechanized, tractor work; Construction of tobacco drying sheds; Preparing tobacco nurseries and constructing nursery beds; Sowing of tobacco seeds; Watering of tobacco seedlings; Making ridges and transplanting of tobacco seedlings; Weeding and trimming the planted plots (several times) both on tobacco farms and on other contiguous or otherwise interlinked crop farms; Harvesting: plucking tobacco leaves and drying (curing) them in barns; Bundling and grading of tobacco leaves (into more than 70 grades); Trucking of bundles to drying bays/storehouses; and Burning of

tobacco stalks. These and several other intervening or lead-on chores form a cyclic agricultural lore that results in a wide inter linkage of activity throughout the year, allowing little break time between intervals. The situation is uniform irrespective of location, so that the effects of the agricultural cycle on the tobacco farms in the various regions mentioned are generally the same or similar. Indeed, in the 2000/01 season, many farmers in Urambo either completely shield away from employing extra family labour or drastically curtailed the number of employees they would engage on their smallholder farms this is according to (Masudi, et al., 2001).

1.2 Research Problem

Child labour in tobacco growing areas is a work for children that harms them and exploits them physically, mentally, morally, and denies them access to education. Although currently there are many restrictions on child labour, many children still work in tobacco farms. Perhaps the problem is the lack of enough information on the main causes or factors that influence children to participate in Tobacco growing. Many researchers including Canagarajah and Coulombe, (2000) who conducted a survey on child labour in Ghana and Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, (2000) who did a study on child labour in Malawi have conducted researches to show the incidence of child labour in tobacco farming. However they have not quantitatively looked into factors that influence this form of labour. Indeed, the involvement of children in tobacco farming and processing affects the development carrier of these children because they are denied access to schools and are affected health wise due to the use of too many pesticides and fertilizers.

Moreover, though many researches on this area have been done in a number of areas, no such study has been done in Urambo district. This study therefore aimed at addressing gaps in the literature by analysing the factors influencing child labour in tobacco growing area, Urambo district being the case study.

1.3 Objective of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to analyse the factors which influence child labour in Tobacco farming.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

Specifically, the study intended to:

(i) Assess the effects of child labour to the Children participating in tobacco growing in Urambo District.

(ii) Explore the extent of child labour problem at the households' level.

(iii) Determine the factors leading to child labour in tobacco growing in Urambo District.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it highlights gaps found while dealing with the issues of child labour. Most importantly, I hope that this study guides policy makers, community leaders, and practitioners to tackle the problem on the ground particularly in the issue concerning child labour in tobacco growing sector. It also provides useful contribution to the literature on child labour. The study is also significant because it exposes and highlights the exploitation and abuse of children's rights by unscrupulous farmers. The study is significant because it highlights the rights of children in general which ought to be protected and promoted as enshrined in various international instruments such as the CRC and ILO Conventions.

1.6 The Scope of the Study

The study was conducted in Urambo district and concentrated in Ulyankulu and Urambo divisions. In Ulyankulu division, two Wards and five villages were visited, that is three villages from one Ward and two from other Ward. Urambo district had been selected because, by comparison has high tobacco production compared to other districts in Tabora region. Either, Urambo and Ulyankulu divisions were selected

because have the highest population density in the District whereby it was easily to meet the respondents. Since Urambo Division has 24 persons per Square Kilometres followed by Ulyankulu with 22 persons per square kilometer, according to Urambo District Socio- Economic Profile, 2012.

1.7 Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized in six chapters. Chapter two presents the review of related literature on child labour in tobacco growing area covering such aspects as, theoretical literature, empirical part and conceptual framework and conceptual model. Chapter three describes the methodology employed in the study. This chapter includes the methods and procedures used. The subject of the case study, the data needs, and the instruments used as well as the data gathering and analysis procedures. Chapter four presents and analyses the study findings using descriptive and empirical analysis. Chapter five presents discussion of the findings while chapter six presents summary of the study and conclusions, recommendations as well as policy implication.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the views of other researchers and the discussions on analysis of the factors influencing child labour participation in tobacco farming area are examined. The chapter is divided into four sections. Section one consists of theoretical part which discusses the background information of tobacco growing, and different definitions of child labour. The second sections is the empirical part which provides the views of the other researchers with respect to the problem being studied and section three presents the conceptual framework and the fourth section consists research model.

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review

2.1.1 Definitions of Child Labour

Different definitions have been provided to explain child labour. The commonly used definition was provided by the ILO. Child labour is often associated with work performed by children that is detrimental to their physical and mental development. This type of work often interferes with the child's education thus, negatively affecting the child's prospects for career development (Kooijmans, 1998). According to ILO Convention 138, child labour refers to: "Children prematurely leading adult lives, normally working long hours for low wages under conditions damaging to their health and to their physical and mental development, sometimes separated from their families, frequently deprived of meaningful educational training opportunities that could open up for them a better future". Some authors define child labour based on age with a maximum age being 15. That is, children under the age of 15 are regarded as not eligible for paid employment. According to Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi (2000), this indicator is often controversial and complex to use in Africa when looking at some of the definitions of the economically active population (EAP) on the continent. In some countries in this continent, the EAP are those persons 12 years and above.

2.1.2 The Context of Child Labour in Tanzania

Different definitions of a child are provided in Tanzania's statutes range from children under the age of 12 to 18. The definition of a "Child" according to NAP is guided by the Employment and Labour Relations Act No 6 of 2004 (Part Two, Sub Part A Section 5), and the 2008 Child Policy recognizes any person under the age 18 as a child and prohibits employment of either a person who is under 15 years or a person under 18 in hazardous jobs and working conditions, in line with the CRC, and the ILO Minimum Age Convention (No. 138) and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No. 182)(NAP MoLEYD, 2009).

2.1.3 Definition of Child Labour and Worst Forms of Child Labour

Not all work done by children should be classified as a child labour that is to be targeted for elimination. Children or adolescents' participation in work that does not affect their health and personal development or interfere with their schooling is generally regarded as being something positive. This includes activities such as helping their parents around their home, assisting in a family business or earning pocket money outside school hours and during school holidays. These kinds of activities contribute to children's development and to the welfare of their families; they provide them with skills and experience, and help to prepare them to be productive members of society during their adult life that is why ILO makes a distinction between economically active children, child labour and children in hazardous work. "Economic Activity" is a broad concept that encompasses most productive activities undertaken by children, whether for the market or not, paid or unpaid, for a few hours or full time, on a casual or regular basis, legal or illegal; it excludes chores undertaken in the child's own household and schooling. To be counted economically active, a child must have worked for at least one hour on any day during the seven-day reference period "Economically active children" is statistical rather than a legal notion. "Child Labour" is a narrower concept than children aged 12 years and older who are working only a few hours a week in permitted light work and those aged 15 years and above whose work is not classified as "hazardous" whereby, hazardous work by children is any activity or occupation that, by

its nature or type, has or lead to adverse effects on the child's safety health (physical or mental) and moral development. Hazards could also drive from excessive workload, physical conditions of work, and/or work intensity in terms of the duration of hours of work even where the activity or occupation is known to the non-hazardous or "safe". The list of such type of work must be determined at the national level after tripartite consultation (NAP MoLEYD, 2009).

2.1.4 Incidence of Child Labour in Tanzania

Exploitation through child labour exists in the country. Child labour in Tanzania is a problem that is found at the household level, community level and in all sectors of the national economy both in rural and urban areas. The most common area where children are engaged in child labour in the country includes Households which means working in subsistence agriculture, Household Chores, Domestic Workers, Working in family enterprises, Commercial Agriculture that deals with working in commercial agriculture, especially in the tea, coffee and Tobacco Plantations, Urban area (Most of the illicit activities and informal sector business); Working in Commercial Sex, Hawkers, street vending, Bagging, Drug Trafficking and Other areas are Industries, Mining Areas and in the Fishing industry, (NAP-MoLEYD, 2009)

2.1.5 Child Labour Theory

Starting with Kaushik Basu (1999) there has been an increase in theoretical work that isolates the reasons why children work. According to Basu, low household income or wealth and the possibility of substituting children for adults in production can lead to equilibrium in which children work. In additional to that, the effects of income or resource inequality in an economy on its incidence of working children.

International Labour Organization (ILO) suggests poverty is the greatest single cause behind child labour. For impoverished households, income from a child's work is usually crucial for his or her own survival or for that of the household. Income from

working children, even if small, may be between 25 to 40% of these household incomes (ILO, 2008).

According to ILO Lack of meaningful alternatives, such as affordable schools and quality education is another major factor driving children to harmful labour. Children work because they have nothing better to do. Many communities, particularly rural areas where between 60-70% of child labour is prevalent, do not possess adequate school facilities. Even when schools are sometimes available, they are too far away, difficult to reach, unaffordable or the quality of education is so poor that parents wonder if going to school is really worth. Cultural causes are also main reason for child to work. In European history when child labour was common, as well as in contemporary child labour of modern world, certain cultural beliefs have rationalized child labour and thereby encouraged it. Some view that work is good for the character-building and skill development of children. In many cultures, particular where informal economy and small household businesses thrive, the cultural tradition is that children follow in their parents' footsteps; child labour then is a means to learn and practice that trade from a very early age. Similarly, in many cultures the education of girls is less valued or girls are simply not expected to need formal schooling, and these girls pushed into child labour such as providing domestic services (ILO, 2008).

Priya Ranjan (2001) links the phenomenon of working children to imperfect capital markets; children may end up going to work in part because their families are unable to borrow against future earnings to finance schooling. Dessy and Pallage (2001) trace child labour to the absence of coordination between parental decisions to invest in their children's human capital and firms' decisions to invest in skill intensive technologies. Current economic theory on child labour views parents as altruistically seeking to maximize their children's utility.

In early policy-oriented discussion of child labour was often assumed that all work by children is necessarily harmful. By the mid-1990s, it became more commonly understood that some work could be beneficial for children, since it could allow them to

achieve at least a subsistence level of consumption or to acquire skills. In this spirit, the term *exploitative child labour* generally came to distinguish certain work that was clearly harmful to the children involved (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1996).

Theoretical literatures of Biggeri and Mehrotra (2007) have studied the macroeconomic factors that encourage child labour. They focus their study on five Asian nations including India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Thailand and Philippines. They suggest that child labour is a serious problem in all five, but it is not a new problem. Macroeconomic causes encouraged widespread child labour across the world, over most of human history. They suggest that the causes for child labour include both the demand and the supply side. While poverty and unavailability of good schools explain the child labour supply side, they suggest that the growth of low paying informal economy rather than higher paying formal economy is amongst the causes of the demand side.

2.1.6 Bargaining Failure

Several theories propose the possibility that bargaining failure is a contributing factor in child labour. Becker (1993) and Baland and Robinson (2000) make a compelling case that non-altruistic parents fail to invest in an efficient level of human capital in their children because the child cannot pre-commit to repay the loan made by the parent to the child while in school. Genicot (1998) suggests that even when parents are altruistic toward their children, bargaining with the parent's employer may give rise to child labour.

2.1.7 Access to Credit Markets,

Problems with inefficient child labour arise when families are credit-constrained, as noted by Laitner (1997), Parsons and Goldin (1989), and Jacoby and Skoufias (1997), and as analyzed by Baland and Robinson. For example, if parents expect family income to be rising over time, then they may find it optimal to borrow against the future so as to smooth consumption across time. That is, it is optimal for savings to be negative when

children are young. However, if parents do not have access to credit markets, then they have to rely on internal assets. In the child-labour scenario, parents borrow from the future by putting their children to work rather than investing in human capital that will make their children more productive in the future. Such a strategy, while optimal for the family in this constrained situation, is not efficient. The present discounted value of another hour of schooling is greater than the return to another hour of work.

2.1.8 Demand Side Factors in Child Labour

The demand side of the market for child labour has two distinct dimensions. We most commonly think of the demand for child workers arising as a consequence of specific features that children have. It has been argued that the small stature of a child's body or a child's hands make them particularly effective at performing certain tasks, e.g., Marx (1867). However, technological advances can have effects on the demand for child labour counter to those identified by Marx. Levy (1985), for example, notes that during the 1970s, the availability of credit for Egyptian farmers lowered the cost of technology intensive inputs. The opportunity to mechanize in sectors such as fruits and vegetables reduced production of more labour-intensive production such as cotton. The demand for child labour, therefore, declined with mechanization. Mechanization has a particularly strong impact on the work of young children who are normally assigned such menial tasks as pumping water.

2.1.9 Child Labour in the Context of the NSGRP/MKUKUTA.

Tanzania's National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (MKUKUTA) targets elimination of worst of child labour as one of the important measures to tackle poverty. The country's new labour law i.e. the Employment and Labour Relations Act No. 6 of 2004 (Part Two, Sub Part A Section 5), and the 2008 Child Development Policy are also part of the interventions designed among others, to tackle the Worst Forms of Child Labour in the country. These instruments are intended to enable Tanzania move from ratification of the international conventions to country legislative, policy and practical programmatic interventions. The National Action Plan for the

elimination of Child Labour in Tanzania therefore geared towards enabling the country fulfills its commitments to both the international community and to the Tanzania citizens particularly the children.

2.1.10 Child labour: A Global Experience

Child labour is a worldwide phenomenon and is not only a problem in the South, but also affects many developed countries. Child labour is a growing social problem across the globe. Estimates of the number of child workers range from between 100 million and 200 million in the world, depending on the definitions used. Africa has the largest incidents of child labour with an estimated 40 percent of all children between five and fourteen years of age regularly engaged in work (Kooijmans, 1998). Child labour is prevalent in Africa, especially in the agricultural sector, the ILO (1996) estimates that there are more than 23 million child workers in Africa. An unknown number of these children are to be found within the tobacco growing sector, which is claimed to employ more children than any other agricultural cash crop in the world (Elshof, 1995).

2.1.11 Nature and Extent of Child Abuse and Neglect

"A Child domestic worker is probably the largest and most ignored group of child workers. Of this "invisible workforce," 90% are girls aged between 12-17 years old, some working for as long as 15 hours per day" (UNICEF 1999). Child domestic labour is "invisible" because, each child is employed separately and works in seclusion of a private house unlike children in a factory on the street (UNICEF, 1999).

The rate at which child labour is engaged in the world is appallingly high. By 1996, the ILO estimated 250 million child labourers in the world; the proportion represented by child domestic workers was not known, but was believed to be high. It is also estimated that domestic work was the largest employment category of girls under age 16 in the world (ILO, 1996). Child labour is highest in poor countries, as Asia and Africa account for 90% of the working children. India has the largest number of working children, i.e. about 14.5 million children below the age of 14 years (India Census 1981). Italy had the

highest number of working children in the developed world, i.e. 1.5 million (Fyfe, 1989).

2.2 Empirical Literature Review

Different methodologies and approaches have been used by various researchers in the world in studying factors contributing to the child labour in the tobacco growing area, effect and some solutions.

2.2.1 Studies on Child Labour in Tobacco Growing Area

2.2.2.1 Causes of Child Labour

A number of factors have been cited as influencing and affecting the supply of child labour. There are economic and social factors and legislative factors which come into play, in influencing child labour. Top on the list of the cited factors are poverty, failure of the education system and lack of law/legislative enforcement agencies. The following section touches upon some of the factors identified as having a direct link with the prevalence of child labour. The review of causative factors, has been guided largely by the report on child labour in the tobacco growing sector in Africa, which was presented at the conference on "Eliminating Child Labour: Establishing Best Practice in Tobacco Farming", held in Nairobi 8-9th October 2000 (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000).

(i) Poverty

In most of the reports, including ILO studies, poverty has been well documented as one of the major forces that create the flow of children into the workplace (ILO, 1995). The entrance of children into the "world of work" is seen as a survival strategy for children and their families. According to Bonnet (1993), children in Africa are unable to attend school because their families/households cannot afford to pay for their education. The households cannot afford to pay for their children's education if the cost of schooling is too high and the household income is too low.

Inability of households to meet the basic needs of children (education, food, shelter and clothes) in most cases is said to force children to be engaged in employment in their endeavor to improve their conditions and livelihood (Bonnet, 1993).

(ii) Cheap Labour Visa-Vis Demand for Child Labour

Literature shows that children are most likely to be employed when their labour is cheap (Sabata, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). One of the most emphasized arguments for the use of child labour has been the issue of cheap labour provided by children as compared to adults. Most of the children are employed on contract basis and in most cases their work is said to be more seasonal as compared to adults who tend to be more permanent. In some instances, children are not paid at all because employers, especially in the domestic and agricultural sector, give them accommodation and food. Lastly, children are casually hired and fired, as they are not protected by legislation; it is cost effective for employers, as they do not have to pay unemployment benefits.

(iii) HIV/AIDS and Child Labour

The relationship between HIV/AIDS epidemic and the prevalence of child labour is reported to be extremely important and relevant in Africa where more than 23 million people are believed to be HIV infected; and more than 2 million having died of AIDS in 1999. The infection and deaths have mostly affected those in parenting age and thus, have an impact on income security and survival of the household (Sabata, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). Even though there is no clear cut link between AIDS and child labour, it is said that child labour is likely to increase in communities where the extended family is not intact. Adult deaths as a result of AIDS can result in financial strain for children, making it difficult for them to attend school. This might in most instances call for the re organization of children's life due to loss of parents. Children are likely to take responsibility for their own survival and thus, become child labourers (Andvig, 2000).

(iv) Traditional Practices that Affect Children

Traditional customs and cultural practices emerge from the values and beliefs held by communities or groups of people. Although some traditional customs and cultural practices are beneficial to its members, others are harmful. Traditional practices such as female genital mutilation and child marriages are harmful to children. Some traditional customs have led to some egregious/bad child labour practices such as bonded labour, debt bondage and pledging of labour. In India and Pakistan, children are bonded with families to work on farms of landlords or as domestics for money lenders as repayment of loans (Rangita de Silva-de-Alwis, 2007) Contrasting debates in terms of validity of cultural practices in light of human rights have emerged.

According to Zimbabwean culture, children under 18 years of age are under their parents' custody and hence have limited rights. Parents have the right to ask their children to do certain domestic chores at home such as cooking, fetching water, herding cattle and weeding in communal farms. According to Shumba, (2007) this is considered to be initiating children into the African culture so that they can become self-reliant and self-sufficient when they grow up. However, some cultural practices contribute to the exploitation of children. For example gender stereotyping is a cultural practice that perpetuates child labour.

Rangita de Silva-de-Alwis (2007) state that, traditions of son preference result in girls being devalued, fed less, educated less and deprived of opportunities that are more readily available to boys. There is also a strong perception that domestic work is an extension of "women's work" and is indeed a training ground for young girls for marriage and their future lives; often this argument is used as a justification for child marriage. As part of their upbringing and day to day activities, the girl child is expected to fetch water, take care of younger siblings, wash dishes and clothes, prepare meals and clean the house and yard. This training is considered preparation for her later life and gives her the necessary skills to perform this work for wages in a third party's home.

(v) Education in Rural Areas

Education provision in rural areas is often characterized by lack of schools, problems of retaining teachers in remote rural areas, lack of accessible education for children, poor rates of rural school attendance, and lower standards of educational performance and achievement (ILO, 2007). Additional complicating factors in rural areas can be the seasonal demand for children's labour (which might conflict with the school calendar), and in some counties the difficulties of educating children from families which regularly move from area to area to manage herds or crops. Even in countries which provide children with access to elementary education, once children complete elementary school, if they wish to continue education the nearest secondary school may be a long distance away. This can make the journey to school impossible, either because of the cost of transport or the time required traveling to school, especially if the child has to walk there and back. Long distances to school can be a particular problem for girls, with their security especially at risk *(Ibid) a*s children drop out of school; they invariably begin to enter the workforce, often at a very early age, and are often exposed to dangers. How to improve the standards of education in rural areas is one of the major challenges facing national governments in efforts to achieve quality education for all children. In rural areas child labour is widespread because of these factors. Improving the accessibility of schools, infrastructure and community raising awareness may help children living in rural areas *(Ibid)*

2.2.2.2 Existence and Causes of Child Labour in Selected Tobacco Growing Countries in Africa

This review includes information on the child labour situation in a number of tobacco growing African countries such as Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These tobacco growing countries share a number of characteristics with Tanzania, in terms of economic, labour market as well as social indicators. In Ghana, the tobacco growing sector is small but basing on information available on child labour in general, or on the commercial agricultural sector in particular, the prevalence of child labour is frequent, especially within the agricultural

sector. On the basis of the 1992 Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS), it was estimated that around 28 percent of children between 7 to 14 years which means 800,000 children nationwide were involved in child labour. Two thirds of these children were also going to school, and in total, 20 percent of the boys and 17 percent of the girls were both working and schooling. Ninety percent (90%) of all school children were involved in household everyday jobs. Ninety three percent (93%) of the working children were involved in farming activities (household level agricultural activities), and child labour would normally take place in the informal sector.

Most of the child workers are employed in family farms. Children with parents involved in agricultural self-employment are more likely to work than other children. Children constituted about 12 percent of the labour force, although in total numbers of labour hours, they contributed 5.3 percent (Canagarajah and Coulombe, 2000). According to GLSS (Canagarajah and Coulombe, 2000) a survey on child labour conducted by Ghana Statistical Service (GSS 1994) concluded that at least 11 percent of the surveyed children were working for wages, and another 15 percent worked without remuneration. The majority of the working children were between 10-14 years, and more than three-quarters were female. 70 percent were unpaid family workers and no one was engaged in the public sector. On average, working children in Ghana earn one sixth of what an adult earns.

In Kenya, child labour is a serious phenomenon affecting both mental and physical development of children and also affecting the employment and conditions of adult employees (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). According to these authors, since the colonial period, the agrarian society has been exposed to the use of child workers in Kenya. According to Bahemuka, et al (2000), child labour continues to be a serious problem in Kenya and many children are working on plantations and as street vendors. It is estimated that about 60 percent of the workforce in plantations in the Central Province are children. ANPPCAN, a Kenyan non-governmental organization focusing on child issues estimated that in 1999, about 3.5 million children aged between 6 and 14 years were child labourers and a significant majority was in agriculture. Poverty is cited as the main reason for the prevalence of child labour in Kenya. Children are regarded as

a source of livelihood for poor families. Related to this, child labour is associated with the rapidly changing lifestyle with more focus on monetary rather than subsistence economy. According to Bahemuka, et al (op.cit), as the kinship ties are broken by the shift from communalism (subsistence farming) to dependence on monetary economy, parents have no relatives to turn to, thus children are required to look for employment to provide for the family.

There is also a strong linkage between child labour and Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes (ESAPs) of the World Bank. Although the ESAPs were meant to alleviate poverty, they had negative implications for the well being of families (Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.). ESAPs had an ideological baggage that emphasized free market system and cost sharing. This meant, for example, that parents had to pay for their children's education and other basic needs of life. Bahemuka, et al (op.cit) argues also, that the introduction of ESAPs led to the increase in the number of retrenchments in Kenya. The introduction of ESAPs meant the lifting of government subsidies from education and other social capital services. Thus, the costs had to be borne by poor parents and inability to afford by most parents resulted in most parents sending their children to work or look for employment (Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.). There is increasing demand by employers for child labourers (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). Most employers often are said to offer children jobs as they can be easily exploited and paid less than adults. The demand by employers for child labourers is facilitated by the desperate state of most parents as they are unemployed.

It is said that for most parents, if a child can secure a job they cannot hesitate to send their children to employers (Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.). Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi (op.cit.) argue that for many employers, especially in agriculture, the use of child labour has an economic benefit. Child labourers do not have contracts, are paid less, are not provided with benefits and are regarded as seasonal workers, which mean that employers can be able to save.

Politically induced economic problems are also cited as contributing towards the escalating number of child labourers in Kenya. As a result of ethnic clashes and

displacement of people, children have been forced to look for employment in order for them to contribute towards the household income. This is especially happening in households where parents were killed. Furthermore, according to Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.), the education system has, to a certain extent, been responsible for the problem of child labour. They argue that the present education system is characterized by major flaws in terms of cost, availability and quality and thus, leads many poor parents to perceive child labour as a preferred option. These factors have led many children to drop out of school. The introduction of cost sharing in education meant that parents have to buy books, school uniforms and pay numerous levies.

Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.) also point out that many children see their educated predecessors jobless and this makes them feel that learning is pointless. This indicates that the prevalence of child labour in Kenya cannot be attributed to single factor but there are numerous factors. Thus, Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.) concludes that: "Socioeconomic and political factors are driving children to work. Nonetheless, these factors hinge on the demise of the family structure that respected children and upheld their well being as future movers of society".

In Zambia, the declining economy has a major impact not only on the adults but on children as well. Statistics from UNICEF (1997) show that almost 3 million children under the age of 15 come from poor families who cannot afford food, or health care services and education fees (Mbulo, 2000). Since their families are unable to attend to their needs due to unemployment, and even if still in employment, the wages are too low to maintain the whole family. As a result, many children have taken to the streets as beggars, car washers or helping shoppers with their groceries. It is estimated that the number of street children in Lusaka has increased from 35,000 in 1991 to 90,000 by the year 1998 (Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 1998).

In Malawi, child labour is found in several sectors including large commercial farms, smallholdings, domestic work, micro industries and the informal sector. Studies indicate that child labour is much higher on the tobacco estates (Eldring, Nakanyane and

Tshoaedi 2000). According to these authors, Malawi is generally regarded as one of the countries in the region with the highest incidence of child labour. Child labour in Malawi is also to a large extent explained by poverty, lack of resources, (especially educational) as well as poor institutional and regulatory settings. Poverty and economic necessity exert major pressures on families to make use (as early as possible) of the time and labour of children to assist family survival, often at the expense of schooling (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi 2000). The authors further report that about 5 million children are affected in one way or the other by work activities on the farms. The formal employment in agriculture altogether stood at about 3.5 million people in 1995. There is an estimated 589,000 tenants at the large-scale estates in Malawi, each with approximately four to five children. This gives a rough estimate of 2.5 million children living on large-scale tobacco farms alone. Studies of similar sectors in other countries in Southern Africa have found that children's work in the traditional agricultural sector is closely linked to that of female labour and has two peaks of seasonal labour demands (Loewenson, 1992). At these peak periods children over ten years can contribute about a third of the labour input. They provide the 'adjustable labour' during periods of intense farm activity, and women depend during these times on children's assistance. Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi (op.cit.) report that there seems to be a clear gender division of child labour in the farming sector. The girls' labour, as it includes domestic and childcare work was persistent throughout the year, while boys' work was more seasonal, being agriculturally based.

For crops demanding seasonal labour peaks, such as tobacco, children of farm workers provide a captive labour group. Many children are employed on a piece or task wage basis. Many children employed in the agricultural sector are on contract or casual workers and their employment contract provides no entitlement to protective clothing, benefits during sickness, holidays and vacation leave and hours of work other than specified in their individual agreed contract if they have one. According to Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi (op.cit.), actually most children do not get wages as their labour charge, but are rather working to get food for their families.

According to Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, (op.cit.) in Malawi, it is not by accident or choice that children get involved in the production of tobacco. The system is designed so that a tenant has no choice but to involve his entire family in the production of tobacco. Tenants are recruited on the basis that they have a family, which they will bring to the estate to work. In this way, the farmer is assured of labour by the entire family and a contribution, which is higher than what can be produced by a single tenant. The farmer will however, often use the argument that hiring a tenant with a family is more stable and less prone to desertions.

In their report, Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, (op.cit.) indicate that the use of child labour on tobacco estates in Malawi and other southern Africa countries is continuous and part of the overall labour market. Children are usually not employed directly on the estates, but work as part of the tenant family. When a tenant is employed on the estate, he or she is employed as the head of the household and responsible for fulfilling the quota required by the estate owner.

This quota cannot be grown unless the entire family of the tenant is involved in the growing of tobacco. Children are then directly involved in all aspects of tobacco growing (Kamkondo and Wellard; 1994). According to these authors, in Malawi, seventy-eight per cent of children between ten and 14 years of age worked either full-time or part-time with their parents at the estates. In addition to this, children under ten years of age were also found working alongside their parents as full-time workers in almost all the tasks of tobacco cultivation. About 43 per cent of the estates had children as direct labourers, and 46 per cent as casual labourers.

Work pressure of the tenant is generally passed down to the children. Children help out in the field regardless of sex. Children above nine years of age are heavily involved in light tasks like clearing fields, making nursery beds and watering nurseries during the first phase of tobacco production; uprooting, transporting and transplanting seedlings and weeding during the second phase; picking, transporting, tying/sowing the leaf,

picking down the dried tobacco and bundling during the last phase (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, (op.cit.). Children of nine years and older were excused from very few tasks like curing the leaf and, to some extent, sorting and grading tobacco. Only a few of this age group were reported doing nothing.

According to Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi (op.cit.) report, it is not easy for tenant children to go to school. In some areas, access to school is still a problem. A more frequent problem is that poverty and the labour markets on the estates may force them into work and out of school. Given the poverty conditions of the tenant families, they are unable to afford their children the opportunity of attending school. Losing the extra labour on the estates is feared to be detrimental to many tenant households either by their own choice or because the estate manager forces them to leave the children at work rather than at school. Parents of children on the estates sometimes actively or passively pledge their children's labour for access to a loan or to pay back a debt (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, op.cit.). The HIV/AIDS virus is also said to have left many children as orphans with nowhere to go and they end up staying on the estates in order to support themselves and their households. Often children also end up working with no incentive to go to school because they feel they 'have no clothes to wear and go to school. Hunger also forces children to work instead of attending school as this allows them to buy food and solve immediate survival problems (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). Thus, even when primary education is free, as is the case in Malawi today, many children are still employed as part of tenant families on the tobacco estates, and tenant children are twice as likely to be in full-time employment on the estates as their age-mates in the small-holder and other paid employment sectors (Kamkond and Wellard, 1994).

Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, (op.cit.) conclude that the structure and operation of the tenancy system does in itself promote child labour. By bringing the whole family onto the estates and making the remuneration dependent first and foremost upon production, children are easily brought into work by parents concerned with the survival

of their family. The lack of access to schooling and other social facilities for tenant families increases the extent to which children are used on the tobacco estates. It is not easy for tenant children to go to school and lead a life that draws them away from being exploited for their labour.

Due to poverty conditions of the tenant families, they are often unable to afford their children the opportunity of attending school. Free education in Malawi is not free as long as it is not accessible to the majority of the poor tenant children. Access to schools is also a problem and thus tenant children are trapped into working on the tobacco farms. When distance to schools is added to the children's obligations on the estates and at home, school often gets low priority (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi, 2000). Tenants themselves do not have any written or specified contract with the farm owners and there is no reason to believe that children who work on the farms are protected in any way. The children work as part of the family and in this way their labour is hidden

In Mozambique, due to limited economic opportunities, many families are either working in the agricultural sector and earning low wages or are unemployed. Under such conditions, child labour in the country is said to be a common practice. Children's labour is mostly used to supplement the family income, which is not adequate to be survived on. In rural areas, children sometimes work alongside their parents or independently in seasonal harvests on commercial plantations. They are usually not paid wages, but instead employers buy those books and other school necessities (Country Reports on Human Rights Practices, 1998). In some cases, children are made to work by their families in order to settle debts. Mozambique children normally work on family farms or in the urban informal sector where they perform such tasks as guarding cars, collecting scrap metal, or selling trinkets and food in the streets. The informal labour sector is unregulated. Children are also employed as domestic labourers (Country Reports on Human Rights Practices, op.cit.).

In South Africa, child labour has a long history from the early days of slavery in the Cape and most of the African slaves captured were children (Bosch and Gordon, 1996). The use of children on farms is said to have continued even after the abolition of slavery. The use of children as child labourers on the farms took place in different ways or forms, but the most common form was that the children of tenants or living on farms were drawn into work with other members of their families. Bosch and Gordon (1996) report that cases of child labour are not reported because the parents of child labourers are threatened that farmers might dismiss or even evict them from their farms. Also, some parents are not prepared to lose the financial contribution of the child to the family income. Most studies have indicated that child labour is widespread in South Africa's agricultural sector. SAAPAWU (1997) estimated that there were over 70,000 children employed on farms. A number of factors have been identified in South Africa as leading to the use and prevalence of child labour in the agricultural sector. Common amongst the reasons for child labour in the agricultural sector are the following; poverty, demand for cheap labour and high illiteracy rate among the farm workers. Others have attributed the demand and the use of child labour in the agricultural sector to lack of stringent measures and laws to protect children against employers (SAAPAWU, 1997). Most children or pupils have often worked on farms during school hours as this work was regarded as part of a form of training in agriculture (Bosch and Gordon, 1996).

In Tanzania, child labour remains a serious problem of social concern throughout the country in general and in Tabora region in particular (Kaijage and Kanyala, 1998). According to these authors the decline in economic performance and provision of social services forced many children to seek employment in order for them to supplement their family income, and it is estimated that child labour is practised in the agricultural sector, especially in tobacco plantations and in the informal sector.

According to the research undertaken by the Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions (TFTU), of the 9 million Tanzanian children under the age of 15, 5 percent are involved

in one form or another of child labour (Gumbo, 1999). The ICFTU report estimates that almost 30 per cent of the children between the age of 10 and 14 years are working in Tanzania. Also, the number of children employed in the tobacco farms depends on the size of the farm the smaller the farm, the smaller the number of children employed. As a result of heavy activities involved in the tobacco-growing sector, many children employers prefer to employ boys rather than girls. Kaijage and Kanyala (op.cit.) have revealed that the labour force in the agricultural sector is made up of male working children, comprising of standard VII leavers, illiterates, and drop outs from primary education aging between 13 and 15 years.

According to the Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 1998, some children are forced into child labour by parents or guardians in need of extra income. Secondly, the liberalization of the economy and introduction of economic structural adjustment programmes marked a shift from state provision of subsidies on social services like education and welfare. This had a negative implication for poor parents and the unemployed communities. Many families found it difficult to provide their children with school fees, uniforms, books and other educational requirements. This forced many children to drop out from schools and most of the dropouts looked for employment in order to supplement their household income. Thirdly, Kaijage and Kanyala (op.cit.) argue that the demand for cheap labour by most employers is another reason for children to be involved in child labour. They further argue that employers in Tanzania prefer children below the age of 15 years because they are cheaper and less demanding compared to adult employees.

In Zimbabwe, child labour is widespread. Scattered evidence indicates that both the incidence of child labour and the number of child workers are quite high. Child labour is found in several sectors including large commercial farms, traditional farming in communal areas, domestic work, small-scale mining and gold-panning operations, micro industries and the informal sector. Agriculture is the most important sector in Zimbabwe, both regarding the total employment and for formal sector employment.

Studies have shown that children in the communal farming areas are involved in a variety of tasks; helping in household production, including agricultural work such as herding, weeding and planting, and domestic work such as fetching water, foraging for food, fetching wood and child care work. Reynolds (1991) found that children's work in the traditional agricultural sector is closely linked to that of female labour and there are peaks of seasonal labour demands. At these peak periods, children who are over ten years of age can contribute about a third of the labour input. They provide the "adjustable labour" during periods of intense farm activity, and women depend at these times, on children's assistance.

Reynolds found a clear gender division of labour in traditional farming. Male children spend less time on farm work than females, and with reduced domestic tasks, spend much less time overall working than female children. In Zimbabwe, female labour is persistent throughout the year, and it includes domestic and childcare work, while male work is more seasonal, being agriculturally based. Women appear to be less able to demand labour of their male children than their female children, with an overall consequence that male children have more leisure time than female children. According to the 1992 census, about 1.18 million people or 11 per cent of the population live on the 4,500 large farms which involve 279,178 households. This produces an estimated 800,000 children living on large-scale farms (Loewenson, 1992).

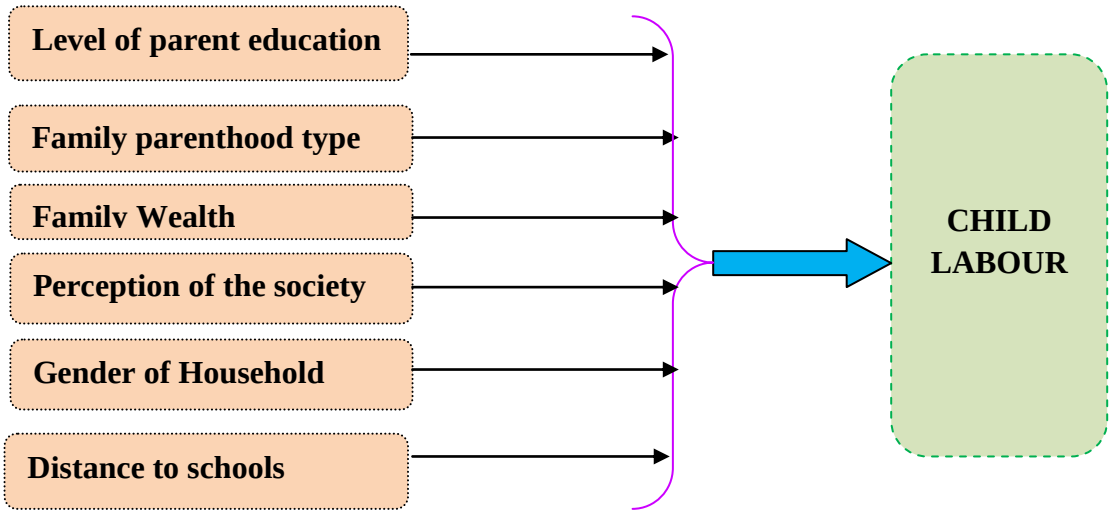
In Zimbabwe, for crops demanding seasonal labour peaks, such as cotton, coffee, tea and tobacco children of the farm workers provide a captive labour group. Most children are employed on a piece or task wage basis. In a survey done by union health and safety representatives in 1992, it was revealed that children were working under both direct and indirect contracts of employment, doing general work, picking cotton, removing insects from tobacco leaves, and loading and off loading tobacco, spraying pesticides, herding animals and doing household work (Loewenson, op.cit). Children were reported to be working for four to twelve hours a day, in the peak season if employed directly.

2.3 Conceptual Framework and Research Model

This study was guided by the following conceptual framework which shows factors that influence the child labour in the tobacco growing farms in Urambo district. The relationship that exists between these factors shows that Child labour is a dependent variable while level of parent's education, family parenthood type, family poverty, perception of the society, Gender of the household and distance to schools are independent variables (Figure 2.1).

Child Labour in tobacco farming *= f (Level of parent education, Family parenthood type, Family wealth, Perception of the society, gender and Distance to school)*

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Frameworks for Factors Influencing Child Labour in Tobacco Growing



Source: Author design (2013)

Further from Figure 2.1;-

Dependent Variable

Child labour (CL): Child labour is measured by household respondents who accept that they have children working in tobacco growing farms activities against those who do not. The relationship that Child labour is a dependent variable depending on the

following independent variables; level of parent's education, family parenthood type, family wealth, perception of the society, Gender of the household and distance to schools are independent variables

Independent Variables:

Level of parent education (LPE): measured by considering the highest education level attained by one or both parents in the household. With this variable (LPE) the assumption is that, if the parent's level of education increases, the child labour in tobacco farming activities decrease.

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship effect between the parent's levels of education and child labour in tobacco farming.

Family parenthood type (FTP): Family parenthood type, the assumption was that with this variable (FTP), household which are headed by children only is assumed to influence more children to participate in tobacco farming activities than any family parenthood types. But both parents were expected to have few children involving in tobacco farming. Therefore as the number of parent decreases, the number of children participating in tobacco farming increases.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship effect between child labour and family parenthood type.

Family Wealth (FW): Family wealth is measured through meals taken by household per day whereby those who take one meal per day are assumed to have low income, two meals have middle income and three meals per day have high income. Therefore with this variable (FW), the assumption is that the higher the income the less the children participating in tobacco farming activities.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship effect between child labour and family wealth in tobacco farming.

Perception of the society (PS): Perception of the society, this variable (PS) measured by the assumption that, as number of household thinking that child labour is good increases or decreases is likely to influence children to or not participate in tobacco farming. Therefore this variable has positive relationship to child labour as the number of households who think involving children in tobacco farm activities is good will direct increase the number of children participating in tobacco farming activities.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship effect between child labour and society perception in the tobacco farming.

Gender of Household (GH): The variable is measured by the assumption that, the children of the household who's headed by male are likely to be less included in tobacco farming while those headed by female are likely to increase.

Hypothesis 5: There is a negative relationship between child labour and gender of the household head in the tobacco farming.

Distance to schools (DS): is a variable representing Distance to schools measured by (Ratio scale (hrs) whereby the time taken by children to walk to school influences child labour in tobacco farming. Assumption is that as the distance to school increases the children are likely to be discouraged to attend to school instead they go and participate in tobacco growing. This variable indicates negative relationship.

Hypothesis 6: There is a negative relationship effect between child labour and distance to schools in the tobacco farming area.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology and explains the primary and secondary data collections procedures. Different sections are explained such as study area, study design, sampling design, data collection instrument and approaches and data processing procedures. The study used cross sectional analysis, where household member and individuals are visited for interview. Moreover, research validity and reliability of data are put forward.

3.1 Description of the Study Area

3.1.1 Geographical Location

The study was conducted in Villages within the Urambo district, in Tabora Region. Since it is the smallholders living in village communities that grow tobacco in this district, two divisions were selected, each division serving as a key location. These locations are Ulyankulu and Urambo division. From Ulyankulu division, three wards were selected namely Mwongozo, Ichemba and Kanoge which involves three villages from each ward except Kanoge Ward which had only two villages and two Ward from Urambo division namely Songambele and Muungano whereby two villages from Songambele Ward and three villages from Muungano Ward were visited by researcher. It is hoped that, the results will reflect the reality in other tobacco growing area in the whole Urambo district and Tanzania in general (See Table 3.1).

Urambo District is among the six districts of Tabora region and was established on January 1st, 1984. The name Urambo comes from the word Milambo, the name of the Chief of the area which was wrongly pronounced by German colonials as Urambo. The District shares borders with Shinyanga region in the North, Uyui district in the East, Sikonge district on the South east, Rukwa and Mbeya regions on the South while Kigoma region lies on the Western side of the district. In terms of international

identification, the district lies between latitudes 40 and 5080' south of the Equator and between longitudes 310 and 32050' east of Greenwich.

Table 3.1: The study areas

Divisions	Wards	Villages
Urambo	Songambele	Jionee Mwenyewe
		Mlangale
	Muungano	Muungano
		Kalemela "A"
		Kalemela "B"
Ulyankulu	Mwongozo	Mwongozo
		Ibambo
		Mwanduti
	Ichemba	Ichemba
		Makingi
		Mgerera
	Kanoge	Kanoge
		Ulanga

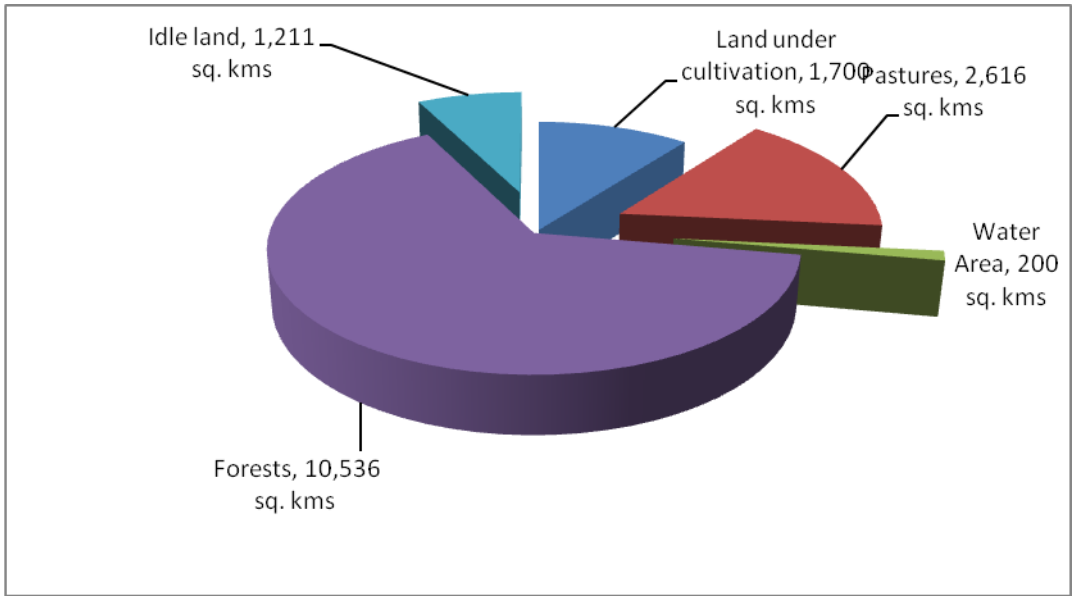
Source: Field data

3.1.2 Land Area, Land Use Pattern and Administrative Units

Urambo District has a total land area of 20,160 sq. kms which is about 27% the total area of Tabora region most of which is plain land with very few small hills and valleys. The arable land available for agricultural production is 2,911.44 sq. kms. Out of the arable land in the district, only 1,700 sq. kms is actually cultivated annually, living the remaining 1,211.44 sq. kms either lying idle due to some reasons such as soil leaching infestation, or being edges and river beds. About 10,535.58 sq. kms are forest reserves while normal forests grassland used for grazing cover about 2,616.25 sq. kms. Figure 1 shows land use pattern of the district. Administratively, Urambo District is divided into 4 divisions and 37 wards (three of these being for refuges) with a total of 139 villages (13 of these being in the refuges wards) and 510 hamlets distributed unevenly as shown in Figure 3.1 and Table 3.2 Ulyankulu division, where the refuges wards which covers about 31 percent of total land area of the district followed by Kaliua division with about 25 percent of the total land area. Urambo division has the smallest land area in the

district constituting only 20 percent of the total land area(Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, 2012).

Figure 3.1: Land Use Pattern in Urambo District



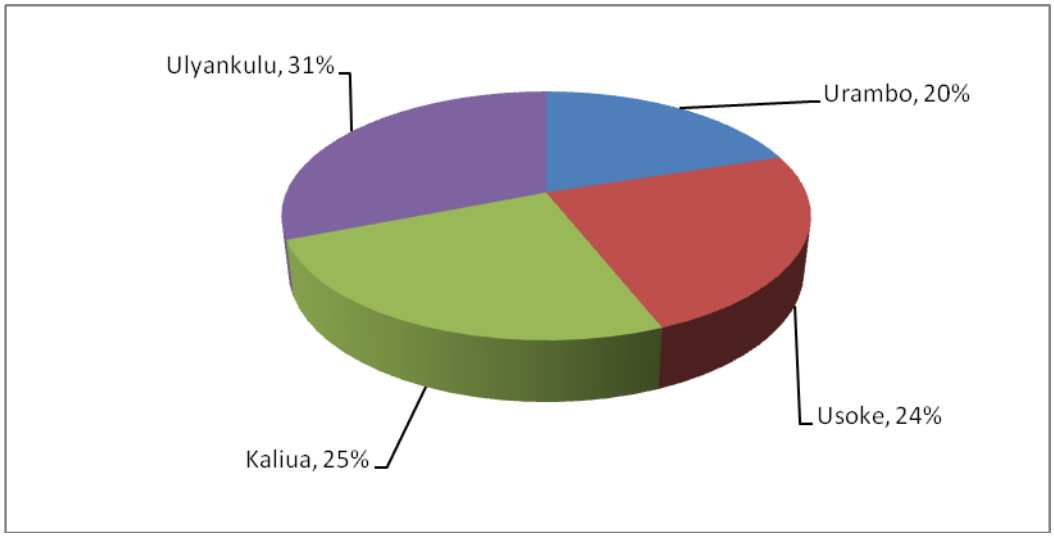
Source: Urambo District Executive Director's Office –Land, Natural Resources and Environment Department, 2012

Table 3.2: Land Area and Administrative Units by Division, Urambo District, 2011

Division	Area Sq. Kms.	Wards	Villages	Hamlets	Percent Land Area
Urambo	2,749.50	11	38	154	20
Ussoke	3,360.50	05	19	75	24
Kaliua	6,322.50	10	43	163	25
Ulyankulu	7,727.50	11	39	118	31
Total	**20,160**	**37**	**139**	**510**	**100**

Source: Urambo District Executive Director's Office–Land, Natural Resources and Environment Department, 2012

Figure 3.2: Percentage Distribution of Land Area by Division, Urambo District



Source: Urambo District Executive Director's Office -Land Natural Resources and Environment Department, 2012

3.1.3 Climate and Topography

With the exception of very few slopes, the district forms part of Central Plateau of Tanzania, relatively homogeneous with gently undulating plains intersected by seasonally flooded valley bottom soil. In the extreme north east, central and extreme south, this pattern gives way to open flat land suitable for cultivation and covered by well or moderately drained soils with textures of sandy loams.

The majorities of these soils has high nutrient contents and are considered suitable for a wide range of food and cash crops and therefore have the potential for profitable cultivation. Urambo District soils can best be described as best as moderately fertile.

The district receives rainfall of between 600mm and 1,000mm annually, falling between the months of October or November and December and a dry season from January to February or March and a second lower peak occurs in February or March and the rains then tail off in April or sometimes May. The temperature ranges from 21 – 33^0c highest temperature is experienced between August and October just before the start of rainfall. Temperature gradually falls in December, and then remains relatively constant up to

May. From May to August the district experiences low temperature. Urambo District is covered by Miombo woodlands mixed up with wetland vegetation of mbuga wooded grassland and mbuga grasslands. The Miombo woodlands are natural forests, which are found in Igombemkulu ward and some parts of Milambo and Kanindo wards (Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, 2012).

3.1.4 Population, Household Size and Growth

The population of Urambo District has experienced significant growth. According to the 2002 Population and Housing Census the district had 369,329 people compared to 186,781 inhabitants counted in 1988 Population Census resulting in a big increase of 182,548 people or an average annual growth rate of 5 percent during intercensal period. The preliminary data for 2012 put the district population at 583,038 out of which, females account for 50.4 percent of the population (293,594).

Perhaps due to its relative small geographical area and population size, Urambo District had the biggest number of household. With a population of 369,329 according to the 2002 census, there were 62,633 private households, equivalent to 21.5 percent of the total 291,369 private households in the region. Also the district had the fourth largest average household size of 5.9 persons per household (Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, 2012).

Compared to other districts of Tabora region, Urambo District is the second largest rural district in terms of land area but was the third highest populous rural district after Nzega and Igunga districts according to the 1988 census results. According to the 2002 Population and Housing Census, Urambo District was the second highest populous rural district in the region overtaking Igunga district by 45,235 people and contributed 21.6 percent of the regional population. Between 1988 and 2002 the district's population grew at an average annual growth rate of 4.8 percent compared to the regional growth rate of 3.6 percent and national average growth rate of 2.4 percent. That is a very high growth rate (Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, 2012).

3.1.5 Main Sources of Cash Income in the District

The 2007/08 National Sample Census of Agriculture Report shows that Urambo as a rural district has vast economic opportunities. Agriculture sector ranked first with the selling of annual food crops being reported as the main source of income of the rural agricultural households in the district. This was followed by off farm income, selling of forest products, livestock keeping, permanent crop farming, and finally other casual cash earnings and business income.

Figure 3.3: Tobacco Farm as Source of Income in Urambo District

Source: (Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, 2012)

3.2 Sampling Design

The study covered two divisions in Urambo district namely, Ulyankulu and Urambo. In Ulyankulu three wards were selected namely Kanoge, Mwongozo and Ichemba where Kanoge Ward involved Kanoge and Ulanga Village. Ichemba Ward involved three villages which are Ichemba, Mgelela and Makingi. A researcher also visited Ibambo, Mwongozo and Mwanduti villages from Mwongozo Ward. From Urambo division the study conducted in Songambele ward which includes Songambele and Jionee Mwenyewe Villages, while from Muungano Ward three villanges were visited namely Muungano, Kalemela “A” and Kalemela “B”. Those divisions, Wards and Villages

were randomly selected to present other tobacco growing areas in the district. In this case, a multi-stage purposive sampling procedure was used to identify those areas included in the study. A total number of 253 Household respondents were interviewed.

3.3 Study Design

The study used a multistage purposive sampling procedure to identify Divisions, Wards and Villages. A Cross section research design was used in this study and this was done purposeful due to time and financial constraints also it helped to simplify the work of the researcher as it was not repetitive, it carried once and it was easy to make comparison of data from different villages within the study area having the same geographical location.

3.4 Types and Sources of Data

Since the research involved collecting both primary and secondary data. Primary data is information gathered directly from respondents. This is through questionnaires, interviews, focused group discussions, observation and experimental studies. It involves creating new data. Data is collected from existing sources. In an experimental study, the variable of interest is identified (Kombo, 2006). On the other hand, secondary information sources are data neither collected directly by the user nor specifically for the user. It involves gathering data that already has been collected by someone else (Kombo, 2006). Four principal methods were employed for this study to obtain data and information that were required for analysis. Those instruments/or sources are:-

3.5 Data Collection Methods

As it had explained in the types and sources of data, primary data was collected using open ended questions which were administered using structured interview. Interview questions intending to find out factors influencing child labour in tobacco farms in Urambo District. Secondary data from published and unpublished materials and reports were collected.

3.5.1 Literature Review and Documentary Analysis

Most of the task of reviewing and analyzing relevant literature and sets of documentation was done before field investigations at the research sites. The task covered a variety of books, number of ILO and IPEC reports and publications as well as several other research surveys and reports conducted within Tanzania and other countries which related to the country's economy, agricultural activity, child labour, schooling and other issues. In addition to analysis of this literature before fieldwork, documentary review continued within the research sites. Some of these sources have been referred in the list of appendixes.

3.5.2 Observation

Observation offers, as its most obvious advantage, the opportunity for the researchers' eyes and minds to sense and view the situation of the subjects of the study. Observation complements the other four senses (hearing, touching, feeling and even tasting) resulting in the gaining of a comprehensive understanding of the circumstances. A researcher made direct observation of child workers, their activities, the general farm layout and the kind of circumstances where children live in. This was necessary in order to determine the general appearance, presentation and to know where they work and live. Also determine or at least approximate their working and living conditions and the factors that influence them to work in tobacco farms.

3.5.3 Interview

Beyond observation, live exchanges and discussions between researchers and respondents were of crucial importance in adding a sense of reality to the investigation that accrues from the dimension of human interaction. Therefore a face to face interview was conducted whereby the respondents were asked questions from the questionnaire and the interviewer recording in the questionnaire form. Not all the intended respondents were met as some were out of their homes busy with their daily activities.

3.5.4 Questionnaire Administration

This is a structured listing of questions designed to elicit and, where necessary, probe responses on particular issues as well as cross-check information obtained through other strategies such as documentation and interviews. In the case of the study, the questionnaire was structured along specific information needs in order to make it possible to find out about relationships correlation, causal or other between certain factors influencing child labour in tobacco growing. Specifically, focused questionnaires were designed for administration to farmers or households.

3.6 Econometric Model

Binary logistic regression is a model that is used to predict the probabilities of the different possible outcomes of a categorically distributed dependent variable, given a set of independent variables which may be binary-valued and categorical-valued.

Although probit regression and logit regression models have the same results, Logit Regression Model was more preferred than probit regression model because the *logit regression model* is a nonlinear regression model where the dependent variable is a binary variable and the predicted values are between 0 and 1. The predicted value is also a cumulative probability distribution. However, rather than being a standard normal cumulative probability distribution, it is standard cumulative probability distribution of a distribution called the *logistic distribution*. But with the *probit regression model*, one cannot estimate this model with least squares methods due to its nonlinearity. We have to use Maximum Likelihood (ML) methods because what is being predicted is the standard normal cumulative probability distribution; the predicted values are between 0 and 1. Note, however, that when using a linear probability model, the R^2 is used if all the independent variables are also binary variables. A major drawback of the linear probability model is that the predicted value may be negative but in the probit regression and logit regression models, the predicted probability is forced to be between 0 and 1.

The general formula for the logit regression model is

$$\Pr\left\{ Pi = {}^{1}/_{\text{LPEi, FPTi, FWi , PSi, GHi, DSi}} \right\}$$

Where, *Pi* equal unity if children *i* participate, and zero otherwise.

P_i = is a Vector of control variables

The LPE_i, FPT_i, FW_i, PS_i GH_i and DS_i are independent variables whereby

LPE_i = Level of parent education,

FPT_i = Family parenthood type,

FW_i = Family wealth,

PS_i = Perception of the society

GH_i = Gender of the Households and

DS_i = Distance to schools

LPE: is a dummy variable representing level of parents education (1=Illiterate, 2=Primary education, 3=Secondary and 4=collage/University) that influenced CL

FTP: is a dummy variable representing family parenthood type (1=mother only, 2=father only, 3= both father and mother and 4=children only) that will influences CL

FW: is a dummy variable representing a family wealth (1=One meal per day means low income, 2= Two meals per day means middle income and 3= Three meals per day means high income) that influences CL

PS: is a dummy variable representing perception of the society that think involving child labour in tobacco farming is good (1=Yes, 2=No) that influences the CL

GH: is dummy variable representing gender of the household head and is divided into two categories; female and male. (1=Male 2=Female) also influences CL

DS: is a variable representing Distance to schools [Ratio scale (hrs)] it was preferred because no mark indicating kms in villages hence indigenous use time to express distance from home to school.

From the model, the probability of observing individual i participating in tobacco farming as binary logit (with assumption that, μ_i (error term) follows a standard logistic distribution.

Table 3.3: Definition of Variables Used in the Study

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Measurements
Child labour	A person under 18 years, being employed to earn income	Percentage/ Proportion of children involved in household
Education	Education Level	Level of Education attained by one of the parent in a household in years
Parenthood	Whether the child has parents (both or only one) or hasn't	One parent, two parent or none
Income earnings	Family wealth	Number of meals taken per day in a household
Perception	Thinking of the society on involving child in tobacco farming	The society perception of involving a child in tobacco farming.
Gender	Gender of the Household respondent	Male or Female accepting child labour
Access to School	Distance from school	Time used to walk to and from school

Source: Field data

3.6.1 Estimation Techniques

Both descriptive statistics and cross tabulation method was used to find out the factors influencing child labour in tobacco farming. Moreover, binary logistic regression model was also used to analyze factors influencing child labour in tobacco farming.

3.7 Household Characteristics

3.7.1 Level of Parent's Education.

From the model we expected that level of parent's education has a negative relationship between CL and LPE. As the parent's level of education increases we expected the

percentage of children going to tobacco farming activities decrease. Then families which their parents are educated, their children are expected not much to be involved in tobacco farming activities. Since the variable LPE is dummy then, has been divided into four categories; these are the illiterate parents, parents with primary education, parents with secondary education and parents with college/university education. We expected that the amount of children engaging in tobacco farming activities decrease as the education of the parents increases, from illiterate parents to parents with tertiary education.

Therefore the dummy setting is:

The value of 1 if illiterate parents,

The value of 2 if parents have primary education,

The value of 3 if parents have secondary education and

The value of 4 if parents have college/university education

3.7.2 Family Parenthood Type

Since the variable FTP is dummy then has been divided into three categories (dichotomous); these are self parenthood, these are the category which children are self administered, they haven't father and mother, second category is the single parent, that are families which are administered by one parent may be father only, or mother only and the last category are families which is administered by both parents that is father and mother. Then we expect that as the number of parents decrease in the family, the family become economically weak hence the number of children to be involved in tobacco farming activities increases. We expect the families having both parents will have small number of children participating in tobacco farming activities compared to the families which have single parent and those who do not have parent. The families with self child administered are expected to be more involved in the tobacco farming activities than any types of families.

Therefore the dummy setting is as follows;

The value of 1 if the family is administered by a step mother

The value is 2 if is a step father

The value of 3 if the family is administered by both parents

The value of 4 if the family is self administered by children

3.7.3 Family Wealth

Since the variable FW is dummy then has been divided into three categories; these are low income level, second category is the middle income and the last category are families which is high income level. Then we expect that as the family income gets smaller (low), the family become economically weak hence the number of children to be involved in the tobacco farming activities increases. As the family income gets larger, families will have small number of children participating in tobacco farming activities compared to the families with low income level and those with high incomes are expected to have children least involved in the tobacco farming activities than any of the above two levels.

Therefore the dummy setting is as follows;

The value of 1 if the family takes one meal per day, has low income level

The value of 2 if the family takes two meals per day, has middle income level

The value of 3 if the family takes three meals per day, has high income level

3.7.4 Perception of the Society

Since the variable PS is dummy then has been divided into two categories; these are those family that will say “yes” and the second category are those say “no”. Then we expect that many families will say yes sending children in tobacco farming will help to train children to capable for the future life. And few families will say not true that sending children in the tobacco farming will help them for their future life.

Therefore the dummy setting is as follows;

The value of 1 if the families say “Yes”

The value of 2 if the families say “No”

3.7.5 Gender of the Household

Gender is dummy variable divided into two categories; female and male. Therefore the dummy setting is as follows

The value of 0 indicate “female”

The value of 1 indicate “Male”

3.7.6 Distance to School

Since the variable DS is not dummy, is a ratio scale then it is measured in terms of hours traveled from home to school. We expected the number of children engaging in tobacco farming activities to decrease as the distance to schools is decreasing.

CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study and estimation results of the study. It also covers the descriptive and empirical analysis of the model. Descriptive analysis is based on the primary data collected through face to face unstructured interviews and the secondary information obtained from the documents reviewed. Section 4.1 present's descriptive statistics and section 4.2 presents Empirical results of the estimated models.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The general objective of this study was to assess factors which influence child labour in tobacco growing areas and the effects of this form of labour on children in Urambo District. Specifically the following independent variables were examined and explored in the study; the magnitude of the problem, how many children were involved in the tobacco growing, to see whether the level of parent education, family parenthood types, family wealth, perception of the society and distance to schools influences children to participate in tobacco growing. A total of 253 households were interviewed through questionnaires. This can be summarized in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Case Processing Summary

	Case					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Do your children participate in tobacco farming? * gender	253	100%	0	.0%	253	100%
Do your children participate in tobacco farming? * What is your education level?	253	100%	0	.0%	253	100%
Do your children participate in tobacco farming? * family parenthood type	253	100%	0	.0%	253	100%
Do your children participate in tobacco farming? * How long does it take for your children to walk from home to school?	253	100%	0	.0%	253	100%
Do your children participate in tobacco farming? * How many meals do you get per day?	253	100%	0	.0%	253	100%

Source: Survey results (2013)

Table 4.2 Frequency distribution of household characteristics

		Frequency
family parenthood type	mother father both father and mother children only	11 16 224 2
What is your education level?	illiterate primary education secondary education college/University	39 195 18 1
How many meals do you get per day?	one meals per day two meals per day three meals per day	19 208 26
gender	female male	14 239

Source: Survey results (2013)

Table 4.2 provides frequency of household characteristics of the variables used in the study, where by total 224 respondents out of 253 who asked about their family parenthood type, said both are father and mother. The findings from the study shows that 195 of the household members have primary education level, following with 39 illiterate households, whereby only one household is handled by a parent with university level of education. In the study, it was observed that the number of households taking two meals per day is greater as compared to three meals per day. This shows that many households are in middle income level in which one meal, two meals and three meals indicates low, middle and high income respectively. Based on the outcome of the study findings, still there is gender biasness since number of households by male indicated in the table is 239 as compared to 14 of female.

Table 4.3 Cross Tabulation of Children participation in tobacco farming against Gender

		Gender		
		Female	Male	Total
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?	no	5	101	106
	yes	9	138	147
Total		14	239	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.3, the results showed that 9 households headed by female and 138 by male, their children are participating in tobacco growing activities while only 5 households headed by female and 101 by male, their children do not participate in tobacco farming activities. This indicates that, a total of 147 respondents out of 253 said that, their children participate in tobacco farming. This means that, the majority of household respondents agree their children to participate in tobacco farming compared with 106 respondents who disagree with their children to participate in tobacco farming.

Table 4.4 Cross Tabulation of Children Participation in Tobacco Farming Against Level of Parents Education

		What is your education level?				Total
		Illiterate	primary education	secondary education	college/University	
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?	no	7	86	12	1	106
	yes	32	109	6	0	147
Total		39	195	18	1	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.4, the result indicates that, a total of 32 respondents out of 39 respondents with illiterate level said that, their children participate in tobacco farming. Moreover, the results indicate that 102 parents with primary education, 6 parents with secondary education said their children involved in tobacco farming. As observed in the table, 7 parents with illiteracy, 86 parents with primary education, 12 parents with secondary education and 1 parent with university education, their children do not participate in child labour. These results mean that the families with high education level do not like their children participating in tobacco farming. Generally, a total of 147 respondents with different educational status out of 253 said that, their children participate in tobacco farming. This means that, the majority of household respondents agree their children to participate in tobacco farming compared with 106 respondents who disagree with their children participating in tobacco farming.

Table 4.5 Cross Tabulation of Child Labour in Tobacco Farming Against Family Parenthood Type

		Family Parenthood type				Total
		mother	father	both father and mother	children only	
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?	no	3	7	95	1	106
	yes	8	9	129	1	147
Total		11	16	224	2	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.5, the result shows that, 8 families with mother only, 9 families with father only, 129 families with both parents and 1 family with children only accepted their children participate in tobacco farming activities. This result shows that, the total of (106) household parents do not like their children to participate in tobacco farming out of 253 household parents. This indicates that a total of 147 household parents which were interviewed agreed their children to participate in tobacco farming.

Table 4.6 Cross Tabulation of Children Participation in Tobacco Farming Against Time Taken by Children to Walk From Home to School

		How long does it take for your children to walk from home to school?					Total
		0- 29 minutes	30-59 minutes	1.00- 1.29 hours	1.30- 2.00 hours	above 2 hours	
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?	no	45	32	14	10	5	106
	yes	54	38	10	29	16	147
Total		99	70	24	39	21	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

Table 4.6 provides results for time taken by children to walk from home to school as factor contributing to child labour, whereby 45 parents whose their children walk from home to school using 0-29 minutes, 32 whose their children walk 30-59 minutes, 14 their children walk using 1.00-1.29 minutes, 10 parents their children walk using 1.30-200 hours and using 1.30-200 hours rejected their children to participate in tobacco farming. However, a total of 147 parents whom their children use different time to walk to school accepted their children to participate in tobacco farming activities. This

number is higher than those said "NO" indicating that the problem of child labour still exist in the study area despite the different time taken by children to walk to school.

Table 4.7 Cross Tabulation of Children participation in tobacco farming against meals taken by household per day

		How many meals do you get per day?			Total
		one meals per day	two meals per day	three meals per day	
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?	No	3	86	17	106
	Yes	16	122	9	147
Total		19	208	26	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

The results from Table 4.7 show that, number of Meals taken by households per day. As observed, a total 253 of household interviewed, out of them, 16 household taking one meal per day, 122 take two meals per day and 9 taking three meals per day agreed that their children participate as child labour in tobacco farming activities accounting to total of 147 household respondents. moreover, the results still indicates that, 3 household whose their children take one meal per day, 86 households take two meals per day and 17 households are taking three meals per day didn't agree their children to participate as child labour. The results also indicate that, as the number of meals taken by household per day increases the participation of children in tobacco farming decreases.

Table 4.8 Children participation in tobacco farms against the number of children per household

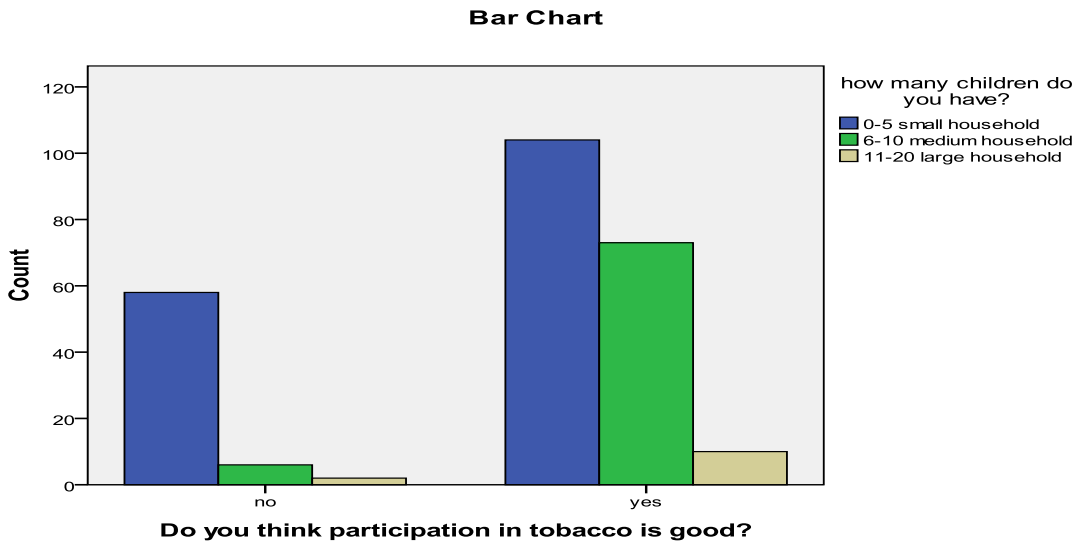
		How many children do you have?			Total
		0-5 small household	6-10 medium household	11-20 large household	
Do you think participation in tobacco is good?	No	58	6	2	66
	Yes	104	73	10	187
Total		162	79	12	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.8 above, the results show children participation in tobacco farms against the number of children per household. The results shows that, those household who said

"Yes" they think participation of their child labour is good are 187 respondents out of 253 interviewed respondents. Out of 187 respondents who said participation of children in tobacco is good; a total of 104 household have small household of 0-5 children, 73 have medium household of 6-10 children and 10 have large household size. This shows those small size households use their child as labour force in their tobacco farming activities. Similar results is also indicated in figure 4.1

Figure 4.1 Children Participation in Tobacco Farms against the Number of Children per Household



Source: Survey results (2013)

Table 4.9 Cross Tabulation of Children Participation in Tobacco Farming is Good Against Gender

		Gender		
		Female	Male	Total
Do you think participation in tobacco is good?	no	6	60	66
	yes	8	179	187
Total		14	239	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.9 the results indicate that, a total of 187 household respondents out of 253 respondent interviewed said children participation in tobacco farming are good. Only 66 respondents interviewed said are not good to involve a child labour in tobacco farming.

Table 4.10 Cross Tabulation of Children Participation in Tobacco Farming against Level of Parents Education

		What is your education level?				Total
		Illiterate	primary education	secondary education	college/University	
Do you think participation in tobacco is good?	no	4	52	9	1	66
	yes	35	143	9	0	187
Total		39	195	18	1	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.10, the results show the society perception according to the level of parent education. These results indicate that those households who think/agreed to involve children in tobacco farming were 35 parents with illiterate, 143 parents with primary education, 9 parents with secondary education and no parent with university education. Therefore, the household with high education do not agree to allow their children to work in tobacco farming.

Table 4.11 Cross Tabulation of Children participation in tobacco farming against Time taken by children to walk to school

		How long does it take for your children to walk from home to school?					Total
		0- 29 minutes	30-59 minutes	1.00- 1.29 hours	1.30- 2.00 hours	above 2 hours	
Do you think participation in tobacco is good?	no	20	23	10	8	5	66
	yes	79	47	14	31	16	187
Total		99	70	24	39	21	253

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.11, the results show that, 79 respondents of household who's their children walk using 0-29 minutes agreed for their children to involve/participate in

tobacco farming. Generally, a total of 66 respondents did not agree to involve their children in tobacco farming. This means that, involving child labour in farm will endanger their future life development. .

Table 4.12 Correlation Matrix of the Variables

	Education (1)	education (2)	education (3)	Family (1)	Family (2)	Family (3)	Meals (1)	Meals (2)	Distance	gender (1)
education(1)	1.00									
education(2)	0.59	1.00								
education(3)	0.00	0.00	1.00							
family(1)	-0.07	-0.08	0.0	1.00						
family(2)	-0.20	-0.14	0.0	0.57	1.00					
family(3)	-0.14	-0.10	0.0	0.60	0.95	1.00				
meals(1)	0.20	0.07	0.0	-0.03	-0.03	0.02	1.00			
meals(2)	0.03	0.04	0.0	-0.04	0.09	0.12	0.52	1.00		
Distance	0.10	0.03	0.0	-0.03	0.08	0.06	-0.07	.000	1.00	
gender(1)	-0.10	-0.0	0.0	-0.4	0.41	0.43	0.11	.241	.111	1.00

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.12 it is well known that a correlation value in the range of 1 indicates two series that move tightly together; a correlation value in the range of -1 indicates that the two series move in opposite directions. If the two variables are independent (i.e., there is no causal relationship between them), their correlation coefficient is zero. If the two variables are simply proportional, their correlation coefficient is 1. From Table 4.12 the result shows that, university education has no correlation with any among mentioned variables in the matrix shown in the Table. The results also show that there is a relationship among the number of meals taken per day with the level of parent primary education. In general, the number of meals had taken per day, distance from home to school, primary and secondary education variables show strong correlation to each other.

Table 4.13 Cross Tabulation of Children Participation in Tobacco Farming

Observed		Predicted		
		Do your children participate in tobacco farming?		Percentage Correct
Do your children participate in tobacco farming?		no	Yes	
	No	24	82	23
	Yes	13	134	91
Overall Percentage				63

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.13 above, the results show that 63% of children participating in tobacco farming have been accurately classified as either participating or not participating in tobacco farming on the basis of our two variable models. From the Table above, the results shows that the predicted percentage value of children participation in tobacco farming are 91% compared to percentage predicted value of children not participating in tobacco farming which is 23%.

4.2 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis

This section presents the estimation logistic regression results of the null hypothesis as follows:-

(i) H1: The level of parents' education influences child labour in tobacco farming.
(ii) H2: Family parenthood type influences child labour in tobacco farming.
(iii) H3: The family wealth influences child labour in tobacco farming.
(iv) H4: Perception of the society influences child labour in tobacco farming
(v) H5: Gender of the household influences child labour in tobacco farming
(vi) H6: Distance to schools does influence child labour in tobacco farming.

The analysis was done based on the null hypothesis which guided the study. The estimation techniques used was binary logistic regression which predict the likelihood of children choosing to participate in tobacco farming labour force. Binary logistic regression deals with situations in which the observed outcome for a dependent variable can have only two possible types (for example, "children participation in tobacco farming" vs. "children not participating in tobacco farming"). Since the observed

dependent variable in logistic regression is a zero (0) or one (1) variable, the logistic regression estimates the odds ratio as a continuous variable that the dependent variable is a success meaning that children are participating in tobacco farming. In some applications the odds ratio are all that is needed. For that case, the odd ratio predicts whether the dependent variable is or is not a case for children to participate in tobacco growing.

Table 4.14 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	26.993	10	.003
	Block	26.993	10	.003
	Model	26.993	10	.003

Source: Survey results (2013)

From Table 4.14, the omnibus Tests of model coefficient shows that the model fit is stable and statistically significant at 1%. The significance tests of model coefficients with Chi–square show that the variables predictor in the model indicates model fitness, and that is good news about tests of model coefficients.

Table 4.15 Model Summary for Pseudo R-Squared

-2 Log likelihood	Cox and Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
317.065	0.101	0.136

Source: Survey results (2013)

From the Model summary in the Table 4.15 the results show that, the smaller the Nagelkerke R Square, Cox and Snell R Square close to zero (0), the better the model fit. Nagelkerke developed a modified version of Cox and Snell's measure that varies from 0 to 1. Nagelkerke's Pseudo R^2 always is higher than the Cox and Snell measure. Both of these Pseudo R^2 measures tend to be lower than traditional ordinary least squares R^2

measures. Nagelkerke's measure was a correction of Cox and Snell's, allowing the measure to use the full 0-1 range.

Table 4.16: Estimation Results: Binary Logistic Regression

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95%C.I.for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1[a]	education			8.569	3	.036**			
	education(1)	-.961	.471	4.167	1	0.041**	0.383	.152	.962
	education(2)	-1.983	.683	8.425	1	0.004*	0.138	.036	.525
	education(3)	-21.565	40192.970	.000	1	1.000	0.000	.000	.
	family			.838	3	.840			
	family(1)	1.638	1.794	.833	1	.361	5.143	.153	173.117
	family(2)	.850	1.767	.232	1	.630	2.341	.073	74.640
	family(3)	.836	1.678	.248	1	.618	2.307	.086	61.900
	meals			5.175	2	0.075***			
	meals(1)	1.794	.845	4.505	1	0.034**	6.011	1.147	31.496
	meals(2)	.855	.473	3.266	1	0.071***	2.352	.930	5.947
	Distance	.149	.106	1.986	1	0.159	1.161	.943	1.429
	gender	.048	1.404	.001	1	0.973	1.049	.067	16.444
	Constant	-.772	1.809	.182	1	0.670	.462		

Source: Survey results (2013)

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: education, family, meals, Distance, gender.

Asterisk * indicate significance at 1%, ** indicate significance at 5% and *** indicates significance at 10%.

The results from Table 4.16 show the Logistic regression – factors that influence child labour participation in tobacco farming. The coefficient "B" under "education is equal has negative sign. What does it mean? It means that given an increase of parents' level of education, we can expect the log odds (or "logit") of their children participating in tobacco farming to decrease if other factors controlled. From Table 4.16 the "Exp (B)," is also called an "odds ratio". The results show that there is an association between the level of parent's education status (primary and secondary) and children participation on tobacco farming. The study found that the parent's primary education and secondary education level, number of meals per day are strongly significant at 5%, 1%, 5%

respectively and positive determinant of children participation in tobacco farming. However, university/college education of parent household, gender and distance from home to school are positively influencing child participation but insignificantly. Moreover, the outcomes of Odd ratio to be greater than one (1) give us some important indications about the future prospects of children participation in tobacco farming. Since the odd ratio of one meal and two meals per day (indication of family wealth) are 6 and 2 respectively are greater than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children not participating in tobacco farming is greater per unit increase in meals taken per day. Thus, the children living in more wealthy families (three meals per day) are less likely to participate in tobacco farming. Since education odd ratio is less than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children participation in tobacco farming is lower per unit increase in education level of parents household.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter combines the findings of the quantitative and qualitative investigations of the study and discusses them in light of the study objectives and literature available, on the subject of the factors influencing child labour in Urambo District. Opinions formed in this chapter are entirely based on the study findings. The estimated results for both descriptive and econometric analysis are also discussed in this chapter.

5.1 Discussion of the Descriptive and Estimated Regression Results

The general objective of this study was to assess the factors which influence child labour in Tobacco growing areas in Urambo District. The specific objective was to determine the factors leading to child labour in tobacco growing and its effect in Urambo District. The study succeeded in addressing the specific objectives as follows:-

Firstly, descriptive statistics was analyzed and results observation showed that there is an association between the level of parent's education status (primary and secondary) and children participation on tobacco farming. The study finds that the parent's primary education and secondary education level, number of meals per day are strongly significant at 5%, 1%, 5% respectively and positive determinant of child labour in tobacco farming in the district. However, university/college education of parent household, gender and distance from home to school are positively influencing child participation but insignificantly. Moreover, the outcomes of Odd ratio to be greater than one (1) give us some important indications about the future prospects of children participation in tobacco farming. Since the odd ratio of one meal and two meals taken per day (indication of family wealth) are 6 and 2 respectively are greater than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children not participating in tobacco farming is greater per unit increase in meals taken. Thus, the children living in more wealthy families (three meals taken per day) are less likely to participate in tobacco farming. Since education odd ratio is less than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic

of children participation in tobacco farming is lower per unit increase in education level of parents household.

Secondly, logistic regression modeling was used to estimate the influence of children participation in tobacco farming .The logit model was used in order to empirically identify the effect of education level of parent household, household meals taken per day as indicator of household income, gender, and distance from home to school and family type on children participation in tobacco farming. The results show that there is an association between the level of parent's education status (primary and secondary) and children participation on tobacco farming. The study finds that the parent's primary education and secondary education level, number of meals taken per day are strongly significant at 5%, 1%, 5% respectively and positive determinant of children participation in tobacco farming. However, university/college education of parent household, gender and distance from home to school are positively influencing child participation but insignificantly. Moreover, the outcomes of Odd ratio to be greater than one (1) give us some important indications about the future prospects of children participation in tobacco farming. Since the odd ratio of one meal and two meals taken per day (indication of family wealth) are 6 and 2 respectively are greater than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children not participating in tobacco farming is greater per unit increase in meals taken. Thus, the children living in more wealthy families (three meals taken per day) are less likely to participate in tobacco farming. Since education odd ratio is less than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children participation in tobacco farming is lower per unit increase in education level of parents household.

5.2 Comparisons with Other Theoretical Literatures and Empirical Studies

Despite the differences in methodology and specification in this study, the findings are consistent with other studies done in Tanzania and other developing and developed countries. These empirical studies include Bahemuka, et al (2000), whose study confirms that poverty (family wealth) is one of the factors influencing child labour in tobacco farming, in

his study support that child labour continues to be a serious problem in Kenya and many children are working on plantations and as street vendors, poverty is cited as the main reason for the prevalence of child labour in Kenya. Children are regarded as a source of livelihood for poor families

ILO, (2007), whose study confirms that distance is one of the factors influencing child labour in tobacco farming when it said that even in countries which provide children with access to elementary education, when the school is a long distance away can make the journey to school impossible, either because of the cost of transport or the time required traveling to school, especially if the child has to walk there and back. Long distances to school can be a particular problem for girls, with their security especially at risk as children drop out of school; they invariably begin to enter the workforce, often at a very early age, and are often exposed to dangers

Bahemuka, et al (2000), in his study support that child labour continues to be a serious problem in Kenya and many children are working on plantations and as street vendors Poverty is cited as the main reason for the prevalence of child labour in Kenya. Children are regarded as a source of livelihood for poor families.

(Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi 2000) According to these authors, Child labour in Malawi is also to a large extent explained by poverty, lack of resources, (especially educational) as well as poor institutional and regulatory settings. Poverty and economic necessity exert major pressures on families to make use (as early as possible) of the time and labour of children to assist family survival, often at the expense of schooling.

Bosch and Gordon (1996) report that cases of child labour are not reported because the parents of child labourers are threatened that farmers might dismiss or even evict them from their farms. Also, some parents are not prepared to lose the financial contribution of the child to the family income.

Kaijage and Kanyala (1998) have revealed that the labour force in the agricultural sector is made up of male working children, comprising of standard VII leavers, illiterates, and drop outs from primary education aging between 13 and 15 years.

According to these authors the decline in economic performance and provision of social services also forced many children to seek employment in order for them to supplement their family income, and it is estimated that child labour is practised in the agricultural sector, especially in tobacco plantations and in the informal sector.

(Bonnet, 1993) in his study found that due to inability of households to meet basic needs of children (education, food, shelter and clothes) in most cases is said to force children to engage in employment in their Endeavour to improve their conditions and livelihood.

Canagaraja and Coulombe, (1992) in the Country Reports on Human Rights Practices (1998) done in Mozambique argued that most of the child labourers are children of the tobacco farmers since most of the child workers are employed on family farms. Children with parents involved in agricultural self-employment are more likely to practice the same trade at a young age. Farmers confirm that they employ children on their farms mainly to supplement family income and pay school fees.

Bahemuka, et al (op.cit.) also point out that many children see their educated predecessors jobless and this makes them feel that learning is pointless. This indicates that the prevalence of child labour in Kenya cannot be attributed to single factor but there are numerous factors.

Problems with inefficient child labour arise when families are credit-constrained, as noted by Laitner (1997), and Jacoby and Skoufias (1997), if parents do not have access to credit markets; they have to rely on internal assets. In the child-labour scenario, parents borrow from the future by putting their children to work rather than investing in human capital that will make their children more productive in the future.

According to ILO (2007), lack of meaningful alternatives, such as affordable schools and quality education, is another major factor driving children to harmful labour. Children work because they have nothing better to do. Many communities, particularly

rural areas where between 60-70% of child labour is prevalent, do not possess adequate school facilities. Even when schools are sometimes available, they are too far away, difficult to reach, unaffordable or the quality of education is so poor that parents wonder if going to school is really worth it.

According to Kaushik Basu (1999), low household income or wealth and the possibility of substituting children for adults in production can lead to equilibria in which children work. In additional to that, the effects of income or resource inequality in an economy on its incidence of working children. This is comparable to the study done by the author where the results confirm that, odd ratio of one meal and two meals taken per day (indication of family wealth) are 6 and 2 respectively are greater than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children not participating in tobacco farming is greater per unit increase in meals taken.

Therefore, in line with these findings from other empirical studies, this study used cross section study to find out the factors influencing child labour in tobacco farm. The study found that the factors influencing child labour in tobacco farming in Urambo district bore some consistency with those of ILO, (2007), Bahemuka, et al (2000), (Eldring, Nakanyane and Tshoaedi 2000), (Malatji, undated), Bosch and Gordon (1996), Kaijage and Kanyala (1998), (Bonnet 1993), Canagaraja and Coulombe, (1992), Country Reports on Human Rights Practices (1998) – Mozambique and Kaushik Basu (1999)

CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

6.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and policy implications of the study. The summary of the dissertation provides a brief description of the whole dissertation while the conclusion of the study presents some concluding remarks of the findings. The section of the study presents some Policy implication from the findings. The section on recommendations gives a way forward based on the study findings. The chapter ends by providing some recommendations for further study.

6.1. Summary of the Findings

The general objective of this study was to assess the factors which influence child labour in Tobacco growing areas and the effects of this form of labour on children in Urambo District. The method of analysis was regression analysis whereby binary logistic regression model was used to assess factors influencing child labour in the tobacco growing areas. Primary data were collected from two sampled divisions in the district, namely Urambo and Ulyankulu Divisions.

The study has established that, the problem of Child labour on tobacco farms abundantly exists in all the two divisions under the study. Child labour in tobacco growing areas is intense and widespread, manifesting itself largely in form of family labour and to a less extent, as voluntary and bonded labour. It exists in all tobacco growing families regardless of their social, economic status or demographic characteristics and it is most pronounced in Urambo District.

The results of the findings show the Logistic regression factors that influence child labour participation in tobacco farming. It was found that education level of parents influence child labour participation in tobacco farming. Children whose parents are less educated are more likely to become child labour.

Regarding to the given independent variable, the study found that, the children living in wealthier families (three meals taken per day) are less likely to participate in tobacco farming. Since wealth odd ratio is less than 1 then the odds of experiencing the characteristic of children participation in tobacco farming is lower per unit increase in education level of parents household. Other variables such as parenthood type, the distance to school and gender did not influence children participation in tobacco farming.

6.2. Conclusion

The study has explored factors which influence child labour in tobacco farming while the others remain at home. The results suggest that there are strong and systematic factors that explain the children participation in tobacco farming in Urambo district. The main findings of the study show that the parent's education level appears to be influencing children participation in tobacco farming. Thus, the probability of children not participating in tobacco farming increases substantially with the increase in the parent's education level.

Moreover, the number of meals taken per day (one meal) as (indication of family wealth) has a major impact on children participation in tobacco farming. On the whole, the study finds that economic factors (family wealth indicated by number of meals taken) are most important in influencing the children participation in tobacco farming. Some of the social factors considered in the study do not appear to have an adverse effect in this regard. For example, gender and children distance from home living to school are not socially constrained from participating in tobacco farming.

6.3 Policy Implication

To address these issues, policies on child labour should be carefully planned, based on proper analyses of these finding that provide the most important input in this regard. For that matter, the government can also intervene in improving education to parent's households by training them. Education can bring awareness among parents regarding

the importance of children participation in tobacco farming. The provision of increased educational opportunities is, however, one of the major questions to which the social and economic planners need to address. These occupational hazards to children which associated with work on tobacco farms are known to both farmers and children but no significant preventive and protective initiative are in place to mitigate them. Knowledge of the law against child labour has been found to be scarce but the majority of farmers are not willing to cooperate to eliminate child labour because they say eliminating child labour in any form of activities will make their sons lazy, thus endangering their future lives. However, initiatives to solve the child labour problem exist but are poorly coordinated and their impacts are insufficient because the target beneficiaries i.e farmers and child labour have not been involved properly and no alternative given to them as far as in those visited area the paramount economic activity is growing tobacco as a cash crop. The government's needs to have strong policies on this issue of child labour otherwise future development of the children are endangered.

6.4. Recommendations

6.4.1 Existing Initiatives to Solve the Problem.

In anticipation that the respondents were aware of child labour as a problem, the study sought to find out whether they were aware of any initiatives to solve the problem at their areas. As findings indicate, a significant proportion of farmers do not appreciate that child labour is a problem though, a less significant but also influential, proportion are aware that child labour is a problem. The existing initiatives are restricted to simple cultural coping mechanisms, By-laws and the Children Statute at the local and district levels. There is no significant evidence to indicate that the community has been involved in any of the initiatives due to lack of sensitization and enforcement of by-laws.

At national level, the community is aware of some programmes especially those of the National Council for Children, Ministry of Health (Nutrition and Early Childhood Project) and Ministry of Education. Their awareness of these programmes is scanty. This is a confirmation of the fundamental weaknesses to top bottom approach to

planning. While the Government, and through Government, the ILO has well articulated policies and programmes at national level, their impact at the grass root level is very remote.

6.4.2 Sensitization and Enforcement of By- Law

It is suggested that both farmers and children be sensitized on the meaning of and dangers of child labour as well as on how they can be involved to eliminate it. In addition, the existing by-laws and related regulatory laws should be enforced by relevant authorities in collabouration with the local communities. Sensitization should be handled with as much care as is necessary to ensure sustainability of the benefits created by such sensitization programmes. Either, the existing laws need to be reviewed and strengthened so as to specifically address the problem of child labour on tobacco farms.

6.4.3 Poverty Reduction at Household Level.

It is suggested that tobacco farm families be facilitated to fight poverty within their households through provision of soft loans and a seasonal labour fund. Most rural households including tobacco farmers are inherently poor not due to lack of more money only but also due to a host of other factors combined in a complex to poverty manner. Tobacco production is labour intensive and the basic production units are poverty stricken families. Government should consider providing bigger interest free "production loans" to meet labour costs since this sector provides a big portion on Government revenues.

6.4.4 Free Primary and Secondary Education.

It is suggested that primary and secondary education should be free or reasonably subsidized to lessen school contributions burden on them, though it is true that they are paying a little amount of money as school fees in secondary schools and none in primary schools but there are some challenges concerning money paid by parents as contributions to schools' developments. Through oral discussions respondents said, this

situation discourages parents to send their children to school and instead send them to work in tobacco farms. Through the research findings, it has revealed that there are many poor parents in the tobacco growing areas who cannot afford even little that are asked from them as contributions to education of their children. Government should therefore, consider investing more in the primary schools in the tobacco growing areas subsidizing primary and secondary's costs so that the school children are not kept away for lack of necessary school requirements.

6.4.5 Mechanizations of Tobacco Farming

It was recommended that tobacco farming should be mechanized through provision of appropriate tools and equipment. While this is possible, tobacco growing is by its very nature labour intensive and grown on small family holdings particularly in Urambo District which may make mechanization less cost effective and helping these poor peasants.

6.4.6 Improve Facilities in Secondary Education Known as Kata

Although many schools have been established in Wards around the country which is known as "Kata" Secondary schools but still no quality facilities in those schools, no sufficient teachers, dormitories and lack of labouratories which affected so much students' performance and hence discouraged parents to send their children to schools avoiding wastage of time as far as once their children fail come back to join them as usual in tobacco growing activities. The government also has to provide attractive incentives to school both primary and secondary schools. Incentives such as lunch to pupils and supports have mentioned as attractive incentives to pupils to attend classes.

6.5 Limitation of the Study and Areas for Further Studies

The research findings cannot be generalized to the whole country given that only a small sample of 253 households were surveyed in Urambo. Therefore, it is recommended that further study can be done in other tobacco growing area in Tanzania, after then, the findings should be compared with these results obtained in Urambo to

come up with good generalization. Secondly, the method employed in this study was Logit regression which looks on whether or not participating in child labour but there are other methods such as using linear regression to find the exact number of children participating in tobacco farming. Therefore, recommendation is made for further studies using those methods including probit to come up with findings which will be compared to those found by author. In this study, six variables were used to collect data. These variables are level of parent education, family parenthood type, family wealth, perception of the society, gender of the household head and distance to school. But during the field study other variables were revealed such as parent debts, lack of society awareness on law protecting child labour and demand of child labour. For that reason, further studies are recommended on other variables. Similar studies should also be done for other cash crops and livestock sector, to enable a holistic approach to the problem of child labour. Because it was observed from the field that child labour is not only in the tobacco growing area but also in other sectors such as livestock rearing, beekeeping and rice growing farms

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Urambo District Socio - Economic Profile, (2012)

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

URAMBO DISTRICT, TABORA REGION

TANZANIA 2013

SURVEY STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

We are conducting a research on **Analysis of the Factors Influencing Child Labour in Tobacco Growing in Urambo District.** The research requires conducting interviews with various stakeholders including your family. The information hereby obtained is solely for academic reasons and all your responses will remain confidential. We will be extremely grateful if you agree to collaborate with me and give some time to answer a set of questions we have. The questions are designed to help us understand the factors influencing child labour in tobacco growing farms and find out ways to eliminate them. We thank you for your time and eagerly hope for your cooperation.

IDENTIFICATION

NAME OF THE DIVISION……..

NAME OF THE WARD……

NAME OF THE VILLAGE……..

DATE OF INTERVIEW …….. …….. ……

Day Month Year

INTERVIEWER: …….

RESPONDENT: NAME …….....

GENDER……..

I. CHILD LABOUR

1. How many children do you have? ……
2. Among them how many participate in tobacco farming?…….
3. What is your education level?

Illiterate	1
Primary education	2
Secondary	3
College/University	4

4. Family parenthood type

Mother only	1
Father only	2
Both father and mother	3
Children only	4

5. How many meals do you get per day?

One	1
Two	2
Three	3

6. Do you think the participation of children in tobacco is good?

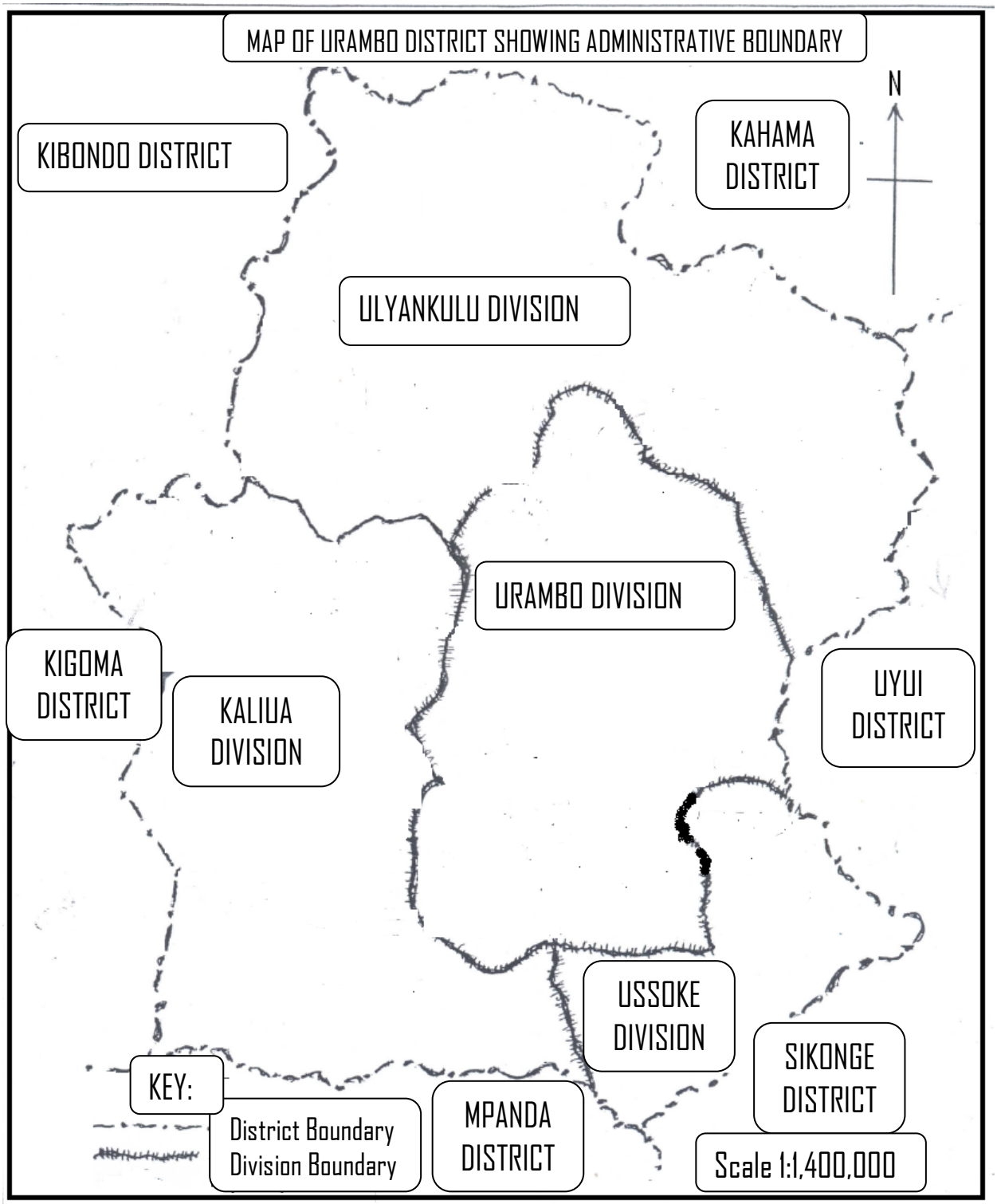
Yes	1
No	2

7. How long does it take your children to walk from home to school? ……

Thank you for your time and Assistance

Appendix 2

Map of Urambo District Showing Administrative Boundaries



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, Cartographic Section, Field Operations Department, 2012

Appendix 3

CURRICULUM VITAE

1.0 PERSONAL DATA

Full Name: Benedicto Daimon

Gender: Male

Address: The President's Office -State House, Policy and Planning Department,

P.O Box 395, Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania

E-mail Address: bdaimon09@gmail.com

Date and Place of birth: 19th April, 1972 Mbeya, Tanzania

Passport number: AB114079

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2.0 EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

2010 – 2013: MSc. Economics, Mzumbe University – Morogoro, Tanzania

1995 – 1998: Bachelor of Arts (B.A) in Economics (Honours), University of Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania.

Jun-Dec, 1993: Maramba Nation Service (JKT), Tanga, Tanzania, Certificate of Nation Service

1991–1993: Certificate of Secondary Education (Advanced Level- ACSSE): Galanos High School**,** Tanga, Tanzania**,**

1987-1990: Certificate of Secondary Education (Ordinary Level-CSEE): Ifakara Secondary School, Morogoro, Tanzania,

1980 – 1986: Primary School Leaving Certificate: Mchikichini Primary School, Morogoro, Tanzania,

3.0 EMPLOYMENT RECORDS

October, 2013 to Date: Head of Planning STATE HOUSE

April 1st 2013 to 2013: Principal Economist at President's Office, STATE HOUSE working in the Policy and Planning Department

June, 2012 to March, 2013: Senior Economist at President's Office, STATE HOUSE working in the Policy and Planning Department

July, 2010 to May, 2012: Senior Economist at Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government working in the Policy and Planning Department

August, 2008 to June, 2010: Economist I at Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government working in the Policy and Planning Department

April, 2004 to July, 2007: Economist II at President Office, Regional Administration and Local Government working in the Policy and Planning Department

October 1st 2002 to 2004: Economist III at President Office, Regional Administration and Local Government working in the Policy and Planning Department

November, 2000 to September, 2002: Assistant Min Depot Controller at Coca-Cola Kwanza Ltd (HQ-Dar es Salaam)

August, 1998 to March, 2000: Teacher Mathematics and Commerce at Popatlal Secondary School, Tanga

4.0 SPECIAL DUTIES

September, 2008 to October, 2012: Member of the Task Force for Annual National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP/MKUKUTA) writing report (Cluster III: Good Governance and Accountability).

July, 2008 to September, 2010: Member of the National Budget facilitators' team which organized by Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs

24th September to 5th October, 2008: Participated in preparation of PMO-RALG Strategic Plan, the programme organized by Policy and Planning Division conducted in Morogro.

25th June, 2006 to 24th January, 2007: Member of the Secretariat of the Presidential Commission for Salary enhancement

3rd to 26th February, 2004: Participated in Rapid Vulnerability Assessment (RVA) for food Insecure Population by MAFS done at Kilimanjaro Region.

5.0 COURSES, TRAINING AND WORKSHOPS ATTENDED

21st to 23rd September, 2013 Attended Evaluation Workshop on 2012/2013 MTEF Budget process organized by Ministry of Finance held at Blue Peal Hotel, Dar es Salaam

2nd to 12th August 2005: Attended and successfully completed Region Training on Gender and Macro Economic Planning and Budgeting organized by TGNP at Gender Resource Centre Mabibo, Dar es Salaam.

17th January to 11th February, 2005: Attended and successfully completed Training on Information Technology Skills and Public Sector Management Programme conducted at ESAMI- Arusha.

27th Sept to 12th November, 2004: Attended and successfully completed Training on MS Advanced Microcomputer Application conducted at the University Computing Centre, Dar es Salaam.

8th to 19th December, 2003: Attended and successfully completed training on MS Access for M & E system organized by President's Office, Public Service Management conducted at the University Computing Centre, Dar es Salaam.

16th to 17th October, 2003 Attended Evaluation Workshop on 2003/2004-2005/2006 MTEF Budget process by MoF held at NIC Conference Hall, Dar es Salaam

22nd to 24th September, 2003: Attended TSED training 1st Module on how to retrieve poverty indicators from the TSED that conducted at Living Stone Club, Bagamoyo

15th to 19th July, 2003: Attended Training of ToTs on Assessment of Council Comprehensive Health Plans (CCHP) and Quarterly Progress Report at Regional Level by CHBF/MoH conducted at Morogoro Hotel, Morogoro

24th to 28th March, 2003: Attended a Workshop on preparation of Strategies for implementing Tanzania National Ageing Policy held at TANESCO Conference Hall-Morogoro

11th to 14th March, 2003: Attended Training Workshop on Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) organized by JAICA and conducted at Mtumba, Dodoma.

17th to 19th February, 2003: Attended seminar on HIV/AIDS Awareness organized by PORALG and conducted at TANESCO Conference Hall, Morogoro

20th to 21st January, 2003: Attended Training Seminar on the preparation of Cabinet Papers for PORALG officers conducted at TANESCO Conference Hall- Dodoma

27th to 30th January, 2003: Attended a Workshop on the understanding the Opportunities and Obstacles to Development (O&OD) as participatory planning methodology, given to PORALG officers conducted at TANESCO Conference Hall-Morogoro

17th to 19th October, 2002: Attended Stakeholders Workshop on Client Service Charter organized by LGRP conducted at TANESCO Conference Hall- Morogoro

3rd to 29th August, 1998: Attended and successfully completed Driving Course at VETA-Tanga, Awarded a certificate of driving and Driving License class D

May to June, 1998: Attended and successfully completed computer training course on introduction course to Computers, MS DOS, MS Word and MS Excel conducted at the University of Dar Es Salaam.

6.0 COMPUTER SKILLS

I am competent in the SPSS, STATA, and Microsoft Office

7.0 DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

- Coordinating formulation and preparation of the State House 's medium term strategic plan, annual action plans and budgets;
- Analyzing and compile reports on ministerial projects, programmes and Action Plans and Develop strategies for resource mobilization;
- Providing technical guidance and support for institutionalization of Strategic Planning and Budgeting process within the Office;
- Analyzing and preparing memorandum of understanding for projects and programs for international financing; and
- Coordinating preparation of Office budget speech.
- Analyzing policies from other sectors and advise accordingly;
- Carrying out monitoring and evaluation of the State House's plans and budgets and prepare performance reports;
- Carrying out research, assessments and evaluation of State House plans and provide a basis for making informed decisions on the future direction of the Office;

8.0 AWARDS AND RECOGNITIONS

2008 and 2010: Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government Best Worker awarded certificates by TUGHE

9.0 REFEREES

1. Professor Joseph .T Nagu,
Mzumbe University,
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2. Ened A. Munthali,
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3. Packshard Mkongwa,
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P. O. Box 1923,
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Email: *packmkongwa@yahoo.co.uk*

10.0 CERTIFICATION

I, the undersigned, certify that to the best of my knowledge and belief, this CV correctly describes me, my qualifications, and my experience. I understand that any willful misstatement described herein may lead to my disqualification or dismissal, if engaged.

Date: 26th October, 2013 **Signed:** ……

Benedicto Daimon