

THE PROBLEM OF CHILD LABOUR IN TANZANIA.

A CASE OF RUFIFI DISTRICT

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By

Fikiri Salum Manogerwa

**A dissertation submitted to The Institute of Development Studies for the study
to be conducted in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of Master of
Science Degree in Development Policy (MSc. DP) of Mzumbe University**

2015.

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the thesis entitled” The problem of child labour in Tanzania. A Case of Rufiji District” submitted to the Institute of Development Studies at the Mzumbe University in partial fulfilment of the requirement for award of the degree of Master of Development Policy (MSc DP) of Mzumbe University.

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DIRECTOR INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

DECLARATION

I, Fikiri Salum Manogerwa, declare that this thesis is my own original work and that it has not been presented and will not be presented to any other university for a similar or any other degree award.

Signature.....

Date.....

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this piece of work to my parents, who initiated and encouraged the whole journey of my education till this level.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CEE/CIS	Central and Eastern European/Commonwealth of Independent States
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DED	District Executive Director
ELRA	Employment and labour Relation Act
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
LCA	Law of the Child Act
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MSc. DP	Master of Science Degree in Development Policy
MVC	Most Vulnerable Children
NGO-	Non Government Organisation
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
REPOA-	Research on Poverty Alleviation
SOSPA	The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USD	United State Dollar
VEO	Village Executive Officer
WEO	Ward Executive Officer.

WFCL

Worst Forms of Child Labour

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ABSTRACT

Child labour is work performed by children under 18 years of age which is exploitative, hazardous or inappropriate for their age, and which is detrimental to their schooling, or social, mental, spiritual and moral development.

This research aimed at finding out the challenges towards reduction of child labour in Rufiji district. The study focused on the awareness of the parents about child labour, causes of child labour in Rufiji district and the types of child labour the children were engaged and reasons why they are engaged in it.

The data was collected through quantitative and qualitative research by the use of questionnaires, interview questions on papers, and face to face interview and the use of observation. Also books, web links and articles helped to support the findings. Analysis method used to analyze the data was narrative analysis.

The main results of the research indicated that, the interviewees were not aware of child labour which made it difficult to tackle the issue of child labour in Tanzania also the main causes and types of child labour in Rufiji district were poverty, cultural beliefs lack of education, inaccessibility of school skill acquisition, low payment helping poor families work long hours and selling different merchandise, cooking, washing cars, begging and carrying luggage respectively.

Different reasons were found to be contributing to child labour. These were education problems where children drop out of school to engage in child labour, poor health facilities that lead to death of parents and thus leave orphan to feed themselves through child labour.

In conclusion, Child labour is a serious problem not only in Tanzania but also around the world. In this study, children of both sexes were found engaging in different activities such as; cooking, washing and watching cars, scavenging (collecting scrap), carrying luggage, selling merchandise and other small items, fetching and selling water, begging, cleaning, prostitution and salon services.

In recommendation the government should create awareness on the scourage of child labour and establishment of child labour programme in Rufiji district.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Problem

According to International Labour Organization's Bureau of Statistics (1998), there are 250-million child labourers in the age group 5-14 in developing countries. Of them, 120 million children are working full time and are engaged in hazardous and exploitative occupations.

New global estimates by the ILO reveals numbers of children who work, and of the numbers involved in each category of child labour for abolition, are presented in the Future without Child Labour Report (2002). The estimates reveal several disturbing realities

Some 180 million children aged 5-17 (73%) of all child labourers are now believed to be engaged in the worst forms of child labour, comprising hazardous work and the unconditional worst forms of child labour. This amounts to one child in every eight in the world. While 171 million children engaged in hazardous work, nearly two-thirds are under 15 and therefore require immediate withdrawal from this work and rehabilitation from its effects.

While 67 million children in the 5-14 age group are engaged in non-hazardous child labour that they should not be undertaking by virtue of their age, about (111 million) children are involved in work that actually jeopardizes their well being. Children aged 15-17 years are estimated to be 59 million, these are involved in hazardous work. <http://www.tnchildlabour.tn.gov.in/magnitude.htm> 14/08/2014

The national concern on the child labour in Tanzania can be traced back to the colonial era. In 1955 while under the British rule, the Government passed Employment Ordinance Cap.366, which among other provisions, prohibits employment of children. The Ordinance was amended by Act No. 5 of 1969 to prohibit employment in any capacity whatsoever of a child below the age of 15 years. Section 9 of the Ordinance empowers the Labour Commissioner, Labour

Officers and Labour Inspectors to enter and inspect any work place or private dwelling believed to host or employ a child.

Since independence, Tanzania has put in place both national and sectoral policies to promote the welfare, enhance education opportunities, and protect the rights of children.

Child labour is one of the obstacles to universal education as well as achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015 for all developing countries, Tanzania inclusive (URT, 2005). Today, at the midpoint between the adoption of the MDGs and the 2015 target date, many countries have already reached the goal of universal primary education. However, in Sub-Saharan Africa, primary and secondary school attendance rates continue to be low because millions of school children work instead of attending school (World Bank, 2005). This suggests that child labour is one of the obstacles to achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of universal primary education in Sub Sahara Africa, including Tanzania.

It is estimated that about 1 out of 3 children aged between 5-14 years in Sub-Saharan Africa are employed, compared to Central and Eastern European/Commonwealth of Independent States (CEE/CIS) region where only 1 out of 20 are employed. In absolute numbers, 69 million children in Sub-Saharan Africa, which is 35% of its child population, are engaged in child labour (ILO, 2006). This statistic makes Sub Saharan Africa including Tanzania the most dominant place with prevalent practice in child labour.

Rural children were much more likely to be involved in child labour compared to urban children, however, it is very important to distinguish between child labour and child work. Child work is considered to have essential socialization functions while child labour tends to take place outside the family and sometimes could be exploitative and sometimes lack of basic needs. Consequently such parents tend to hunt for part time employment after school hours for their children (Mendelievich, 1979).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is evident that Tanzania has several policies and strategies to eliminate the problem of child labour through its existing legal and institutional framework at the national, regional and international level. However, with all these legal instruments and institutions in place, the rate of child labour is on an increase in Tanzania, including its worst forms. The survey done by the ILFS (2006) found that 70% of the children aged 5–17 are engaged in economic activities outside their homes while 84.8% work both at home and outside their homes. There is also a gender dimension to child labour; a larger percentage of girls (85%) are involved in both economic activities as well as household activities compared to boys (84%), though the margin of difference is minimal. Again, poverty, family size, and literacy rates of mothers emerged as key push factors into child labour. The survey showed that most children whose families earn less than 100,000/= a month (approximately USD75) engage in economic activities to supplement family income. This thesis is going look the problem of child labour in Rufiji.

The central problem which the study sought to address is the issue of child labour, the study tried to explore this issue in relation to the performance in school and related support activities in Rufiji District with the reference to Ikwiriri Division. In other words the study aimed to find out the magnitude and effects of child labour.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The main objective of this study is to find out the problem of Child Labour in Tanzania.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To determine the understanding of parents about child labour
- ii. To assess the causes of child labour in Rufiji district
- iii. To assess the types of child labour in Rufiji district

1.4 Research Questions

- i. Are parents understanding about child Labour?
- ii. What are the causes of child labour in Rufiji district?
- iii. What are the types of child labour in Rufiji district?

1.5 Justification of the Study

This study will enable the government especially Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children to understand the problem of Child labour in Tanzania.

The study will also be useful to government and social welfare officers in Rufiji District Council for devising effective ways of implementing the child labour plans. The finding might be used by the government and others stakeholders in formulating better policies on child labour.

It will also create awareness on the importance of involving the communities and others stakeholders at grassroots level in the process of developing and implementing of child labour policies and plans.

It will also give out knowledge and gaps to other researchers who would like to conduct further research on similar problem.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Literature review is both a summary and explanation of the complete and current state of knowledge on a limited topic as found in academic books and journal articles. Also literature review examines the current scholarly work available on a particular subject, perhaps within a given time period. It is not merely a summation of the existing work; its purpose is to analyze critically the applicable “published body of knowledge” in order to establish the current knowledge of that topic.

2.1 Theoretical Review of Literature

2.1.1 The Basic/Static Model

According to Humphries (2010), there are two assumptions that are crucial and also founded the basic static model of labour market with child labour. These are the Luxury Axiom and the Substitution Axiom (Humphries, 2010; Basu and Tzannatos, 2003). The Substitution Axiom according to Humphries (2010) argues that “adults and child workers are substitutes subject to some adult equivalency correction”. This Axiom argues that it is always possible to replace adult labour with Children and since adult labour cost more, some employers aiming to maximize profit would switch to children. It is important to note that for the purpose of this study, the researcher restricted himself just to the Poverty model (luxury axiom) which best fits or apply to the situation of the child labour within the areas of Ikwiriri division in the Rufiji District.

The Poverty model (Luxury Axiom) argues that parent or household send their children to work because of poverty and that children’s “non work, school attendance or leisure” (ibid) is a luxury commodity household cannot afford. Families or household with low income cannot afford to disengage their children from working in order to survive. This is because children work in this case brings in surplus income that helps to sustain the family together with adult income. Children, according to this assumption are only kept out of productive activity when adult

income rises above the subsistence level. Hence, there lies implicitly altruistic view of parents and guardians who have negative disposition towards their children working but have to consent to the act because of poverty and the household's survival (Humphries, 2010).

In the view of Basu (1999), Karl Marx's writing coincides with the period when child labour was at its peak during the industrial revolution. In his work called "Capital", he developed a model explaining the causes of child labour.

According to Karl Marx (1867), the rise of a new technology which he specifically referred to it as machinery led to the practice of employing persons "whose bodily development is incomplete, but whose limbs are all more supple".

In the view of Marx, Ideally the existence of machinery should have resulted in more time for leisure but since machinery is owned by one agent (capitalists) and labour by the proletariat (including adults and children of the working class), "a diminished need for labour would lead to decline of wages to a higher extent, therefore it would be beneficial for the capitalist to freely utilize labour on one hand, and also equally important to have workers and their entire household (family) work to satisfy their subsistence consumption (Marx, 1867 cited in Basu 1999).

In this way, machinery tends to depreciate the labour power of men because in order for families to satisfy their subsistence consumption, there is the supply of not only labour but surplus labour for the capitalists. In other words, all members of the family have to engage in some sort of economic activities that bring income, in order to secure their subsistence consumption. This happens because of the declined in adult wages stemming from the strong competition occurring in the labour market during the era of the British Industrial Revolution (Humphries, 2010). Marx also noted the long term consequences of child labour.

In Humphries (2010), view "poverty is the main cause of child labour even though it may have some other non economic causes and could also be affected by the changing conception of childhood and the value of children (Zelzer, 1985 cited in Humphries, 2010). He argued that during the industrial revolution which saw a boom

in child labour, only children belonging to the elite class did not work (Humphries, 2010; Nardinelli, 1990; Cunningham, 2000 and Heywood, 2001) further stated that “the incidence of child labour tended to fall as countries became richer and their economies advanced” (Humphries, 2010). Citing examples, he asserted that “by the last quarter of the 19th century, very young children between the ages of 5-9 years old were no more found working in the British economy and older child workers between 10-14 years old in the labour market were brought to the barest minimum.

Similarly, Marshall (1920), also noted some effect of child labour. In Marshall’s view, “the moral and physical misery and disease caused by excessive work under bad conditions reached their highest period in the first quarter of the 19th century and that the most valuable of all capital that invested in human beings (Basu, 1999).

According to Marshall, if faculties of children are not developed well, they would not be able to realize the importance of developing the faculties of their own children, hence, limiting their ability or power to do so. Therefore any change ascribed to the workers of one generation with regards to satisfactory wages and good opportunities that help to develop their human potentials would go a long way to increase the material and moral advantages with which they are likely to help their children (Marshall, 1920).

It must be noted that there have been several scholars who have argued for a ban on child labour as a policy prescription to solving this problem. For example, Basu and Arthur have argued that the consequences of such ban could cause less privileged households to live below their subsistence consumption level and as such argued that a ban should incorporate the provision of social welfare to such sect of the population by the government.

In the view of Basu (1999), a child’s non schooling implies the denial of benefits not only for the child but the society to a larger extent. Basu (1999), quoting Marshall (1920), noted that “Whoever may incur the expense of investing capital in developing the abilities of the workman, those abilities will be the property of the

workman himself: and thus, the virtue of those who have aided him must remain for the greater part of its own reward” (Basu, 1999).

Similarly, Mills (1970) also argued for the positive externalities that come with education. In his opinion, it is a breach of duty against both the child and community for a parent or a guardian denying his child education. According to him, in the long run, both the child and the community will bear the consequence of ignorance and lack of education.

2.2 The Problem of Child Labour Worldwide

The ILO (2005) report on child labour estimated that about 211 million children aged between 5 and 17 years were engaged in child labour around the world. However, in some developing countries children beyond babyish stage are encouraged to work. Mendelievich (1979), noted that in developing countries there is a widely used notion that a child who is no longer a baby should not be left idle without work. The belief that children must work from an early age in order to contribute family to upkeep still holds. Focusing on this point of view may legalize child abuse by not distinguishing between activities that constitute normal family obligation and appropriate house hold training, and those that give rise to abuse, on the other hand. Such activities include all activities that hinder children from engaging in educational issues or those which limit their time for recreation and time for resting.

In India, according to 1991 census there were 11.29 million child workers. National sample survey figures for the year 1999-2000 indicated that there were 10.4 million child labourers.

A research done in Ghana by Niels-Hugo and Dorte (2000), on the link between poverty and child labour shows that while several factors such as orphanage, married disintegration, child abuse and negligence of parents or guardians were important, the major conclusions emerging from the study were the positive relationship between poverty and child labour. Children might have to sacrifice their education in order to participate in income generating activities. When the poor depend on their

children's labour rather than invest in their future by educating them, they risk perpetuating poverty from one generation to the next. Children from poor households were found to be more likely to engage in harmful child labour than those from well-off households (Niels-Hugo and Dorte, 2000).

2.3 The Problem of Child Labour in Tanzania

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

Children work in the household, in the community, and in mostly all productive sectors. Within the household, they work as domestic workers, in family enterprises, and in subsistence agriculture (including growing cash crops); in the community, they work in commercial agriculture, particularly household cash crop farms or plantations; they work in urban areas as commercial sex workers and hawkers; and they work in industries such as mining and fishing.

The National Action Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour (2009) states that not all work done by children is classified as child labour targeted for elimination. It recognizes work done in the household that does not affect health or personal development or interfere with education.

The ILFS (2006), categorized hazardous work as work that involves exposure to dangerous tools or animals; carrying heavy loads frequently; working underground or at great heights; work that is physically, emotionally, or sexually abusive; exposure to chemicals; and long working hours..

2.4 Sectors Employing Children

According to the study done by ILFS (2006), research respondents seemed to have similar ideas regarding the regions where child labour is most out of control; Dar es Salaam, Arusha (Mererani), Shinyanga, Tabora, Iringa, Mwanza, and Tanga. These regions have high numbers of child labourers because of the demand for domestic work, mining activities, stone quarrying activities, tobacco and tea plantations, fishing activities, and the growth of the informal sector.

Child labour is recorded to be most prevalent in the agriculture sector, in mainly large-scale plantations that produce tea, sugar cane, rubber, coffee, sisal, wheat, cotton, tobacco, and rice.

Studies show that almost 80% of rural-based children aged 5–17 support their parents by working in plantations and agriculture farms. During the harvest season, they work on neighbouring farms to earn extra income. A report by the ILO indicates that one of every three children aged 10–14 work outside their households mainly as farm workers and in exploitative and abusive conditions. Child labour in commercial agriculture is mainly associated with sugarcane, sisal, tobacco, tea, coffee, cloves, and cut-flower plantations and is primarily concentrated in the Arusha, Iringa, Kilimanjaro, Mbeya, Morogoro, Rukwa, Tabora, Tanga and Zanzibar regions.

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

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

The domestic work sector is also one of the growing sectors employing children, particularly girls. Girls aged 7–18 are believed to migrate from rural to urban areas looking for employment in the domestic sector in conditions that are habitually hidden, abusive, and exploitative.

According to the children themselves, other sectors considered hazardous include mining, drug trafficking, and prostitution (RAWG, 2007). The percentage of boys working in rural areas is similar to the percentage of boys working in urban areas. The percentage of working boys in urban areas seemed to have reduced significantly, from 83% in 2001 to 51% in 2006. This, however, contradicts REPOA's findings from a baseline study on child labour in 2003, which concluded that child labour is more out of control in urban areas than in rural areas.

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

Child prostitution is more rampant in cities and small towns than in rural areas. A 2001 study estimated that more than 1,500 girls were involved in prostitution in Dares Salaam alone. In addition, two studies undertaken between 2009 and 2010 illustrate that child prostitution is on the rise in Tanzania, especially in the densely populated urban and suburban areas. Girls under 15 years old are known to be working in nightclubs, liquor shops and brothels and at the same time, most of them practice prostitution. Girls who enter into prostitution ranged in age from 9 to 17. Statistics are limited on the number of boys that enter into prostitution, and there has not been a national study to highlight the situation. More girls work in rural areas than in urban areas, but between 2001-2006, there is a significant reduction in the number of girls that enter into child labour in rural areas as compared to urban areas (most probably girls are moving from rural to urban areas to look for work). Although the trend has indicated a reduction in percentages of children entering into child labour generally including a reduction of children entering into child labour in urban areas the percentages of boys entering into child labour in rural areas is higher than girls, while the percentage of girls entering into child labour in urban areas is higher than boys. There is still a greater incidence of child labour in Mainland Tanzania than in Zanzibar (Kamala *et al.*; 2001).

2.5 Causes of Child Labour

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

2.5.1 Poverty

With high levels of poverty, many children are pushed to work to supplement family income; work for their own income to meet their individual needs, pay for school fees, and care for their siblings. Poverty levels have also impacted the development of social sectors, and therefore children from households with low income do not have access to basic services. Children in rural areas are more likely to live in

poverty compared to children in urban areas. With over dependency on subsistence agriculture, many families are not able to make ends meet as there are numerous challenges associated with agriculture such as poor infrastructure, poor soil, inequality (gender and income), and the rising prices of farm inputs as well as the falling prices of cash crops. This made the children engaged in child labour activities to increase household income.

2.5.2 Falling education standards

Studies show that children who engage in child labour at an age below 18 are associated with lower education attainment and delayed development of basic literacy and quantitative skills. Although investments in education access and quality have improved, a significant gap still exists in terms of equity in access. In addition, investments have focused on quantity as opposed to quality. With such a high demand for improvement in quality and access, investment in education is thinly spread out; leaving some of the critical issues such as teacher training, access to learning materials, and lack of funds, the result is poor quality education with high dropout rates and high rates of absenteeism, many of them engaging in child labour. Evidence reveals that children from low income households have less access to education because they cannot afford to make contributions to various development activities in schools such as building classrooms, purchasing uniforms, exercise books, and other school needs. The school environment or the learning environment has also contributed to high dropout rates and low attendance rates. The physical conditions of buildings, lack of teachers, severe punishments, and quality and relevance of education have been discouraging students. In addition, there has not been sufficient investment in vocational education and training and thus limited opportunities for children that have completed primary education but are below the age of employment.

2.5.3 Cultural Factors, Illiteracy Rates among the Adult Population, and unequal Gender Relations

Studies reveal that household with less educated women are more likely to have working children than families with educated women. Illiteracy rates are high among

Tanzanian adults, particularly women. Cultural factors that contribute to the problem of child labour include early marriages and polygamy. Women are denied rights to own or inherit property, particularly land, giving rise to many women who are landless and widows who have no assets to help them cater to their needs. In some of the regions, girls still undergo female circumcision and early marriages.

2.5.4 In search of a better life

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

2.5.5 Cheap Labour

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

2.6 Existing Mechanisms, Policy and Legal Framework on Child Labour in Tanzania

2.6.1 Policies

Child labour issues were well incorporated into the first National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (popularly known as NSGRP/MKUKUTA). One of the goals under the MKUKUTA was reduction of child labour from 25% to less than 10% by 2010 and establishing effective social protection measures by 2010,

including increasing access to education and other basic services to children. The aim was to increase protection to vulnerable children, particularly working children. MKUKUTA was in line with the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other policies that aim to increase access to education as well as prohibit child labour.

2.6.1.1 Child Development Policy, 2008

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

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

2.6.1.2 National Employment Policy, 2008

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

The policy recognizes the problem of child labour and highlights the rural urban dimension of child labour. It states that the four major areas with rampant child labour include agriculture, mining and quarrying, domestic service, and commercial

sex. The policy further recognizes that monitoring of child labour is limited because of the lack of sufficient human resource to monitor it. Thus, the objective under the child labour component is to eliminate or reduce to minimal levels the child labour practices countrywide. It further states that the government in collaboration with other stakeholders shall establish guidelines and implement programs aimed at eliminating the worst forms of child labour and mandates employers to comply with labour laws guiding employment of minors.

2.6.2 Legislation

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

For over 30 years, Tanzania lacked a comprehensive legislation addressing children's issues. The pieces of legislation in existence were insufficient to guarantee all rights of children; in addition to the lack of a comprehensive legislation, there were conflicting provisions in the laws, particularly on issues regarding age and entitlement to rights. For example, a clear definition of who a child was did not exist; provisions were outdated and did not adequately protect children from violence, abuse, neglect, and exploitation. Because of these shortcomings, the legal framework on rights of children faced major implementation challenges.

2.6.3 Law of the Child Act of 2009 (LCA)

Two main pieces of legislations provide for child labour prohibition: the Law of the Child Act (LCA) and the Employment and Labour Relations Act (ELRA) of 2004. Child labour provisions are provided under part VII A of the LCA of 2009. The Act picks up several issues related to child labour and has taken into consideration the provisions in the ELRA (Part II, Fundamental Rights and Protections, Sub Part A) as well as the international conventions governing children's rights and child labour.

For Tanzania, this is positive progress given the fact that for many years there was no legal framework governing child labour. However, even with this progress, setbacks have occurred. One of the issues is that both Acts give the mandate to make regulations to separate ministries, thus the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and the Ministry of Employment, Labour and Youth have the mandate to make child labour regulations.

The minimum age of employment is provided for in the ELRA (Section 15) and in the LCA (Section 77) as 14 years, but only for *light work*. Although the LCA has harmonized some of the provisions, several policy issues still need to be straightened out in order for the LCA to be effectively implemented. Some provisions require further amplification; for example, the ELRA (Section 5(2)) states that a child may be employed, while the LCA states that working is a right and that a child has a right to light work. Although Section 77 (3) expounds on the meaning of light work, it still leaves room for misinterpretation. As pointed out in the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF,2009) report, the concept of light work depicted in the LCA is different from that envisaged under the ELRA or C.138, which provides that a child of 14 shall only do light work. Light work in this case applies to all ages above 14. Questions such as the specific hours, load, type of work, and risks could have been explained to remove grey areas. In a recent review of enforcement of child labour legislation, the concept of light work is found to be ambiguous and subject to different interpretations. It is a concept that is not clear to many law enforcers and government officials responsible for supervising labour and safety standards; more importantly, the standards for measurement are not really there. In light of this elusiveness, it is necessary to define light work across different sectors.

The LCA provides for hazardous work, but makes no mention of the hazardous list provided for in the ELRA. Similarly, Section 82 of the LCA provides that hazardous work includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; carrying heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; working in places where machines are used; and working in places such as bars, hotels, and places of entertainment. According to C. 138, hazardous work as provided in article 3 states

that full account should be taken of relevant international labour standards concerning dangerous substances, agents, or processes and that the sectors extend to water, electricity, transport, storage and communication, plantations, and agriculture undertaking for commercial purposes, sanitary services, and construction as a minimum (article 5(3)). These sectors have not been included in the LCA section.

Section 83 of the LCA provides for prohibition of sexual exploitation; this is in line with C. 182 on elimination of worst forms of child labour (WFCL) as well as the Optional Protocol to the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and the Anti Trafficking Act of 2008. The section should include a definition of child prostitution as defined in the Optional Protocol as well as extend the definition in 83(2 a–c) to include transferring, using, procuring, or offering a child for prostitution by any person or a group of persons for remuneration. The current section states broadly that a child shall not be engaged in work or trade that exposes the child to activities of sexual nature, but the act of using, procuring, offering, or transferring a child for prostitution is not mentioned. C. 138 makes reference to the need for ensuring that the conditions in which children and young persons are employed or work are maintained at a satisfactory standard (minimum age recommendation (146), recommendation 12 (1)). The recommendations further elaborate that all rights apply to ordinary workers and include annual holiday with pay of at least four weeks; equal pay for equal work; minimum of 12 hours of night rest; and social security plans that include medical care and sickness benefits. Therefore, it is essential to add information concerning all details outlined in Section 15 of the ELRA, nature of contractual relations, right to leave and other benefits, termination of employment as provided by Section 35 of the ELRA, termination benefit, disciplinary procedure, reporting dispute and dispute settlement, and right to participate and join in trade unions.

2.6.4 Education Act, Cap 353, R.E. 2002

The Education Act provides for the right to education for all children in Tanzania. All children of school going age have to be enrolled in primary education (Section 35(1) provides for mandatory enrolment for children aged 7 years and above), and it

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

2.6.5 Employment and Labour Relations Act, 2004

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

2.6.6 The Land Acts

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

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

The Land Act of 1999 and the Village Act of 1999 emphasize equal rights for both men and women to acquire, hold, use, and deal with land. The Acts provide for the involvement of women in decision-making bodies on land matters, for example, village/ward tribunals must have a representation of 43% women. Nevertheless, even with this development, the recognition of customary tenure, and the implementation of the Land Act within a context of a highly patriarchal community, discrimination of women and girls in property ownership is still rampant. Under customary tenure, women have access to the use of land and property by virtue of their relationship to men (NGO Declaration, 1997). Such rights are known as secondary rights; other holders of secondary rights include migrants, pastoralists, and young people. These rights are of uncertain duration, are not well defined, and are subject to change. They are based on maintaining good relations between parties. Women may hold land for use, but ownership rights are restricted.

Other weaknesses in the law include provisions that do not guarantee women certain rights, such as the right to prepare wills (Section 3(3)) and denial of rights to inheritance (Section 20 makes mention of the Customary Law Declaration Order of 1963, which inherently takes away the right for women to inherit).

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

2.6.7 Anti Trafficking Act, 2008

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

The Act states that trafficking is an offense and involves the recruitment, transport, transfer, harbour, and receiving a person under the pretext of employment, training, or apprenticeship for prostitution, forced labour, or slavery. Trafficking of children is

considered severe; and when the victim is a child, the Act states that the consent of the child, parent, or guardian should not be used as a defence.

2.6.8 Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) of 1998

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

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

2.7 Strategies

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

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

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

2.8 Empirical Review of other Studies

Various other studies related to challenge reduction of child labour in Tanzania have been conducted by various researchers as follows;

Akarro and Mtweve (2011) in their study indicated that poverty is the main cause of child labour. Poor households were more likely to send their children to employing firms compared to well-off households. Other factors which were observed to be significant include gender, marital status of the household heads and family size.

Child labour is a great problem in Tanzania. Sareer (2005), estimated that Tanzania had between 350,000 and 400,000 child labourers in all sectors. The percentage of working children is higher in rural areas than in urban areas whereby 34% of all children from rural areas were engaged in child labour compared to 11% of all children from urban areas. Like other developing countries, a large number of the population in Tanzania is in rural areas and engages in subsistence farming. In this context, children have a defined role and indeed growing up is associated with the gradual acquisition of new specialized task for boys and girls. Work in this manner is regarded as an important part for children socialization (Mlaga, 1995). The advent of plantation economy in the 19th century, industrialization and urbanization later brought the need for paid labour. This commercial trend demanded for cheap and reliable child labour.

Cigno *et al.*; (2002) is of the view that the analogy of the internationally surge in the child labour. Decisions of parent either a child go to work or go to school quite depend on the expense and benefits of education. In the country that begins with the highly illiterate workforce, the globalization enhances the wages rates of uneducated, relative to the educated workers. This contracts the incentives to educate a child and enhance the incentives to develop the child work on the earliest opportunity. In contrast, a country that begins with a comparatively high share of educated workers,

the globalization will raises the rates of wages of the workers related to the of uneducated child.

Mahmood *et al.*; (2005) has been concise that the socioeconomic factors perpetuate the child labour. The case of automobile and engineering, according to them, the majority of the respondents were forced by their parents to work due to financial circumstances. It was further observed that poverty is the major responsible factor for child labour chased by few other reasons like lack of the interest in education, big family sizes and compulsive societal behaviour.

Khan (2003), vehemently analyzed the determinants of child labour particularly where the socioeconomic variable impacts the decision of parents for the children time utilization. The paper was econometric and the primary data was analyzed by using the sequential restrictions model. It was developed that children belonged to rich families and has literate parents were more likely to go to school and less likely to work. The existence of a severe gender gap in child education and many explanatory variables support the notion that parents prefer education of the son as compared to the girls. It was moreover discovered that attendance of the schools are negative and child labour is positively related to the size of household.

Fassa *et al.*; (1999) is of the view that Child Labour may have positive impacts but in some situations it affects negatively on the health and the development of the children. It is core problem in developing countries. However, it is possible to observe the child workers in well developed countries as well, few of them includes in working in hazardous activities. In this study, the researcher revealed the profile of child labour in developed and under develops countries and principal occupations and hazards on it. Additionally, the study concise the epidemiologic evidences of the higher impact of few occupational exposures on the child health while comparing the adults and the theoretical concerns about the effects of the child labour on health.

However, the researcher described the policies that may be used to combat the harmful menace of child labour.

Zarif *et al.*; (2013) almost all the parents shared that they were not educated and were mostly illiterate. They also admitted that their income was too low and could not afford to send their children to school. On top of that, none of the parents were aware of the rights of their children and insisted that the standard of studies and the general environment of schools were not good for their children. Even more so, the number of family members in form of siblings was such that more and more working hands were required to make the ends meet. Therefore, the children were sent to work.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section describes the research design and methodology that was used to collect and analyze the data for the study. Theoretically, research design show how the research was conducted. Research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the collection, measurements and analysis of data. Description of this research design involves the overview of study area, types of research design, types of research methods used in collecting the data, population, sample and sampling and research technique used (data collection techniques). Research design is therefore useful because it helped to provide explanation on what type of data was needed and how was collected. Likewise, it provides answers for the place, sample of the study and how data was analyzed and interpreted (Kothari, 2004).

3.2 Study Area

The investigation covered three wards of administrative division of Ikwiriri of Rufiji district including; Ikwiriri, Mgomba and Umwe wards (Appendix 5). The three wards were chosen to be representative of other wards in the district since they were identified as areas of high child labour concentration. Ikwiriri division being the Centre of business in Rufiji District and having a fully fledged urban informal sector; it turned out to be a migration end-point for people in different parts of the district who sought for better opportunities

3.3 Research Design

The study used a cross-sectional research design to achieve its objectives. Wikipedia (2013) states that cross-sectional studies (also known as Cross-sectional analysis) form a class of research methods that involve observation of some subset of a population of items all at the same time, in which, groups can be compared at different ages with respect of independent variables, such as IQ and memory.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Design

It is important to note that it is difficult to study the entire population as a result of time constraint and limited resources available for effective handling of the study. Therefore, only a portion of the population was studied. The sample population came from three ward that have approximately 32163 according the 2012 census as total of population. To ensure the determination of accurate sample size, the statistical formula derived by Taro Yamane (1964) was employed.

The formula states thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n = sample size

N = population of the study which was 32163

e = margin of error and in this case, e = 10% (chosen by the researcher)

1 = constant

Therefore;

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{32163}{1 + 32163(0.1)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{32163}{1 + 32163(0.01)}$$

$$n = \frac{32163}{1 + 32163(0.01)}$$

$$1 + 321.63$$

$$n = \frac{32163}{322.63}$$

$$n = 100$$

3.5.1 Sampling design

The sampling design is a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population (Kothari, 2004). It refers to the technique or the procedure the researcher would adopt in selecting items for the sample. In this study, the researcher used probability sampling preferably cluster /area sampling technique in selecting a sample size while a non-probability or judgmental sampling procedure was used in order to determine the key informants (Religious leaders/local government officials and leaders and teachers) which required direct intervention of child labour. Cluster sampling technique was used to divide the population into discrete groups prior to sampling according Henry, (1990). Particularly, random sampling was used in selecting samples from wards. A list of all the people like employers, parents/guardians and working children in the Rufiji District.

Sampling was done for the purpose of measuring these elements and making conclusion regarding the entire population according to Cohen *et al.*; (2000). The researcher distributed 100 questionnaires in order to capture the sufficient data.

3.5.2 Sample size

The study sample was made of working children, parents/guardians, employers and key informants (Religious leaders/local government officials and leaders and teachers). Random, purposive and judgmental sampling techniques were used in selecting the respondents. In the first stage, working children were randomly selected. Secondly, key informants, employers and parents/guardians purposively selected from each ward.

The respondents selected were representative. The sample size from the three wards is shown in Table 3.1, Table 3.2 and Table 3.3.

Table 3.1. Sample Size of Respondents from Ikwiriri

s/n	Type of respondents	Actual No of respondents
1	children	10
2	Religious leaders/local government officials and leaders and teachers	12
3	Employer of children	6
4	parents	12
Total		40

Table 3. 2. Sample Size from Umwe ward

s/n	Type of respondents	Actual No of respondents
1	Children	10
2	Religious leaders/local government officials and leaders and teachers	8
3	Employer of children	4
4	Parents	8
Total		30

Table 3. 3. Sample Size from Mgomba ward

s/n	Type of respondents	Actual No of respondents
1	Children	10
2	Religious leaders/local government officials and leaders and teachers	8
3	Employer of children	4
4	Parents	8
Total		30

3.5 Data Collection Techniques

The researcher collected primary and secondary data from various categories of respondents and documentation respectively. For secondary data; the researcher reviewed from dissertations, print media (News Papers and Magazines), reports and books with relevant literature, policy statements, legislation and the internet. Other methods of data collection used included; questionnaires which were used for key sample categories like; child labourers, interview guides for key informants like representatives of various Non Government Organisations (NGO) and government officials, photography, particularly in respect to activities that children are involved and observation.

3.5.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are the main instrument used in the study and were distributed to the employers who employed children and key informants. The questions prepared in a logical sequence in order to address the research objectives and are open ended which allowed the respondents give a wider view about their understanding of the study problem. The method was used because it targeted a wider group of respondents, it eliminated bias, and most importantly, the researcher was able to get the information needed to avoid misinterpretations of the questions, the researcher translated some questions for the respondents to avoid inaccuracy.

3.5.2 Interviews

This method was employed to collect information from working children and parents/guardians in Rufiji District. The interviews were managed to collect the information about the types of work done by the children and amount earn per day. Interview questions for employers as in Appendix 1, working children (Appendix 2), key informants (Appendix 3) and parents/guardians (Appendix 4).

3.5.3 Observation

Observation as a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or event as it takes place (Ranjit, 2008). Due to the nature of the study, the researcher deemed it important to use the observation method to ease the work of data collection. Some information that was not revealed by the respondents

was obtained through observation. Particular attention was paid to the time and kinds of activities the children engaged.

3.7 Reliability and validity of data

3.7.1 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which a tool for data collection such as questionnaire, test observation or any other measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials (Allen and Yen, 1979). In reliability there is consistent of scores over time when has been recorded. The results should be equal and consistent with the questions asked in the certain situation. In the current study, different questions were constructed cutting across the designed objectives, hence the reliability of data to be collected. The study ensured that all respondents took the study reliable for its findings to be obtained. Data collected were reliable because the instruments used in data collection as stated above were tested before the actual survey.

3.7.2 Validity

According to Kimberlin and Wintersterin, (2005) Validity is the extent in which the instruments measures what it intend to measure in the study. The study accumulated the valid data due to the desired results. The concept of validity therefore is relevant when there is a correct procedure applied to find answer to the questions (Catherine, 2002). The validity of data collection tools was assured by accommodating comments from supervisor, administration of tools by the researcher face to face and testing of some tool before the actual data collection. Testing of data collection tools was done in order to test their validity in the study area as a pilot study before the actual survey.

3.8 Data Processing and Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used and applied in processing the data to be collected. Qualitative procedure involved factual and logical interpretation of the findings through interviews, observation and documents reviews. The quantitative procedure was involved by obtaining the findings through questionnaires and processed. Data were edited, coded, classified and tabulated with a view of

reducing it to manageable proportions. SPSS computer software was employed to analyze data and interpretation in order to draw conclusions.

3.9 Ethical issues and limitations of the Study

3.9.1 Ethical issues of the Study

An introduction letter from the Department of Development Policy, Mzumbe University was obtained. This letter was distributed to the government offices from which information was obtained.

Also the permission was sought from respondents and explained to them the purpose of the research and its significance to the areas of study. Also encouraged them to help with the answering of the questions. The response of respondents was treated as confidential.

3.9.2 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study were time and financial resource constraints. The limitation or challenge during field work was inadequate resources such as time and money. The data collection period (two and half months) was quite a short period to collect all the necessary information I needed because of the constant disappointment of having interview date with some government officials with busy schedule and the reschedule of several interview appointments with these officials.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

This section presents the results on the understanding about child labour, causes of child labour and types of child labour in Ikwiriri division, Rufiji District.

4.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic characteristics include the information about sex, age, household size, size of the homestead of the respondents (Table, 4.1).

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.

Sex of respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Male	22	73.33
Female	8	26.67
Age of respondents		
5 to 6 years	3	10
7 to 11 years	9	30
12 to 17 years	18	60
Size of the Family of the Respondents		
2	4	13.33
(3-5)	11	36.67
More than 5	15	50
Size of the Homestead of the Respondents		
2 people and less	5	16.67
3-5 people	12	40
More than 5 people	13	43.33

4.1.1 Sex of Respondents (Working Children)

The total number of children that were interviewed in Ikwiriri division was 30. Out of these, 22 (73.33%) of the children were boys while 8(26.67%) were girls as shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1

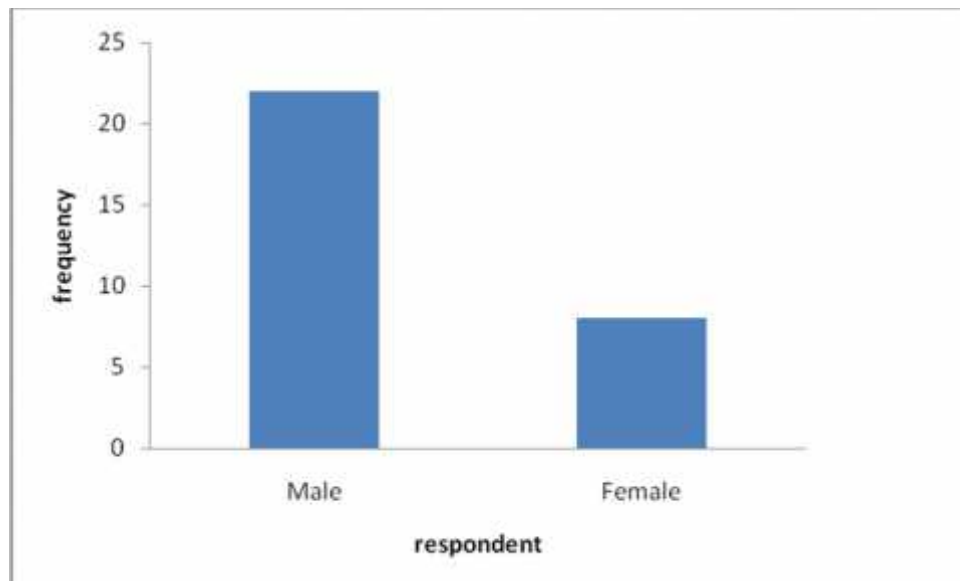


Figure 4.1: Sex of respondents (working children)

4.1.2 Age of the Respondents

Out of the thirty (30) respondents (working children), 18 (60%) were working children aged 12 to 18 years. The respondents between the ages of 7 to 11 years were 9 (30%), while those of children from 5 to 6 years were 3 (10%) as shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2.

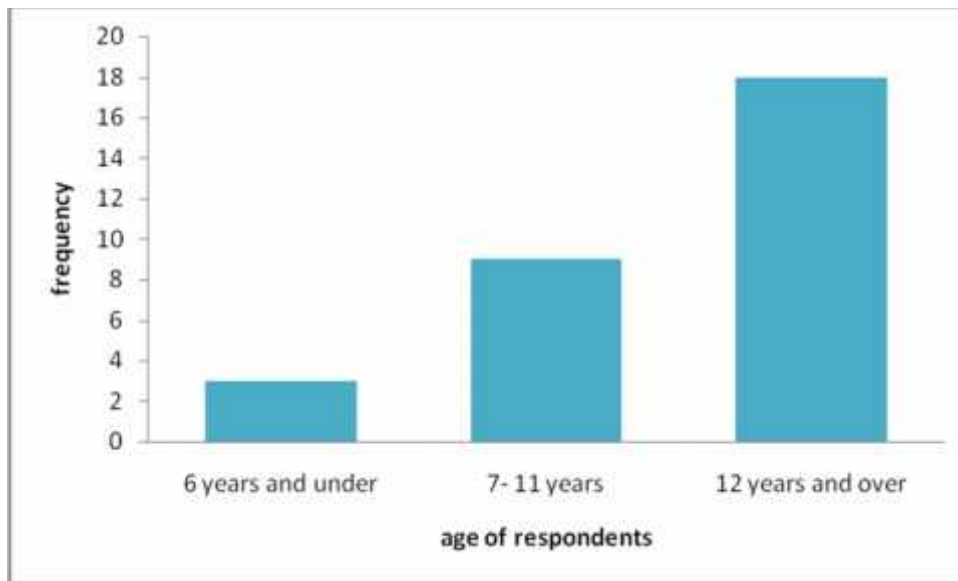


Figure 4.2: Age of respondents

4.1.3 Size of the Family of the Respondents

A total of 30 respondents were interviewed regarding the size of their families. Out of these, the families with less than 2 children were 4 (13.33%), with 3 to 5 children were 11 (36.67%) and those with more than 5 children were 15 (50.0%) as shown Table 4.1 and Figure 4.3.

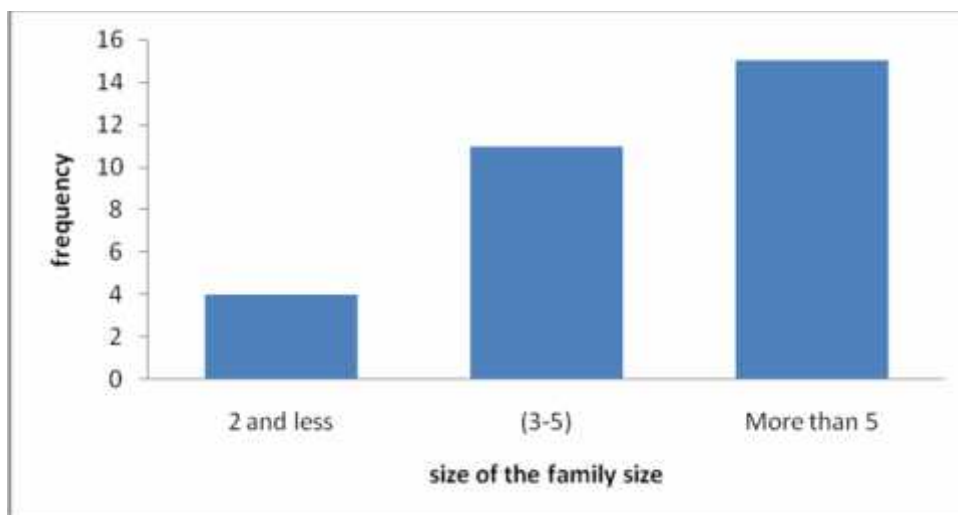


Figure 4.3: size of the family size

4.1.4 Size of the Homestead of the Respondents

The size of the family (persons living in the respondents' homestead) was determined as to whether the children worked or not. Out of 30 respondents, 5 (16.67%) responded (less than 2 persons were working), followed by 12 (40%) respondents with (3 - 5 persons working) and 13 (43.33%) (More than 5 persons working) as shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.4.

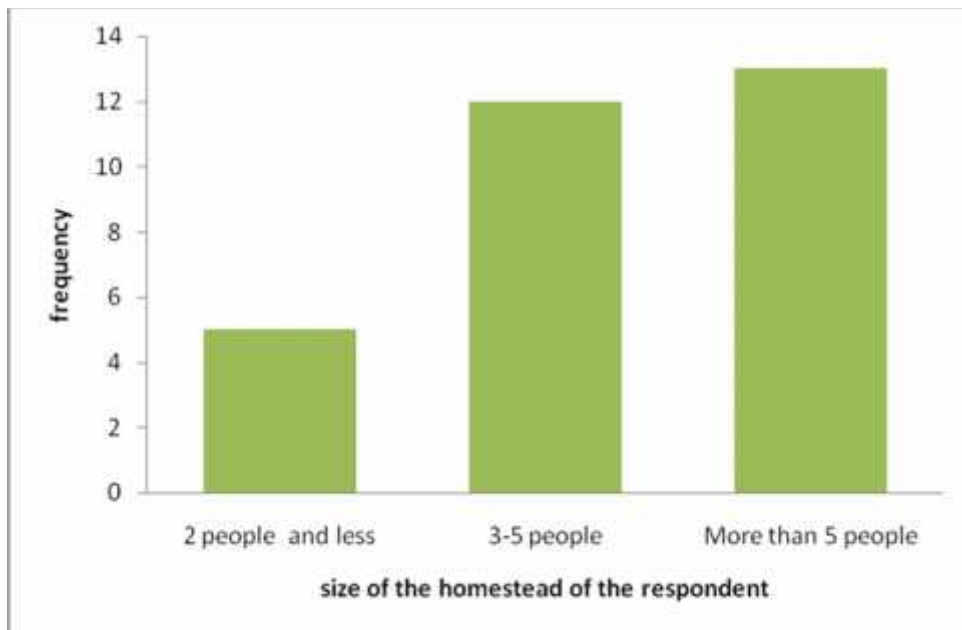


Figure 4.4 size of the homestead of the respondents



Figure 4.5: Type of activities done by children



Figure 4.6: Children selling merchandised products

4.3 School Attendance by the Respondents

A total of 30 children workers were interviewed, 5 (16.67%) of the respondents (working children) responded that they were registered to school and were attending classes once or twice a week, 8 (26.66%) of respondents attended classes three times a week while 12 (40%) were not attending classes as shown in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.7.

Table 4.2 Level of School Attendance by the Respondents (Working Children)

Level of school attendance	Frequency	Percentage
Every day	5	16.67
Once or twice	5	16.67
Three times	8	26.66
None	12	40
Total	30	100

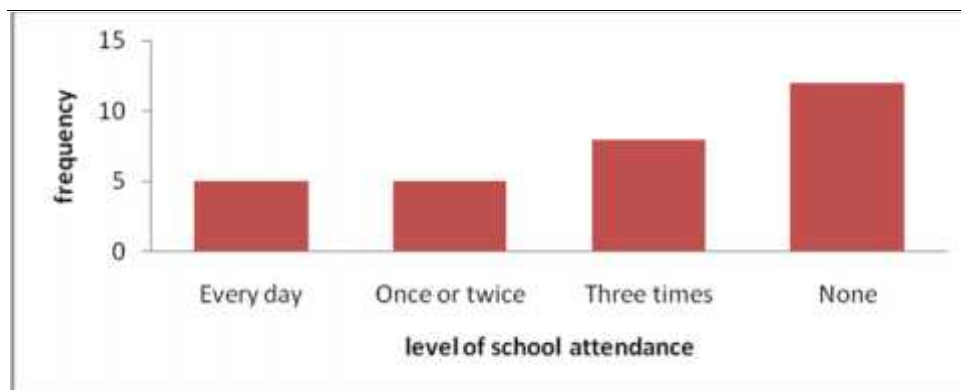


Figure 4.7: Level of school attendance

4.4 Reasons for Missing School

The children gave different reasons as to why they were not in school at the time interview. The reasons they gave was lack of school fee, the lack of scholastic materials, orphan hood, lack of interest to study, being mistreatment by care takers and children who responded to be employed were 10 (33.33%) whose parents cannot afford school fees were 8 (26.67%) , lack of scholastic materials were 5 (16.67) , orphan were 2 (6.66%) , not interested in studying were 1 (0.33%) , high transport costs was 1 (0.33%), refused to study 1 (0.33%) and attend next week 1 (0.33%) as shown in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.8.

Table 4.3 Reasons as to why Children do not Attend School

Reasons for not attend to school	Frequency	Percentage
Lack school fees	8	26.67
Lack scholastic materials	5	16.67
Employed	10	33.33
Orphan hood	2	6.66
Not interested in studying	1	0.33
Went to school and came back	1	0.33
Transport costs are high	1	0.33
My parents told me I will attend next week	1	0.33
They refused me to study	1	0.33
Total	30	100

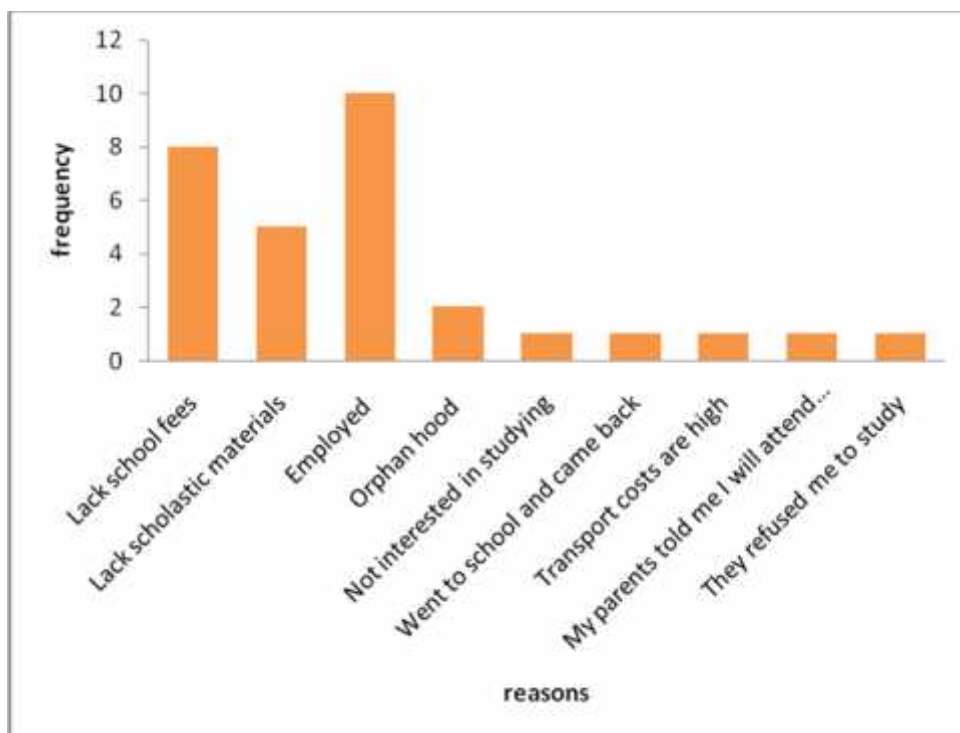


Figure4. 8 reasons why did not attend to school

4.5 Daily Earnings through Child Labour

The children who participated in various economic activities had payment between Tsh. 1000 -3000 per day. The children whose payment was Tsh. 1000 – 1500 were

10 (33.33%), Tsh. 2000 – 2500 were 15 (50.0%) and Tsh.3000 and above were 5 (16.67%) as shown in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.9.

Table 4.4: Amount Earned by the Working Children

Amount earned per day	Frequency	Percentage
Tshs 1000-1500	10	33.33
Tshs 2000-2500	15	50
Tshs 3000 and above	5	16.67
Total	30	100

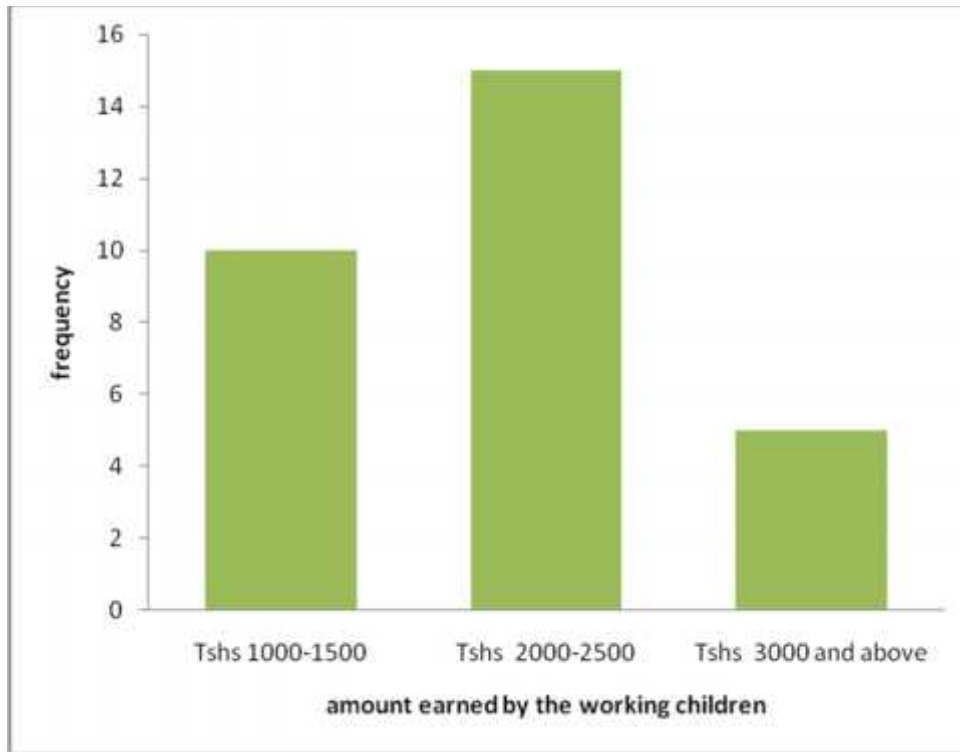


Figure 4.9: Amount earned by the working children

4.6 To determine the understanding of parents about child labour

4.6.1 Awareness about child labour for parents/guardians

A total of 28 respondents were interviewed, out of these the 8 (28.57%) respondents understood about child labour and 20 (71.43%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division as shown in Table 4.5 and figure 4.10.

Table 4.5 Awareness about child labour for parents/guardians

Response	Frequency	Percentage
YES	8	28.57
NO	20	71.43
Total	28	100

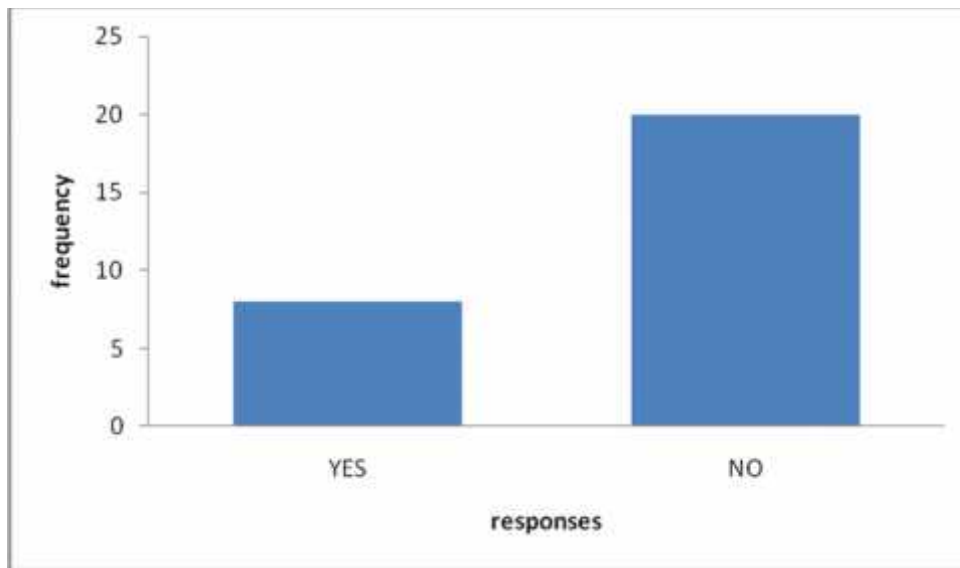


Figure 4.10 Awareness about child labour for parents/guardians

4.6.2 Sources of income of parents/guardians

A total of 28 respondents were interviewed, out of these 17 (60.71%) had source of income from agriculture, 6 (21.43%) respondents was from business, 3 (10.71%) respondents were food vendor and 1 (3.57%) respondent was wood charcoal and industry labourer as shown in Table 4.6 and Figure 11.

Table 4.6 Sources of income of parents/guardians

Source of income of parents/guardians	Frequency	Percentage
Business	6	21.43
Food vendor	3	10.71
Agriculture	17	60.71
wood charcoal	1	3.57
industry labourer	1	3.57
Total	28	100

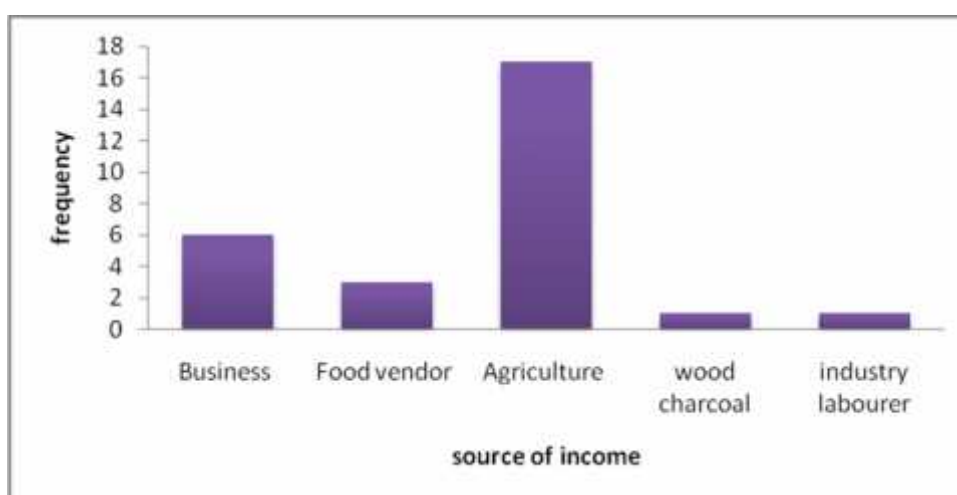


Figure 4. 11: Source of income of parents/guardians

4.6.3 Awareness about child labour as per key informants

The total of 28 respondents from key informants were interviewed about awareness on child labour, out of these 21 (75%) respondents accepted that they understood about child labour and 7 (25%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division as shown in Table 4.7 and Figure 12.

Table 4.7 Awareness about child labour as per key informants

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	21	75
No	7	25
Total	28	100

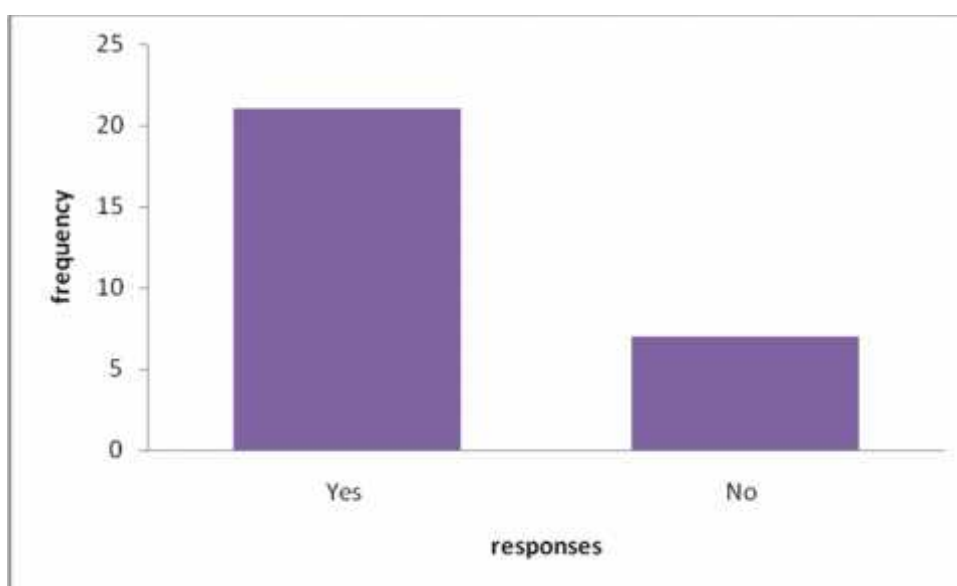


Figure 4. 12 Awareness about child labour as per key informants

4.6.4 Awareness about child labour for employers employed children.

The aim of this part in the study was to know the awareness about child labour from the employers employed children. A total of 14 respondents were interviewed, out of these 10 (71.42%) respondents accepted that they understood about child labour and 4 (28.59%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division as shown in Table 4.8 and Figure 4.13.

Table 4.8 Awareness about child labour for employers employed children

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	10	71.42
No	4	28.59

Total	14	100
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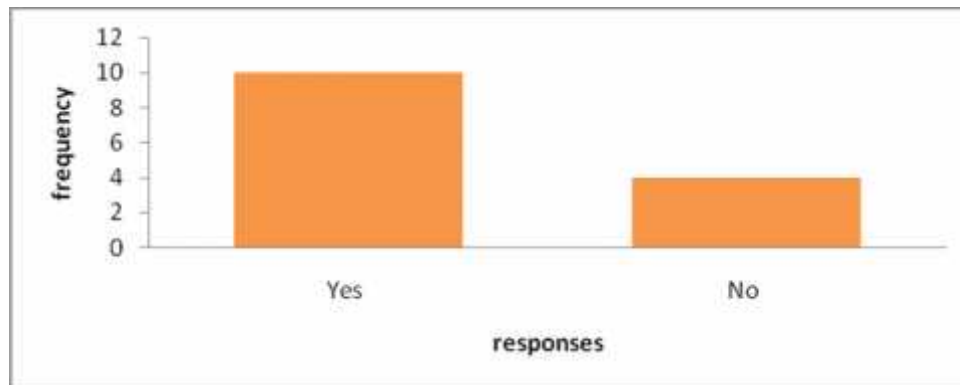


Figure 4.13: Awareness for employers

4.7 The causes of child labour

Parents/guardians and employer were asked the causes of child labour in the study area. A total of 28 respondents (parents/guardians) were interviewed. Out of these 14 (50.0%) responded to due to poverty, 5 (17.85%) due to cultural beliefs, 4 (14.28%) due to lack of education, 3 (10.71%) due to inaccessibility of school and 2 (7.14%) for skill acquisition as shown in table 4.9 and figure 4.14. At the same time a total of 14 employers were interviewed, out of these 8 (57.14%) responded that they employed children because they demand low payment, 3 (21.42%) responded that children for skill acquisition, 2 (14.28%) responded that they were helping poor families and 1 (7.14%) responded that they can work long hours as shown in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.15.

Table 4.9 causes of child labour parents/guardians

Reasons by parents	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of quality education	4	14.28
Inaccessibility of schools	3	10.71
Cultural role/tradition	5	17.85
Skill acquisition	2	7.14
Poverty	14	50

Total	28	100
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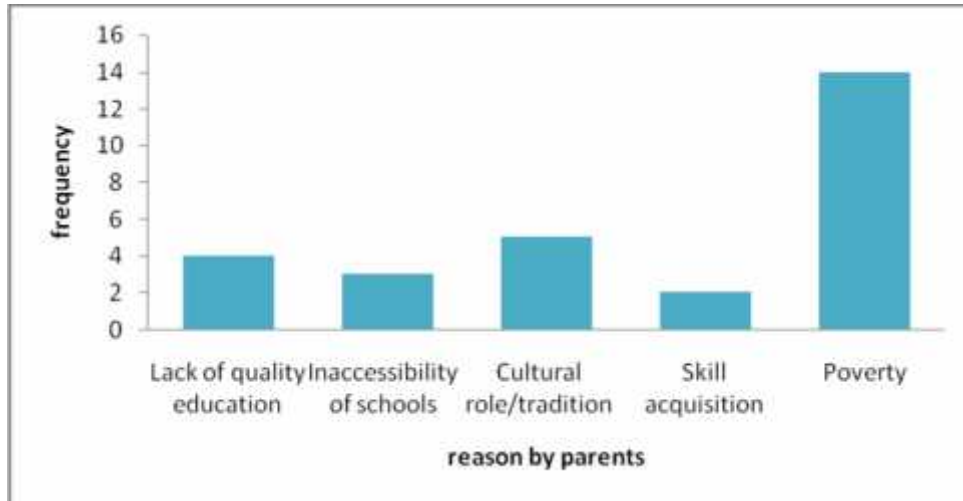


Figure 4.14 Reasons by parents for children being employed

Table 4.10: Causes of child labour by employer

Reason by employer	Frequency	Percentage
Skill acquisition	3	21.42
Low payment	8	57.14
Helping poor families	2	14.28
Long hours work	1	7.14
Total	14	100

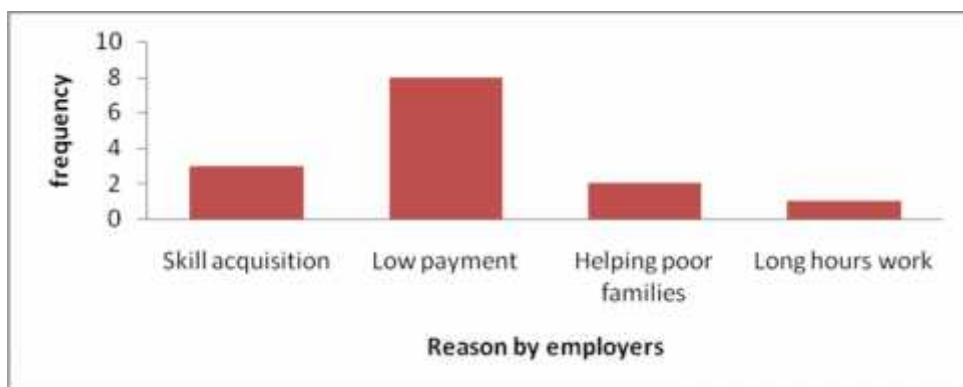


Figure 4.15 Reasons by employer for employing children

4.8 Types of child labour in Rufiji district

The types of child labour in which children are engaged include; cooking, washing and watching cars, scavenging (collecting scrap), carrying luggage, selling merchandise and other small items, fetching and selling water, begging, cleaning. A total of 30 children were interviewed. Out of these 11 (36.67%) were selling different merchandise, 5 (16.67%) were engaged in cooking, 4 (13.33%) engaged in collecting scrap, 3 (10.0%) washing cars, 2 (6.67%) cleaning and begging, 1 (0.33%) carrying luggage and 2 (6.67%) others activities as shown in Table 4.11, Figure 4.5, Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.16.

Table: 4.11 Activities/types in which Children Engaged

Activities done by children	Frequency	Percentage
Selling merchandise	11	36.67
Cooking	5	16.67
Collecting scrap	4	13.33
Washing cars	3	10
Cleaning	2	6.67
Begging	2	6.67
Others	2	6.67
Total	30	100

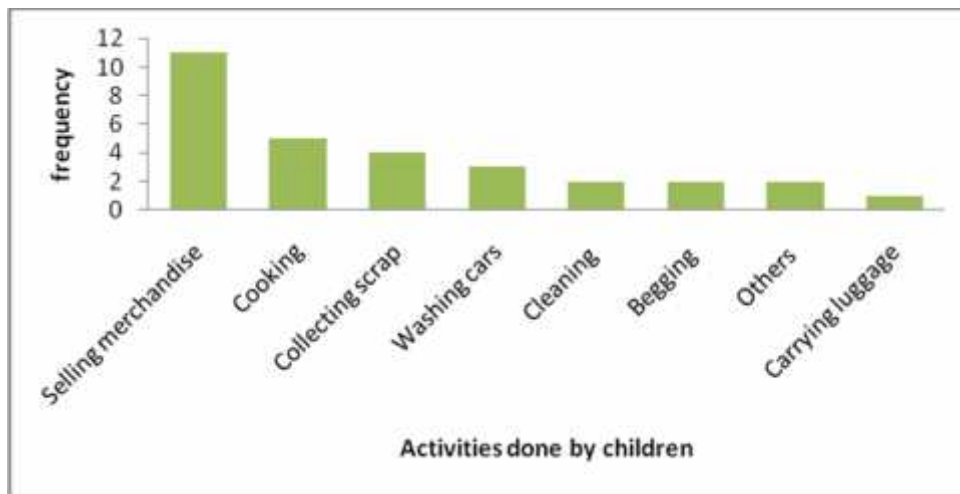


Figure 4.16 Activities done by children

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This section is written based on the findings obtained from the questionnaires, interviews and observation from the working children, children employers, parents and key informants (ward leaders and village leaders) from Ikwiriri division Rufiji district. Generally, the study intended to assess the challenges toward the reduction of child labour in Tanzania.

5.1 Sex of Respondents (Working Children)

The total number of children that were interviewed in the Ikwiriri division was 30. The results showed that out of the 30 respondents, 22 (73.33%) of the children were boys while 8 (26.67%) represented the girls. This means that boys were engaged more in child labour compared to girls because of the cultural belief of the people livings in Rufiji which give more opportunity to boys rather than girls. This is agrees with a survey in Tanzania known as Child Labour- Integrated Labour Force Survey (2006) which reported that more than half of the children engaged in economic activities are males.

5.2 Age of the Respondents

Out of the thirty (30) respondents (working children), 18 (60%) were working children aged 12 to 17 years. Accordingly, the percentage of respondents between the ages of 7 to 11 years was 9 (30%), while that of children from 5 to 6 years was 3 (10%). This shows that children aged 12 to 17 years were a group which engaged much on child labour. Therefore, according the policy of the country this is the age group of children required to go to schools. But in this study, it has been shown that children of this age are working.

5.3 Size of the Family of the Respondents

The percentage of respondents (children in child labour) was 15 (50%) for children with more than five siblings, 11 (36.67%) for children with 3 to 5 and the percentage for children with two and less siblings. Household size is an important determining factor of children's labour activities and educational opportunities. This is because families with larger number of children are more likely to give their children to work in order to earn income for the family. In the present study, it is shown that the family sizes of more than 5 sibling/children were more involved in child labour. This result agrees with Similer *et al.*; (2004) who reported that, there is an association between household size and poverty. Similarly, Patrinos and Psacharopolous (1997) reported there is a positive relationship between a large number of siblings and child development.

5.4 Size of the Homestead of the Respondents

The size of the family (persons living in the respondents' homestead) also determine the number of children working or not. In this study, it is shown that 5 (16.67%) respondents (2 persons or less) was the least percentage number of people in a homestead. This was followed by 12 (40%) respondents (3 to 5 persons) and 13 (43.33%) (More than 5 persons). In this study, it shows that, the biggest family with homesteads is more than 5 persons. This result contravene with the results by Household Budget Survey (2000) which reported that homestead average in rural areas were 4.4 persons.

5.5 School Attendance by the Respondents

In this study, it is shown that only 5 (16.672%) of the respondents (working children) attended school on a daily basis, the same percentage that applied to children who attended at least once or twice a week. Children who attended thrice a week comprised 8 (26.66%) overall, with 12 (40%) not attending school at all. In this study, it is shown that most of children did not attend to school. This contravenes with Tanzania government which has adapted and implemented various educational policies, and made education compulsory up to a certain age for all children. However, school attendance is a persistent problem and school dropout rates are high while the child labour is also growing strongly. This agrees with a survey done known as Child Labour-Integrated Labour Force Survey (2006) which reported that, it is estimated that there are children aged 5-17 years who do not attend school in Tanzania, majority of whom are based in the rural areas where they comprise 86% of all children not attending school. Basumatary (2012) reported that in India many organizations have been promoting education for all children, however, there have been high rate of school dropouts in India, because of poor economic conditions. Ahmad (2012) carried out a research in Aligarh city of Uttar Pradesh in India, where he assumes that poor children under the age of fourteen years are obliged to work in different sector. This implied that the students needed to go to school every day due to the education policy of Tanzania so this made difficult to reduce child labour because most of children did not go to school.

5.6 Reasons for Missing School

The children gave different reasons as to why they were not in school at the time of interview. The reasons they gave was lack of school fee, the lack of scholastic materials, orphan hood, lack of interest to study, being mistreatment by care takers and children who responded to be employed were 10 (33.33%), whose parents cannot afford school fees were 8 (26.67%) , lack of scholastic materials were 5 (16.67), orphan were 2 (6.66%), not interested in studying were 1 (0.33%), high transport costs was 1 (0.33%), refused to study 1 (0.33%) and attend next week 1 (0.33%). In this study, it is shown that most of the children who did not attend to school were the working children employed. This correspond with a study done by

Shikdar *et al.*; (2013) who found evidence that in Bangladesh more than 30 percent people live in extreme poverty. These families are deprived of their basic needs, and their life conditions are very poor. Many families cannot adequately fulfill their basic needs; meanwhile parents oblige children to engage in risky jobs at an early age. The numbers of child labour is increasing in Bangladesh, due to family condition which can have an adverse influence on children's education with about 50% of primary school children drops out before they complete their fifth grade. Young, (2009) reported that in Cambodia most children have access to basic education but still combine school and work, due to poverty.

5.7 Daily Earnings through Child Labour

The children who participated in various economic activities earned not more than Tshs.3000 and above were 5 (16.67%). Those who earned between Tshs.2000 and Tsh.2500 were 50% comprising the biggest percentage. This was followed by those who earned between Tshs.1000 and Tshs.1500 with 33.33%. Therefore, in study it is shown that most of the working children were paid between Tsh. 2000 and Tsh.2500. This study contravene with the survey done known as Child Labour-Integrated Labour Force Survey (2006) reported that the working children were receiving their income in cash, some on daily basis, some weekly and some monthly depending upon the type of work they were doing. Quality of work, experience and skill were the criteria which determine the wages, responded majority of the child labourers, their parents as well as the employers interviewed.

5.8 To determine the understanding of parents about child labour

5.8.1 Awareness about Child Labour for Parents/Guardians

A total of 28 respondents interviewed, the results indicated that 8 (28.57%) respondents accepted that they understood about child labour and 20 (71.43%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division. They admitted that their income was too low and could not afford to send their children to school. On top of that, most of the parents were not aware of the rights of their children and insisted that the standard of studies and the general environment of schools were not good for their children. The number of family members in form of siblings was such

that more and more working hands were required to make the ends meet. Therefore, the children were sent to work.

5.8.2 Sources of income of parents/guardians

A total of 28 respondents were interviewed, out of these 17 (60.71%) their source of income was agriculture, 6 (21.43%) respondents the source of income was business, 3 (10.71%) respondents were food vendor and 1 (3.57%) respondent was wood charcoal and industry labourer. This implies that most of the parents/guardians their source of income depends much on agricultures this led their children to work. Therefore, the challenge of reducing child labour was high because most of the parents were not aware of the issue of child labour.

5.8.3 Awareness about child labour as per key informants

The total of 28 respondents from key informants were interviewed about awareness on child labour. The results indicated that 21 (75%) respondents accepted that they understood about child labour and 7 (25%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division. Therefore, the results of the key informants showed that majority were not aware about child labour. As results this made difficult to reduce the incidence of child labour in Tanzania particularly in Ikwiriri division, Rufiji district.

5.8.4 Awareness about child labour for employers employed children.

The researcher also wanted to know the awareness about child labour from the employers employed children. A total of 14 respondents were interviewed, the results indicated that 10 (71.42%) respondents accepted that they understood about child labour and 4 (28.59%) respondents did not understand about child labour in Ikwiriri division. Therefore, there is a challenge to reduce child labour because even those who are aware about child labour they never implement to reduce the incidence/ case of child labour. For the time being the employers were the main stakeholders to reduce child labour in our place of works.

5.9 The causes of child labour

Parents/guardians and employer were asked the causes of child labour in the study area. A total of 28 respondents (parents/guardians) were interviewed. Out of these 14 (50.0%) responded that the cause of child labour is due to poverty, 5 (17.85%) due to cultural beliefs, 4 (14.28%) due to lack of education, 3 (10.71%) due to inaccessibility of school and 2 (7.14%) for skill acquisition. At the same time a total of 14 employers were interviewed, out of these 8 (57.14%) responded that they employed children because they demand low payment, 3 (21.42%) responded that children are for skill acquisition, 2 (14.28%) responded that they were helping poor families and 1 (7.14%) responded that they can work long hours. In the present study, it shows that poverty is main cause of child labour in Rufiji district. Poverty in childhood is much more likely to have long-term impacts on the future of the child. In many instances, working children represent a plentiful source of cheap labour. The prevalence of child labour in agriculture undermines decent work for adults, sustainable agriculture and food security as it maintains a cycle where household income for both farmers and waged workers is insufficient to meet their economic needs. Children who have lost their fathers are more likely to be poor than those who have not (World Bank, 2003; Ahmed *et al.*; 2007). Many children need to work for hours to raise money for their schooling and supplement household income. The incidence of poverty has caused children to work for their survival and many parents depend on their children's work even if they know it is wrong (ILO, 2010). To effectively tackle and curb child labour, the incidence of rural poverty should not be overlooked.

5.10 The types of child labour in Rufiji district

The types of child labour engaged in Rufiji district included; cooking, washing and watching cars, scavenging (collecting scrap), carrying luggage, selling merchandise and other small items, fetching and selling water, begging, cleaning, prostitution, salon services and weighting. According to the findings, most children engaged in selling different merchandise, totalling to 11(36.67%). This was followed by children who engaged in cooking 5(16.67%), collecting scrap 4(13.33%), washing cars

3(10%), cleaning and begging and others activities 2(6.67%) each and carrying luggage 1 (0.33%). In the present study, it is shown that children were engaged more in selling different merchandise. This results contravene with the Child Labour-Integrated Labour Force Survey (2006) but this corresponds with research done by Kabasiita (2009) who reported that children were involved in work in the market place, collecting and selling scrap, the children were involved in domestic work while were either working in a factory or an industry.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

Child labour is a serious problem not only in Tanzania but also around the world. In this study, boys and girls were found engaging in different activities such as; cooking, washing and watching cars, scavenging (collecting scrap), carrying luggage, selling merchandise and other small items, fetching and selling water, begging, cleaning, prostitution, salon services and weighting.

Different reasons were found to be contributing to child labour. These were education problems where children drop out of school to engage in child labour, poor health facilities that lead to death of parents and thus leave orphan children to feed themselves through child labour. Other reasons included matrimonial problems such as divorce, separation, polygamous marriages which result in big families, difficult to manage and single motherhood. Reasons such as inadequacy of labour law, socialization of children and lack of political will were also found to contribute to the problem of child labour. In trying to fight against child labour there are programmes initiated by the ILO/IPEC through the government, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the non-government organisation.

Child labour is found to have social effects on children, for example on their education. Children work at the expense of attending school or do not enrol for school at all. The health of these children is affected as they work in hazardous environment, often over long hours. Children are economically exploited because they are not paid wages or they are paid low wages and work in exploitative relationship with adults.

Child labour is violation of International and regional human rights instruments on the rights of children. These rights include the right to education, the right to the highest standard of health and the right to be protected from economic exploitation.

6.2 Recommendations

To conclude and address the problem of child labour the study has come up with some recommendations. These include:-

- a) Awareness rising on the scourge of child labour. There is need to raise awareness about child labour matters among the children. Most of these children don't know that their rights are being violated. Schools should be visited regularly so that they are sensitised. Use of the mass media to hi-light these grave misfortunes, educational materials, music, dance & drama are among the activities that should be adopted if we are to address this global problem
- b) Establishment of child labour programme in Rufiji district. The Parents and guardians should urgently intervene and get involved in programmes that aimed at mapping out their children's future. They need to collectively come out and speak against child labour and all its worst forms.

6.4 Further research

There is absolutely every need to build a research and compilation database. It should be continuously and periodically updated to address issues related to child labour. With support of all major key stakeholders and other related stakeholders like the central government, districts, NGOs and the community, domestic labour should be dealt with.

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APPENDIX 1. INTERVIEW FOR EMPLOYERS

Interview Schedules

I. Producers Interview Schedules

Make brief introduction before starting any question, introduce yourself to the employers, greet them in and make clear the objective of the study.

Please fill the interview schedule according to the employer reply (do not put your own feeling).

Please ask each question clearly and patiently until the employer gets your points.

Please do not use technical terms.

During the process write answers on the space provided.

Prove that all the questions are asked and the interview schedule format is properly completed.

1. Name

2. Sex

a). Male

b). Female

1. What your age.....

2. Religion.....

3. Occupation.....

4. Name of your enterprises

5. What your marital status?

a). Single

b). married

c). widowed

d). divorced

6. What your educational level?

7. Do you understanding what is child labour? Yes, no

8. If yes, what is child labour

.....

.....

9. Do you have children working in your factory/industry? Yes, no

10. If yes, what age of employment?

.....

11. What types of works they do in your enterprises?

.....
.....
.....

12. What types of condition of employment:-

- a). Daily
- b). Permanent
- c). Temporarily

13. Why do you employ children rather than adults?

.....
.....
.....
.....

14. How much do you pay the employed children

- a). Daily basis
- b). Permanent basis
- c). Per week
- d). Per hours basis

15. How many hours' children work in your enterprises?

.....
.....

Thank you

APPENDIX 2. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR WORKING CHILDREN

1. Name
2. Sex
 - a) Male
 - b) Female
3. What your age.....
4. Religion.....
5. Occupation.....
6. What your marital status?
 - a). Singe
 - b). married
 - c). widowed
 - d). divorced
7. What your educational level?.....
8. Are your parents living?
 - a). Both alive
 - b). Both deceased
 - c). Only Father alive
 - d). Only Mother alive
 - e). Don't know
9. Do you go to school? Yes No
10. If no, reasons for not attending school:
 - a). School too far
 - b). High cost for scholastic materials
 - c). Under age
 - d). Working
 - e). Sick/Disabled
 - f). Other
11. Whom do you live with?
 - a). Immediate family

- b). Relative Adult
- c). Non Relative Adult
- d). Family Friend
- e). Live alone

12. Who is the head of the family you are currently living with?

- a). Myself
- b). Mother
- c). Father
- d). Grand Parent
- e). Guardian
- f). Employer
- g). Other

13. Occupation of your parents/guardian?

14. Do you work? Yes, no

15. If yes, what do you do?

- a). Market Vendor
- b). Collecting & selling scrap
- c). Domestic Worker
- d). Work in a Factory/Industry
- e). Prostitution
- f). Other (mention)

16. What types of work do you?

.....

17. How many hours do you work?

.....

18. How long has been did you work in this informal sector?

.....

19. What your salary?

20. Why do you work?

.....

Thank you

APPENDIX 3. INTERVIEW FOR KEY INFORMANTS

Interview Schedules

I. Producers Interview Schedules

Make brief introduction before starting any question, introduce yourself to the key informants, greet them in and make clear the objective of the study.

Please fill the interview schedule according to the key informants reply (do not put your own feeling).

Please ask each question clearly and patiently until the key informants gets your points.

Please do not use technical terms.

During the process write answers on the space provided.

Prove that all the questions are asked and the interview schedule format is properly completed.

1. Name
2. Sex
 - a). Male
 - b). Female
3. What your age.....
4. Religion.....
5. Occupation.....
6. What your marital status?
 - a). Single
 - b). married
 - c). widowed
 - d). divorced
7. What your educational level?
8. Do you understanding what is child labour? Yes, no
9. If yes, what is child labour?

.....
.....

10. Does child labour exist in your area of administration? Yes, no

11. If yes, what are causes child labour?

.....
.....
.....

12. What are the types of child labour exist in your area?

.....
.....
.....

Thank You!

APPENDIX 4 QUESTIONNIARE FOR PARENTS/ GUARDIAN

1. Name
2. Sex
 - a). Male
 - b). Female
3. What your age.....
4. Religion.....
5. Occupation.....
6. What your marital status?
 - a). Singe
 - b). married
 - c). widowed
 - d). divorced
7. What your educational level?
8. How many children do you have?
9. What it's their sex and age?
.....
.....
10. Who support the family?
11. What his/her age?
12. What activities does he/she do to get money to support the family?
.....
.....
13. Are they studying? Yes, no
14. What are your sources of income?
15. Have you ever heard anything about child labour?
 - a). Yes
 - b). no
16. If yes, what understanding the word child labour?
.....
.....

Tank you

APPENDIX 5. THREE WARDS WHERE THIS STUDY WAS CARRIED OUT

