

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION (ILO)

INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME ON THE ELIMINATION OF CHILD LABOUR (IPEC)

**SKILLS TRAINING STRATEGIES TO COMBAT WORST
FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR IN THE URBAN
INFORMAL SECTOR**

TANZANIA COUNTRY PAPER

BY

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ATE	- Association of Tanzania Employers
AIDS	- Acquire Immunodeficiency Syndrome
BEMP	- Basis Education Master Plan
COBET	- Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
CHODAWU	- Conservation, Hotels, Domestic and Allied Workers Union
DANIDA	- Danish International Development Agency
DISS	- Dar es Salaam Informal Sector Survey
ESAP	- Economic and Social Action Programme
ER	- Enrolment Rate
ERP	- Economic Recovery Programme
ESAP	- Economic and Social Action Programme
FDCs	- Folk Development Centers
GTZ	- Gesellschaft for Technische Zusammenarbeit
HBS	- Household Budget Survey
HIV	- Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HIPC	- Highly Indebted Poor Countries
ILFCLS	- Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey
ILFS	- Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	- International Labour Organization
IMF	- International Monetary Fund
IPEC	- International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
IS	- Informal sector
JAP	- Jobs for Africa Programme
JICA	- Japan International Cooperation Agency
KIWOHEDE	- Kiota Women's Health and Development Organization
LFS	- Labour Force Survey
MIT	- Ministry of Industries and Trade
MOEC	- Ministry of Education and Culture
MOLYD	- Ministry of Labour Youth Development
MSE	- Micro and Small Enterprises
NEP	- National Employment Policy
NESP	- National Economic Survival Programme
NGOs	- Non-Governmental Organizations
NISS	- National Informal Sector Survey
NMFP	- National Micro Finance Policy
NVTD	- National Vocational Training Division
NVTTC	- National Vocational Teachers Training College
OTTU	- Organizational of Tanzania Trade Unions
PEDP	- Primary Education Development Plan
PPTCs	- Post Primary Technical Colleges
RPFB	- Rolling Plan and Forward Budget
RVTSC	- Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres
SAP	- Structural Adjustment Programme
SAP I & II	- Strategic Action Plans
SIDA	- Swedish International Development Agency

SIDO	- Small Industries Development Organizations
SIDP	- Sustainable Industrial Development Policy
SIMPOC	- Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
SMEDP	- Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy
TACs	- Trade Advisory Committees
TPAWU	- Tanzania Plantations and Allied Workers Union
TUCTA	- Trade Union Confederation of Tanzania
UPATU	- Informal Saving and Credit Associations
VCT	- Vocational Training Centre
VET	- Vocational Education Training
VETA	- Vocational and Education Training Authority
VRTCs	- Vocational Rehabilitation Training Centres
UPE	- Universal Primary Education
URT	- United Republic of Tanzania
WFCL	- Worst Forms of Child Labour

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 2000/01 ILFS reveals that, in Tanzania Mainland out of a total labour force of 17,827,578; 16 percent (2,802,858) was employed in the informal sector. The same survey also reveals that there were 11,965,145 children aged 5-17 years. Out of them 4,735,528 or 39.6 percent were working children and 416,066 or 8.8 percent were working in the urban informal sector.

The majority 51.7 of working children in the informal sector were females and formed the majority in all age groups. As far as the education of status of the working children were concerned the majority 61.4 percent had not completed their primary school education; that is, they were either never enrolled, primary school dropouts, pre-primary school pupils or primary school pupils. On the activities they were engaged in, the majority (57.8 percent) were engaged in agriculture/fishing industry, followed by 23.9 percent who were engaged in personal services industry. A similar pattern was observed by gender. As far as the employment status of working children were concerned the majority, (about two thirds) were self-employed, while the remaining were either employed by others or worked in their household enterprises. For the workers the majority (72 percent) were paid workers while the remaining were unpaid workers.

Although the informal sector (IS) provides employment and income to a substantial number of Tanzanians, there is no policy paper solely geared towards the development of the sector. In 1995 there was a draft of a policy for the sector, which was never adopted. At present there are four policy papers that mention the sector. These are the National Employment Policy (NEP) of 1997, The Sustainable Industrial Development Policy (SIDP) for 1996 to 2020, the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy (SMEDP) of 2003 and the National Micro Finance Policy (NMFP).

Since independence the Tanzania development theory and practice have been geared towards combating ignorance, disease and poverty. Investments in human capital and provision of education have been recognized as central to quality life. To that effect a series of policies and reforms in the education sector have been initiated. However, since 1995 the aim has been to ensure that all eligible children have adequate access to good quality education especially, primary education.

Before commencement of Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in July 2001, Tanzania experienced stagnant or worsening primary education indicators. With the commencement of PEDP, which has also abolished school fees for primary education there are some achievements.

As far as skills acquisition is concerned the VET Act of 1994 is the current legal framework for government programmes and donor assistance with regard to vocational and education system in Tanzania. To that effect the Vocational and Education Training Authority (VETA) has been also given the task to ensure that the VET system is demand driven and caters for both formal and informal sectors.

Apart from VETA there are several of both public and private sector training providers in Tanzania. The main ones are Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) under the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, Post Primary Technical Colleges (PPTCs) under the Ministry of Education and Culture. Together with those formal training institutions, NGOs, donors and mission schools provide a wide diversity of vocational education training. More recently, private training

institutions have arisen to fill the apparent gaps of the informal training sector especially computer training.

Most of the informal sector labour force receives its training through enterprise based training. This can be through traditional apprenticeship system or just through on the job trial and error learning. The apprenticeship system in Tanzania is mainly based on family ties. Very few master craftsmen who have apprentices charge a fee and formal contracts are very few if any. The most common method of training used is by demonstration because most of the master craftsmen have had no training.

Though the TPRS does not set explicit targets for employment, it is clear that employment is a crucial dimension of the reduction of income poverty. Reaching income poverty targets depends on sustained economic growth, which creates employment and widens economic opportunity. Views expressed during the preparation of the TPRS emphasized the need to address the problem of unemployment among Youth, especially in urban areas.

As far as child labour is concerned the International Labour Organization (ILO) is providing technical support to the prevention, protection, withdrawal and rehabilitation of children in worst forms of child labour (WFCL) through the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). This programme was incepted in 1992 and began its activities in Tanzania in 1995.

The objective of the programme is four fold:

- ✓ The protection and prevention of children from entering the labour market.
- ✓ The rehabilitation of children withdrawn from the labour market.
- ✓ The promotion of alternative income generating activities for effected families.
- ✓ The promotion of education or vocational training alternatives for withdrawn children.

The programme strategies are three fold:

- ✓ Technical support in building capacity of the social partners to plan and implement programmes for the elimination of child labour.
- ✓ Support for public awareness and policy advocacy programmes on child labour problems and the need for effective policies.
- ✓ Direct support to communities for the protection, withdrawal and rehabilitation of child engaged in the WFCL

One of the achievements realized since the programme started is that the Tanzania government has ratified both ILO Convention NO 182 on elimination of the worst forms of child labour and the Minimum Age Convention NO 138. Moreover, the programme has led to the prevention withdrawal and rehabilitation of an estimated 5,000 vulnerable children under the age of 18.

The 1997 National Employment Policy (NEP), the 1995 Education Training Policy and the Vocational and Education Training Act. of 1994 are the two sectoral policies which provide the most relevant opportunities for the integration of the proposed IPEC skills training programme in the urban informal sector where working children in urban areas are mostly working.

Using the NEP IPEC skill training programme can have among other things a component of providing vocational skills elements and vocational guidance and counselling in primary schools in

order to prepare the pupils to make right decisions on the skills they would prefer for self employment.

On the part of the Education and Training Policy of 1995 in 1997 the Basic Education Master Plan was developed as part of the implementation of that policy. Under the plan the Complementary Basic Education Training (COBET) programme was initiated by the Ministry of Education and Culture as an alternative approach for providing primary education to out of school children including working children whom are also targeted by the IPEC. Through the IPEC TBP on worst forms of child labour in Tanzania, the Ministry of Education and Culture is supported to establish COBERT centres for cohort 1 in 11 districts

On the part of the Vocational Education Training Act of 1994, VETA is working through its VET providers to provide vocational skills training to children withdrawn from the worst forms of child labour and those at risk in the targeted districts of the IPEC Time Bound Programme in Tanzania. There exist a good opportunity for the IPEC skills training programme to collaborate with VETA in terms of consolidating the lessons and experiences being achieved and where possible to replicate such training in non TBP districts prone to worst forms of child labour.

Although the apprenticeship system in Tanzania is not organized still the IPEC skills training programme can utilize the traditional apprenticeship system to train some of the withdrawn working children. Nevertheless, there is a need first of all to select suitable master craftsmen and give them training not only on the technical side of the trades they will be training the apprentices but also on the pedagogical aspects of the training and even on entrepreneurship issues to make their training more effective. Secondly, to have a sort of a standardized apprenticeship modular training system and a quality control, testing and certification in order to raise the skills standard of the target group. These tasks should be performed by VETA, which has been entrusted with the regulations of the VET system in the country.

On the issue of participating in the review of labour legislations and in the consultative PRSP process all stakeholders concerning children rights at different levels are involved.

In Tanzania currently there are two programmes/projects which working children are directly targeted for skills training and which are therefore relevant to the proposed skills training programme. These are the IPEC Time Bound programme which is involved in the prevention of the worst forms of child labour and direct support to working children and their families, and another ILO supported project on the linkages between women's employment and the reduction of child labour.

Given that the majority of working children in the urban informal sector in Tanzania have little or no basic education, they tend to have limited opportunities for gainful employment. At the same time the informal sector in particular the small and urban industry and service sub-sectors provides a possibility for young people to learn a skill and increase income earnings opportunities. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to develop a country strategy proposal for the IPEC skills training programme which has the following six immediate objectives:

- (i) Providing vocational skills elements and vocational guidance and counselling in primary schools
- (ii) Providing primary education and vocational skills to out of school working and withdrawn children
- (iii) Providing demand driven training on vocational skills to withdrawn working children

- (iv) Developing traditional apprenticeship system
- (v) Facilitating accessibility to credit for self-employment and further training
- (vi) Facilitating creation of youth vocational associations

CHAPTER 1 - ANALYSIS OF THE DIMENSION AND DYNAMICS OF CHILD LABOUR IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR

1.1 The urban informal sector and the macro economy

1.1.1 Introduction

Though the “informal sector” (IS) as an economic phenomenon has been in existence in many developing countries for a very long time, it was only in the 1970s and 1980s that it began to draw the attention of an increasing number of scholars and policy makers. This attention was prompted by the rapid growth of population and the labour force in excess of employment opportunities in the formal sector in the developing countries (Madihi: 2003b).

The term “IS” was used for the first time in the reports on Ghana and Kenya prepared under the ILO World Employment Programme at the beginning of the 1970s. Since then the term has been used to refer to that segment of the labour market in the developing countries that has absorbed significant number of jobseekers, mostly in self-employment, and to workers in very small production units (ILO: 2000). In Tanzania the term “micro and small enterprises” (MSE) is also used when talking about the IS.

Low levels of capital and skills, access to organized markets and technology, low and unstable incomes as well as poor and unpredictable working conditions often characterize IS activities. Informal activities are mostly outside the scope of official statistical enumeration and government regulations, and beyond formal systems of labour and social protection (ILO: 2002). These features add up to achieving only a low level of income in relation to income generation potential of the sector (Pfander and Gold: 2000).

The definition of the IS that is commonly used in the national studies in Tanzania (e.g. in 1995 DISS and 2000/01 ILFS) is based on a resolution, which was adopted in 1993 by the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Mwinuka: 1996).

The main characteristics of the informal sector include the following:

- (a) The informal sector is considered as a subset of household enterprises or unincorporated enterprises owned by a household.
 - Such enterprises are not separate entities independent of households or household members that own them;
 - They do not have a complete set of accounts that permit a clear distinction of production activities of the enterprise from other activities of their owners and the identification of flows of income and capital between the enterprise and the owners;
 - The enterprise may and may not employ paid labour, and activities may be carried out inside or outside the owner’s home;
 - All or at least some of the goods or services of the business have to be produced for sale.
- (b) The informal sector comprises informal own account enterprises as well as enterprises of informal employers. The distinction between own account enterprises and enterprises of informal employers is based on whether or not the enterprises employ workers on a continuous basis.

- (c) Enterprises rendering professional or business services (for example doctors, lawyers, teachers, accountants, etc.) are included in the definition, if they meet the requirements of informal own account enterprises or enterprises of informal employers.

To suit the Tanzanian circumstances, rural agriculture is excluded, while urban agriculture, livestock keeping and fishing are included in the definition. IS sub-sectors whose enterprises normally employ many paid employees like construction, manufacturing and mining sectors had to have a maximum of ten paid employees while the remaining sub-sectors had to have a maximum of five paid employees.

1.1.2 The macro-economy

Tanzania mainland obtained her independence in 1961 and in 1964 formed a union with Zanzibar to become the United Republic of Tanzania (URT). After independence, the country adopted a Socialist development model. This model changed the primary economic goal from a capitalist mode of production to a socialist one. The economic policy officially shifted to central planning and government control. Up to early 1970s, Tanzania made steady economic and social development before going into a phase of economic crisis beginning in the late 1970s. The economic crisis was attributed to several factors, both external and internal, including drought, the oil crisis, the war with Uganda, the collapse of the East African Community and the general world economic recession (ILO: 2002).

In response to the economic crisis, Tanzania undertook economic reforms with a view to reviving its economy. The economic adjustment period started with the home grown National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) (1980/81 – 1981/82) and the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) (1982/83 – 1984/85). The former aimed at improving economic growth by, among other things, increasing foreign exchange reserves, which had dwindled to very low levels (ILO: 2002). The programme, however, was unable to effectively address the economic problems. Wangwe and Tsikata as quoted by ILO (2002) points to lack of specificity and operational targets as factors that made implementation and monitoring difficult. The SAP undertaken between 1982 and 1985 implemented a number of reforms including partial liberation of producer prices, devaluation of the Tanzanian Shilling and reduction in government expenditure. Even with this second phase of internally initiated reforms, Tanzania still faced macroeconomic imbalances such as high fiscal deficit, severe foreign exchange shortage and high inflation rate which averaged 30.2 percent for the period 1980 – 1985 (ILO: 2002).

Subsequent efforts to revive the economy were initiated by the international financial institutions, namely the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), beginning with the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP), which was implemented from 1986 to 1989. While the programme was successful in improving economic indicators, no positive change was registered in social indicators, which at best seemed to be stagnant and at worst to be declining (ILO: 2002). Therefore, to address social concerns of the adjustment, the Economic and Social Action Programme (ESAP) covering the period 1989 to 1992, was introduced. In addition to the other objectives set out in the earlier ERP, ESAP envisaged to address or take into consideration the adverse social effect of adjustment. Specifically, one of its objectives was to rehabilitate the social services by identifying appropriate strategies and programmes that would enhance people's participation in the operation and management of these services.

These reforms were followed by introduction of the three year Rolling Plan and Forward Budget (RPFB) beginning from 1993/94 fiscal years to replace the three year economic reform programmes. Objectives of the RPFB include:

- ☞ Introduction of a more effective medium term framework for planning and provision of better projections of relevant macroeconomic variables, especially revenue and expenditure;
- ☞ Strengthening the link between macroeconomic and sectoral policies to ensure consistency; and
- ☞ Strengthening the link between policy outputs and funds allocated to the programme.

As it has been indicated in the report prepared in 2002 on “Investment for Poverty Reducing Employment in Tanzania.” by the Job for Africa Programme (JAP), the RPFB also seem to have some weaknesses including difficulties in matching it to the budget preparation cycle, the inconsistent macroeconomic policy framework and the uncertainty aspect in cases where unforeseen circumstances change the trend in projected revenue.

The economic crisis of the 1980s and the structural adjustment reforms that followed were responsible for the collapse of the formal sector employment and proliferation of the informal sector activities. Most of the retrenched employees, who could not be absorbed elsewhere in formal employment and those wishing to supplement their formal incomes, turned to the informal sector as an income generating opportunity (Madihi: 1990).

At the same time the economic crises and the structural adjustment reforms have contributed to making Tanzania one of the poorest countries in the world with a heavy reliance on grants and loans. By the end of 2002 the total external debt amounted to US \$ 7.3 billion. The country thus joined the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiatives and subsequently qualified for US \$ 3 billion of debt forgiveness (Daily News: 2001).

Table 1 summarizes the economic profile of Tanzania as it was in 1999.

Table 1: Tanzania Economic Profiles

Tanzania 1999	
Population	33 Million
☞ Population growth (1990 – 1999)	2.6 %
☞ Population aged 15 – 64	52 %
☞ Urban population	32 %
☞ Labour force growth	2.6 %
GDP per capita	US \$ 240
☞ Economic growth (1998 – 1999)	3.1 %
☞ Agriculture sector	48 %
☞ Manufacturing	7 %
Quality of life	
☞ Population below poverty line	19.9 %
☞ Life expectancy	46 yrs M, 48 yrs F
☞ Adult illiteracy	17 M, 36 F
* International poverty line of US \$ 1 per day	

Source: Development Report 2000/2001 World Bank

1.1.2.2 Tanzania Population Structure

According to the 2002 population census, Tanzania has a total population of 34.7 million people. The majority 97 percent is in the Mainland while Zanzibar has the rest. The population of Tanzania has been growing steadily. Between 1967 and 1978 the annual growth rate was 3.2 percent while between 1978 and 1988 it decreased slightly to 2.8 percent and between 1988 and 2002 it increased slightly to 2.9 percent. However, the HIV/AIDS crisis is likely to affect the rate of population growth negatively. Adult mortality rate is expected to triple with AIDS; compared to a situation without AIDS.

In Tanzania females are slightly more compared to males, 51 percent and 49 percent respectively. Like other developing countries, Tanzania has a young population, 44.6 percent of its population is below the age of 15. Those aged between 15 and 64 comprise 52.5 percent of the population while the remaining 2.9 percent are 65 and above.

1.1.2.3 Employment Structure

There is very limited information of the labour force and employment in Tanzania. Labour exchange services were revived two years ago after being abolished in 1975 and still are only operational in the City of Dar es Salaam. Therefore, the main source of labour market information is labour force surveys. Since independence in 1961 there have been only three labour force surveys. The first one was in 1965 followed by that of 1990/1991 and the latest one is the 2000/2001 Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS).

The 2000/01 ILFS revealed that Tanzania had 17,827,578 economically active population 10 years and above, an increase of 6,563,593 or 58.3 percent from 1990/1991 labour force survey. Among them, 94.9 percent was employed and the remaining 5.1 percent was unemployed compared to 94.6 percent and 3.6 percent respectively in 1990/91 survey. While underemployment rate rose from 4.3 percent in 1990/91 to 11.2 percent in 2000/01. The majority was underemployed because either they had no work or no suitable land; other reasons were lack of raw materials, machinery breakdown and problems of laying off workers.

The 2000/01 ILFS also shows that there were more young persons about 28.2 percent in the age group 10 –19 years who were in the labour force as compared with only 5.9 percent of the same age group who were in the labour force during the 1990/91 survey. Most of the unemployed persons 41.5 percent of the labour force were children and youth in the age group 10 – 19 as Table 2 shows.

Table 2: Percentage distribution of the labour force by age in 2000/01

Age Group	Employed	Unemployed	Total
10 – 14	13.0	14.5	13.1
15 – 19	14.5	27.0	15.1
20 – 24	12.4	21.9	12.9
25 – 29	11.3	14.1	11.4
30 – 34	9.7	7.7	9.6
35 – 39	9.7	4.1	9.4
40 – 44	7.1	2.4	6.9
45 – 49	6.7	3.0	6.5
50 – 54	4.9	1.5	4.7
55 – 59	3.4	1.5	3.3
60 – 64	2.8	0.8	2.7
65 – 69	2.2	0.5	2.1
70+	2.5	0.9	2.4
Total	100.0 (16,914,806)	100.0 (912,772)	100.0 (17,827,578)

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

An examination of the labour force by gender shows that of the total labour force, males constituted 49.0 percent and females 51.0 percent. As a whole female were more both in urban and rural areas, being 51.7 percent and 50.8 percent respectively. When further compared with the 1990/91 results, there was a decrease in the number of the labour force in the rural areas of 3.0 percent, while an increase of 14.3 percent of the same population is observed in urban areas. This suggests there was an increase in rural urban migration.

In terms of employment by sector, the 2000/01 ILFS distinguished six different sectors, namely government, parastatals, traditional agriculture, informal sector, other private, and housework. The 1990/91 had similar distinction with the exception of the housework sector. Table 3 shows how the labour force was distributed to those sectors in 1990/91 and 2000/01.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of labour force according to sectors in 1990/91 and 2000/01

Sector	Year	
	1990/91	2000/01
Government	3.0	2.0
Parastatals	1.7	0.4
Traditional Agriculture	84.0	81.0
Informal Sector	8.5	9.0
Other Private	2.8	4.0
Housework	-	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: 1990/91 Labour Force Survey and 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

The table above indicates that employment in the government and parastatal declined from 3 percent to 2 percent and from 1.7 percent to 0.4 percent respectively. It also shows that, employment in the private formal sector increased from 2.8 percent to 4.0 percent in 2000/01. The results further show that, employment in the informal sector has increased from 8.5 to 9.0. While the employment in traditional agriculture sector remains the highest, although it declined from 84 percent to 81 percent in 2000/01.

The 2000/01 ILFS also distinguished employment by status as Table 4 below is depicting it.

Table 4: Percentage distribution of the labour force by employment status and sex in 2000/01

Employment Status	Male	Female	Total
Paid employee	5	2	7
Self employed – with employee	1	0	1
Self employed – without employee	4	4	7
Unpaid family helper (non agric.)	1	2	4
Own farm	39	42	81
Total	100.0 (8,351,291)	100.0 (8,563,513)	100.0 (16,914,805)

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

The table above shows that like in 1990/91 a large majority 81 percent is engaged in agriculture. However, the proportion of paid employment and own farm agriculture has decreased with an increase in unpaid family helpers by 3 percent, which is mainly due to the fact that in the 2000/01 ILFS collection of firewood and fetching water activities (almost exclusively done by unpaid family helpers) were regarded as economic work. In the 1990/91 LFS these activities were not regard as economic activities if were done for own home use.

In order to tackle the employed problems namely unemployment and underemployment in 1997 the government formulated the National Employment Policy (NEP). The purpose and objective of this policy are, among others is to provide conducive environment to enable unemployed people to employ themselves by directing resources towards self-employment sector, define potential areas which can provide employment and develop strategies of how to exploit those areas in promoting employment: prepare special training programmes by coordinating and strengthening sources of employment including establishment of an institution to oversee the implementation of the employment policy.

The policy also aims at defining the roles of government, private sector, the community in general, non-governmental organizations, external and domestic sponsors in promoting and developing employment generating projects, develop, self-employment opportunities in the rural areas in order to reduce the rate of migration to urban areas; direct large proportion of national resources in the development of agriculture, livestock and cooperatives to attract many people to take up economic activities in those sectors; and strengthen interaction between formal and self-employment sectors by removing legal obstacles that hinder smooth working relations between the two.

The policy addresses also the promotion of youth employment through the following measures: strengthening and expanding of vocational training in public and private vocational training centres so that youth can be self-employed or find employment in other sectors, and advising and educating the youth on how they can obtain credit facilities from public financial institutions, private financial institutions and sponsors. The policy also encourages the provision of practical education and counselling in schools to prepare the youth for self-employment. A special fund for providing training and credits for self-employment has been established, and while youths have been urged to form production and services brigades.

Further more the government has passed the National Employment Promotion Services Act of 1999 (NEPS). This Act is yet to be fully operational; it introduces strategies for implementing the NEP

(1997) currently under review. The Act establishes committees at national and local government levels to deal with employment promotion agencies, which are also established by it. It lays the ethics for operationalization of the services and addresses the issues of employment of foreigners. The function of the service include placement, vocational guidance and employment counselling, active labour market intervention, labour market and occupational information, advisory services for lawful income generating undertakings and promotion of self employment and coordination of training needs.

1.1.3 The informal sector in Tanzania

1.1.3.1 Size

In Tanzania, like elsewhere in the sub Saharan Africa, the informal sector plays a great role as far as employment and income generation are concerned (Mwinuka: 1996, Sethuraman: 1997, Madihi: 2002). For example, the 2000/01 (ILFS) revealed a high incidence of informal sector activities carried out in the households as depicted in Table 5

Table 5: Proposition of households with informal sector activity by area in 2000/2001

Area and Location	Total Households	Total Households with Informal Sector Activity	
		Number	Percentage
Urban	1,267,749	778,054	61
Rural	4,536,200	1,235,777	27
Total	5,803,949	2,013,831	35

Source: 2000/01 The Integrated Labour Force Survey

Table 5 shows that one in every three households had an informal sector activity as compared to only one in every four households in 1990/1991. It also shows that 61 percent of the total households in the urban areas had informal sector activities compared to 42 percent in 1990/1991. As for the rural areas, 27 percent out of the total 4,536,200 households had informal sector activities in 2000/2001 as compared to 21 percent of the total 3,633,704 households in 1990/1991. This was possibly a result of economic hardships households had been facing, hence forcing them to join the sector as a survival strategy.

As far as the total employment in the informal sector is concerned, Table 6 shows the persons employed in the sector by areas and sex in 2000/2001.

Table 6: Informal sector labour force by area and sex in 2000/2001

Activity	Urban	Rural	Total
Main Activity:			
Male	457,825	304,056	761,882
Female	506,063	171,903	677,966
Secondary Activity:			
Male	113,531	610,106	723,637
Female	125,528	513,845	639,373
Total Labour Force	3,425,135	14,402,443	17,827,578
Total Informal Sector Labour Force	1,202,948	1,599,910	2,802,858
Percentage of Total Labour Force	35	11	16

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

Table above shows that out of a total labour force of 17,827,578; 16 percent were employed in the informal sector. In 1990, the same percentage of the labour force was also employed in the sector. The total employed persons in the main activities were about 2 percent higher than those in

secondary activities. Geographically, a larger proportion of the urban labour force was employed in the informal sector (35 percent), than the rural labour force (11 percent). Secondary activities were more dominant in the rural areas, employing about 77.5 percent of all persons engaged in the informal sector.

Analyzing the findings from a gender perspective, it is observed that in 2000/2001, more females were employed than males in both the main and secondary activities in urban areas. The reverse was true in the rural areas. In urban areas women are often driven to the informal sector by lack of education and skills and their subsequent exclusion from more lucrative jobs where more sophisticated technical skills are needed (ILO: 1985).

Since the last comprehensive informal sector survey (1990/91 NISS), the number of people involved in the informal sector has been increasing as shown in Table 1.7

Table 7: Growth of employment in the informal sector from 1990/1991 and 2000/2001

Survey	Urban	Rural	Total
1990/1991 NISS	948,000	1,422,000	2,370,000
2000/2001 ILFS	1,202,947	1,599,910	2,802,858
Rate of growth (percent per annum)	2.4	1.2	1.7

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey and 1990/91 National Informal Sector Survey

Table 1.7 reveals that, employment in the informal sector has been growing at a rate of 1.7 percent per annum nation-wise from 1990/1991 up to 2000/2001. However, the growth rate for the urban areas is much higher; at least twice to that of the rural areas.

1.1.3.2 Reasons for engaging in the informal sector

There are a number of reasons, which make people engage in the informal sector. During the 2000/2001 ILFS persons employed in the informal sector were asked to give the main reasons why they chose to do informal business. Their answers are summarized in Table 8

Table 8: Percentage distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by main and secondary activities, reasons for conducting informal sector business and sex in 2000/2001

Reasons	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Can't find other work	43.0	46.3	44.5	18.9	22.8	20.7
Released from other employment	4.8	2.4	3.7	1.7	0.9	1.3
Retirement from other employment	1.6	0.9	1.2	1.9	0.2	1.1
Family needs additional income	19.7	29.2	24.2	42.1	45.8	43.9
Business provides good income	8.3	4.5	6.5	8.3	8.7	8.5
Business doesn't require much capital	6.8	8.3	7.5	9.7	10.0	9.8
Can't keep production costs low	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6
Want to be independent	2.6	1.4	2.0	1.1	0.6	0.9
Can choose own hours and place	3.4	0.9	2.2	4.8	2.0	3.5
Can combine business and household/family responsibilities	2.1	2.4	2.3	5.1	4.7	4.9
Traditional line of business	4.1	1.3	2.8	3.1	2.3	2.7
Other	2.9	1.8	2.4	2.6	1.6	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total in numbers	761,318	677,966	1,439,847	723,637	639,372	1,363,010

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

From Table 8 it can be observed that the majority (44.5 percent) of respondents in the main activity singled out inability to find work as the major reason. This was followed by families' needs of additional income mentioned by 24.2 percent of all respondents. While the third reason was business didn't require much capital. However those in the secondary activity mentioned the need for families to get additional income as the major reason mentioned by 43.9 percent of all respondents. It was followed by can't find a job, which was mentioned by 20.7 percent of all respondents, while the third reason was, business does not require much capital, which was mentioned by 9.8 percent of all respondents.

1.1.3.3 Informal sector activities

Informal sector activities are normally categorized into two types: the main and secondary activities. The main activity is that which constitutes the main employment in terms of the amount of time spent doing it, while the secondary one is considered as a supplementary employment to the main activity.

Table 9 shows the distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by main and secondary activities and detailed industrial classification according to the 2000/01 ILFS.

Table 9: Percentage distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by main and secondary activities, detailed industrial classification and sex in 2000/2001

Activities	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Cattle and small animals	1.3	0.3	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.8
Crop growing	1.6	0.3	1.0	93.3	93.9	93.6
Agricultural & forestry services	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1
Fishing	1.1	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.3
Sub Total	4.4	1.1	2.8	94.7	94.8	94.8
Mining and quarrying	1.1	2.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sub Total	1.1	2.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Grain mill product & food canning	1.6	2.2	1.9	0.1	0.1	0.1
Manufacturing of wearing apparel	2.9	5.9	4.3	0.1	0.4	0.3
Furniture making & manufacturing of non metallic mineral product	6.7	0.4	3.7	0.2	0.0	0.1
Sub Total	11.2	8.5	9.9	0.4	0.5	0.5
Electric & water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Construction	11.9	0.1	6.3	0.9	0.1	0.5
Sub Total	11.9	0.1	6.3	1.0	0.1	0.5
Retail Trade – Agric. Products & meat	22.4	22.5	22.5	0.7	0.6	0.6
Retail Trade – Processed food	4.3	23.9	13.5	0.1	0.8	0.5
Retail Trade – Clothing, textile & footwear	5.1	5.6	5.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Stationery, photograph & general retail	20.6	13.8	17.4	0.5	0.6	0.5
Restaurant and hotel	3.9	19.3	11.2	0.3	0.4	0.3
Sub Total	56.3	85.1	69.9	1.8	2.6	2.1
Transport & Communication	2.9	0.1	1.6	0.2	0.0	0.1
Sub Total	2.9	0.1	1.6	0.2	0.0	0.1
Finance, Insurance and Business Services	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1
Public administration	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.2
Social & Community services	3.0	0.5	1.8	0.2	0.5	0.3
Educational services	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.6
Repair of MV, footwear & other repair services	5.8	0.2	3.2	0.1	0.0	0.1
Domestic services	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.4
Other personal services	2.5	1.6	2.1	0.1	0.3	0.2
Sub Total	12.2	3.1	7.9	2.0	1.9	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total in numbers	761,318	677,966	1,439,847	723,637	639,372	1,363,010

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

Table 9 depicts that for those whom informal sector was their main activity, retail trade in agricultural products employed more people, at least 22.5 percent of all respondents. It was followed by stationery, photography and general retail, which accounted for 17.4 percent. Retail trade in processed food took the third position by being mentioned by 13.5 percent of all respondents. For those whom informal sector activity was their second activity, crop growing in urban areas dominated by being mentioned by 93.6 percent of all respondents. It was followed by livestock keeping also in the urban areas, which was mentioned by only 0.8 percent of all respondents. Retail trading in agricultural products and educational services took the third position, each being mentioned by only 0.6 percent of all respondents.

1.1.3.4 Characteristics of informal sector enterprises

The majority of informal sector enterprises are micro-enterprises. This is the reason why Madihi (1998) and Madihi and Mnasi (2002) found out that sole ownership pattern has come out to be the most dominant for the informal sector enterprises. Other types of ownership include unregistered cooperatives and partnerships.

As far as the locations of the informal sector enterprises are concerned, the 1990/91 NISS revealed that the most common type of location is within the house or dwelling of the operator. This is common in the manufacturing, trade and community/personal services industry groups. Another common type of location is “without a fixed place”. This is common for construction, mining and quarrying and transport enterprises. Other locations are open spaces or along the streets, market places and structures attached or near to operators’ houses.

In both the 1990/91 NISS and 1995 DISS the reasons for the choice of business allocation were varied and differed by type of business. However, the unavailability of other places was the over-riding reason. Whereas, activities operated from structures attached to the house and those based in the customer’s/employer’s house, inability to rent accommodation was the main reason.

McCormick and Pedersen (1996) observed that the informal sector typically uses simple forms of technical knowledge and labour intensive production and management process. Therefore, informal sector enterprises generally supply unsophisticated products and services through simple marketing channels to localized niche markets principally oriented towards low-income groups in the society. Informal sector enterprises normally provide goods and services either not produced by formal businesses, or supplied by the latter in forms or quantities unsuitable for or unaffordable by local consumers

Also informal sector enterprises face uncertainty and instability in their suppliers, labour and product markets due to the low and variable consumer spending, less developed infrastructures and limited institutional capacity.

Many studies (like the 1990/91 NISS, the 1995 DISS, Madihi: 1998, Madihi and Mnasi: 2002, McCormick and Pedersen: 1996) have shown that the main sources of capital for the informal sector enterprises are operators’ own savings and assistance or borrowing from friends and relatives. The other sources that are becoming important to informal sector enterprises are loans from moneylenders, co-investors and local savings and credit associations commonly known as UPATU. The number of enterprises financed from bank loans is still very small and reflects the lack of support from the formal financial sector.

Therefore, location of most informal sector enterprises, limited capital bases, low productivity and output, low and irregular income, and low level of social services from local and other authorities depress the quality of the working environment of most of the informal sector enterprises. As a result, people working in such enterprises suffer comparatively from high exposure to occupational health hazards and diseases. Very few operators and workers are reached by the formal private sector or government social insurance schemes.

1.1.3.5 Characteristics of persons employed in the informal sector

In the informal sector there are two types of participants, namely the operators who own the enterprises (that is those who are self-employed with or without employees) and workers who are either paid or unpaid (the latter being mostly family members).

The ILFS revealed that there were more operators than workers in the informal sector in Tanzania as shown by Table 10.

Table 10: Percent distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by main and secondary activities, employment status and sex in 2000/2001

Employment Status	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Paid employees	7	3	5	6	3	5
Self-employed – with employees	11	6	9	7	3	5
Self-employed – without employees	78	86	82	85	91	88
Unpaid employee	3	5	4	2	3	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total in numbers	761,882	677,966	1,439,847	723,637	639,373	1,363,010

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

Table 10 indicates that the majority of persons in the informal sector are operators (self-employed) without employees. Self-employed persons with employees were the second largest category; paid employees and unpaid family helpers are the categories with the lowest number of persons engaged in the informal sector. The same distribution pattern is observed if the data is viewed from a gender perspective.

Table 11 shows the distribution of informal sector labour force by age.

Table 11: Distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by age, main and secondary activities and sex in 2000/2001

Age Group	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
10 – 17	48,578	39,850	88,428	44,893	33,426	78,319
18 – 34	374,333	374,348	748,681	298,044	306,592	604,636
35 – 64	312,054	256,905	568,959	350,934	284,091	635,025
65+	26,917	6,862	33,779	29,766	15,264	45,030
Total	761,318	677,966	1,439,847	723,637	639,372	1,363,010

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

The table above shows that the bulk of people employed in the informal sector as their main activity is the youth below age 35. They constitute more than half of all persons engaged in the sector. The possible explanation is that large parts of the youth who migrate into the urban areas join informal

business as their main activity. However male adults and young females dominate the secondary activity, they comprise about 50 percent and 49 percent respectively.

Table 12 shows the distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by educational level.

Table 12: Distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by educational level, main and secondary activities and sex in 2000/2001

Educational Level	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Never enrolled	74,638	102,555	177,193	105,504	194,488	299,992
Primary not complete	142,683	110,122	252,805	173,945	128,877	302,821
Primary complete	472,097	412,472	884,569	411,739	302,035	713,774
Secondary and above	72,464	52,817	125,281	32,450	13,972	46,423
Total	761,318	677,966	1,439,847	723,637	639,372	1,363,010

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

Table 12 indicates that primary school is the dominant level of education among operators and workers in the informal sector; those who had never been enrolled or dropped follow them. There were very few operators and workers who had secondary and post secondary school education.

After analyzing the findings in gender perspective, it is observed that the percentage of females who were either never enrolled or dropped out from primary school education was higher than that of males for both main and secondary activities. Likewise more males than females completed primary school education. The same pattern was for those who had secondary school education and above.

The low level of education of the informal sector labour force prompts the majority of operators and workers to acquire skills through informal ways like self- taught and on-the-job as Table 13 indicates.

Table 13: Percent distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by field of training, main and secondary activities and sex in 2000/01

Field of Training	Main Activity			Secondary Activity		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Education training	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.5	0.6	1.0
Arts/Language/Humanity & Social	0.8	1.3	1.0	0.9	3.0	1.9
Typing/Secretarial	0.2	1.3	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.2
Accountancy/Auditing	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4
Book-keeping/Financial/Banking	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other Clerical/Business	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.3
Medicine & Health related	1.2	1.5	1.4	0.6	1.6	1.0
Carpentry/Joinery	7.9	0.0	4.1	4.8	0.0	2.5
Other Construction Trades	4.7	0.1	2.5	4.2	0.0	2.2
Motor Mechanics	2.0	0.1	1.1	0.3	0.0	0.2
Textile/Tailoring	2.6	4.8	3.7	2.1	2.1	2.1
Other Craft Trade	2.9	0.2	1.6	2.8	0.5	1.7
Engineering/Architecture	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.3
Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.5
Driving/Other Transport	1.9	0.2	1.1	1.0	0.0	0.5
Police/Defense/Security	1.8	0.5	1.2	3.4	0.2	1.9
Other training	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.1
No training	70.4	87.1	78.4	75.6	89.1	82.
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total in numbers	(679,743)	(623,776)	(1,303,519)	(671,248)	(603,943)	(1,275,191)

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force Survey

1.1.5 Informal sector policy, institutional and regulatory framework

Although the informal sector provides employment and income to many Tanzanians, there is no policy paper solely geared towards the development of the sector. In 1995 there was a draft of the policy for informal sector promotion, which was never adopted. At present, the four most relevant policies for the informal sector are the National Employment Policy (NEP) of 1997, the Sustainable Industrial Development Policy (SIDP) for 1996 – 2020, the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy (SMED) of 2003 and the National Micro Finance Policy (NMFP).

The NEP (1997) estimate the capacity for self-employment in the IS to be almost eight times as high as the one of the formal sector. There is an extensive list of small-scale activities conducted in the IS and a summary of frequent problems IS operators are facing. Among those are; lack of capital, little access to credit facilities, inadequate technical and entrepreneurial skills, little linkages within the chain of production and insufficient regulatory support.

The NEP also postulates intensified efforts of creating conducive environment for self employment in general, as well as specifically in the IS. Self-employment is supposed to be linked to industries with regard to inputs and outputs. In addition, the policy emphasizes the strengthening of the relationship between the formal and informal sector. There is even a special provision to youth with the dual purpose of industrial employment and self-employment.

The NEP is presently under review. In the new NEP there is a stronger commitment towards supporting self-employment within the IS and MSE sector. This objective shall be reached through training specifically targeted at self-employment, which shall be offered as one component of the overall strategy, and also through reducing the constraints faced by the IS. Taxes should be decreased and licensing procedures streamlined, in order to facilitate accelerated employment creation. An effort shall be made to foster creativity, competitiveness, coordination, and access to credit, a clear land tenure policy as well as functional infrastructure. The new NEP proposes that the newly created Department of Employment within the Ministry of Labour, Youth Development and Sports should supervise and assist in the implementation of the recommendations.

The Sustainability Industrial Development Policy (SIDP) 1997 for 1996 – 2020 recognizes the role of the private sector for industrial development in Tanzania and the government intends to deliberately strengthen the sector by providing an entrepreneurial base. This shall be done among others through targeting the education and vocational training strategy on entrepreneurial development. The IS which is a source for potential entrepreneurs, shall be assisted to progressively enter the formal and regular avenues.

Human resources development is regarded as an important factor for such development. Improving technical skills training, as well as enhancing creativity and productivity therefore become priorities. The technical training shall also be coupled with practical work experience of trainees within apprenticeship schemes.

For the promotion of employment opportunities, more emphasis will be placed on the development of medium, small and micro enterprises, the latter of which are often located in the IS. This shall be done by supporting existing business promotion institutions by simplifying bureaucratic procedures and by improving the access of MSE to credit and other crucial inputs and services. It is assumed

that a more conducive environment will automatically lead the IS operators to gradually merge into formal sector.

In April 2003 the Small and Medium Enterprise Development (SMED) Policy came out. The vision of this policy is to have a vibrant and dynamic SME sector that ensure effective utilization of available resources to attain accelerated and sustainable growth. While, the mission of the policy is to stimulate development and growth of SME activities through improved structure, enhanced service provision and creation of a conducive legal and institutional framework so as to achieve competitiveness. The overall objective of this policy is to foster job creation and income generation through promoting the creation of new SMEs and improving the performance and competitiveness of the existing ones to increase their participation and contribution to the Tanzania economy.

Likewise, the National Micro Finance Policy (NMFP) covers the provision of financial services to small and micro enterprises in rural areas as well as in the urban sector that are engaged in all types of legal economic activities.

In addition to the policy documents mentioned above, the Development Vision 2025 for Tanzania very vaguely mentions the informal sector. The suggested strategy for national development is to raise the level of productivity and income in all sectors of the economy. In addition, the link between the formal and the informal sector shall be legally recognized and defined.

All the above policies mention the potential of the IS in generating employment and self-employment. Despite that, the current contribution of the IS as a provider of employment and income in Tanzania is underestimated in the policies and few efforts are made towards realizing the identified potentials. In addition, supportive initiatives from one ministry are counteracted by regulations of another (e.g. citizens should be encouraged to start and operate economic projects vs. restrictive business licensing).

The regulatory framework is not very conducive for the development of the IS in Tanzania. There are many hurdles to face, before an enterprise complies with legal, technical and administrative requirements. The most crucial steps as elaborated by Pfander and Gold (2000) are:

- ☞ The process of business registration and licensing takes the prospective entrepreneur through a variety of authorities with each one having its own interests. It is hardly possible to comply with all of them without 'greasing' the process at a certain stage
- ☞ The Occupational Safety and Health Act. (2003) defines the standards with regard to health infrastructure, as well as quality standard of the output produced. The performance of the IS business does in many cases not meet these standards as defined in the Act. (e.g. waste disposal, water use and sewage). It is known, that even registered business fail to comply with the standards and it is logical that IS operators have more difficulties.
- ☞ The registration of a business requires opening up an income tax account (sales and excise tax). Procedures are cumbersome and many IS operators do not see why they should be paying a tax, which does not benefit the IS
- ☞ For declaring the income tax, formal accounts have to be kept. However, many transactions of IS business remain undocumented, especially as the borders between IS activities and other activities of the household are often blurry. In addition it is mandatory to pay one-year

tax in advance (as estimated), which drastically reduce the investment potential of prospective business operators

1.2 Child labour in the informal sector

1.2.1 National legislation on child labour

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 of 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.

However, a child is allowed to do work in technical schools or similar institutions which are approved by the Director of Education (Employment Ordinance Cap 366 Section 21 (2); this also applies to schools or training shops with regard to employment of young person on a ship under the Merchant Shipping Act No. 43/1967, Section 96 (1). Prior to a child being engaged under such circumstances, a medical examination is mandatory and is valid for a period of twelve (12) months. Furthermore, the Ordinance restricts the employment of children in work, which is injurious to their health, dangerous or otherwise unsuitable.

The Employment (Restriction of Employment of children) Regulations, 1957 (Government Notice No. 12/1957) specifically addressed the issue of child labour. Section 2 provides that where children are permitted to work as per the Employment Ordinance, certain conditions are to be met. These conditions include:

- (i) Limit to the weight a child shall be allowed to carry (section 2 (1) (a).
- (ii) Limit to the consecutive and total number of hours a child may work in a day (Section 2 (1) (b).
- (iii) A child shall not work during the night (Section 2 (1) (c).
- (iv) A child shall not enter a machinery room (Section 2 (1) (d).
- (v) A child shall not work during school hours (Section 2 (1) (e).

However, the Employment Ordinance suffers from several defects namely:

- (i) The law prohibiting children under the age of 12 from working in the formal wage sector does not apply to children working in the agricultural sector as this sector is not defined as an industrial undertaking.
- (ii) The number of inspectors to enforce this legislation is inadequate.
- (iii) The problem of child labour is now compounded by poverty and the HIV/AIDS impact.
- (iv) The penalties are lenient.

Child labour stunts the development of the child. It exposes the child to harsh exacting and, sometimes dangerously environment. Indeed, child labour is exploitative, humiliating and denies children their fundamental rights to schooling, rest and creation.

Due to the above the draft of the new Employment and Labour Relations Bill in Tanzania (2003) on Part Two Sub Part A Section 5 prohibits child labour as follows:

- (1) No person may employ a child under the age of 15 years.

- (2) A child of 15 years of age may only be employed to do light work.
- (3) A child under 18 years of age shall not be employed in a mine, a factory or as crew on a ship. For the purpose of this subsection, “ship” includes a vessel of any description used for navigation.
- (4) No person shall employ a child in employment:
 - (a) that is inappropriate for a person of that age;
 - (b) that places at risk the child’s well-being, education, physical or mental health, or spiritual, moral or social development.
- (5) Notwithstanding subsection (3), any written law regulating training may permit a child under the age of 18 to work:
 - (a) on board of a training ship as part of the child training;
 - (b) in a factory or a mine if that work is part of the child’s training.
- (6) The Minister may make regulations to prohibit, or place conditions on, the employment of children under 18 years of age.
- (7) It is an offence for any person:
 - (a) to employ a child in contravention of this section
 - (b) to procure a child for employment in contravention of this section.
- (8) In any proceedings under this section, if the age of the child is in issue, it is for the person employing or procuring the child for employment to prove that it was reasonable to believe, after investigation, that the child was not underage for the purpose of this section.

Some of the important current policies as far as working children are concerned and their relevant parts are as follows: -

- (i) The Education and Training Policy (1995), which emphasizes education for all children through compulsory enrolment and attendance of seven years of primary/education. The Primary School (compulsory) Enrolment and Attendance Rules (1979) hold parents and guardians criminally liable if they fail to ensure their children are enrolled and attend primary school until completion of their primary education.
- (ii) National Employment Policy (1997) aimed at alleviating poverty through increase in per capita income. The policy encourages child work as a socialization process but discouraged engagement of a child below 15 years in activities that are exploitative, hazardous to health, or deprive him/her of the right to education and leisure.
- (iii) Child Development Policy (1996), which recognizes child rights to, among others nutrition, health and shelter, education, safety and rights not to be discriminated against.

At the international level, Tanzania has ratified the ILO Conventions No.138 and 182 which are the current most comprehensive conventions pertaining to child labour and the worst forms of child labour.

1.2.2 Dimension and characteristics of child labour in the urban informal sector

The 2000/2001 Tanzania Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (ILFCLS) have made available detailed, comprehensive information about most relevant aspects of child labour in Tanzania. The survey targeted all children in 5-17 age bracket living in private households in Tanzania Mainland. About 11,739 households were selected and 11,247 responded indicating a rate of 96 percent response. Therefore, this section will highlight briefly the major results of the ILFCLS

as they relate to proposed skills training programme, especially data on types of economic activity, education and vocational training, income and family relations.

From the 2000/01 ILFCLS it is estimated that, in Tanzania Mainland there were 11,965,145 children aged 5-17 years accounting for 36.7 percent of the projected total population of 32.6 million people. Majority of these children (79.0 percent) live in rural areas; Dar es Salaam accounted for 5.4 while 15.6 live in other urban centres.

Out of the total estimated 11,965,145 children of the age between 5-17 years, 4,735,528 (39.6 percent) were working children. Among them 416,066 or 8.8 percent were working in the urban informal sector. Table 14 shows how the working children in the urban informal sector are distributed by age and sex.

Table 14: Distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by sex and age in 2000/01

Age	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
5 - 9	26,692	32,850	59,542
10 - 14	95,726	103,060	198,786
15 - 17	78,478	79,261	157,739
Total	200,896	215,171	416,067

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey

The table above reveals that the majority, 51.7 percent of working children in the urban informal sector were females. Female working children were also the majority as compared to male children in all the age groups. For both sexes the majority of the working children were aged between 10 and 14 years. Those who were aged between 15 and 17 years followed them, constituting 37.9 percent of all working children.

Table 15 shows the relationship between working children in the urban informal sector and household sizes during the 2000/01 ILFCLS.

Table 15: Distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by household size and sex in 2000/01

Household Size	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Below 3	3,684	8,017	11,701
3 - 4	7,523	23,982	31,505
5 - 6	49,943	39,971	89,914
7 - 8	72,952	60,896	133,848
9 +	66,791	82,308	149,099
Total	200,896	215,171	416,067

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey

Table 15 reveals that generally the proportion of working children increases with household size, rising from 2.8 percent for households where there were less than three members, to 35.8 percent for households with 9 or more members.

The educational status of the working children in the urban informal sector according to the 2000/01 ILFCLS are shown on Table 16

Table 16: Distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by educational level and sex in 2000/01

Educational level	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Never enrolled	28,476	26,950	55,426
Pre-primal school	2,693	358	3,051
Primary school not complete	120,871	134,702	255,573
Primary school complete	40,458	44,384	84,842
Secondary school not complete	8,241	8,776	17,017
Secondary school complete	158	0	158
Total	200,897	215,170	416,067

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey

The table above indicates that the majority, 61.4 percent of working children in the urban informal sector had not completed their primary school education. They were followed by one fifth of those who had completed their primary school education. Those who had never been enrolled for primary school education constituted 13.3 percent of all working children in the urban informal sector. Also nearly one percent of all working children were very young, (less than ten years) and they were enrolled in pre-primary schools. The remaining 4.2 percent had at least been enrolled into secondary schools.

The 2000/01 ILFCLS went further to show that among the working children in the urban informal sector the majority 61.9 percent were also attending school mainly primary schools.

As it has already been indicated in sub-section 1.1.3.2 there are many reasons, which force people to engage in the informal sector. The 2000/01 ILFCLS indicated that the majority 30.1 percent of parents with working children reported that they released their schooling children to work in order to help in family business. Another 27.5 percent gave the main reason as augmenting the household income. On their side 5.6 percent of the working children who were not attending school said they worked because they were too young to go to school. About 9.3 percent reported to have worked so as to augment household income. Other important reasons include being poor in studies (8.6 percent), failed at school (7.1 percent) and unable to afford schooling (6.3 percent). The most common economic reason given by out of school children was to augment household income followed by inability to afford schooling and to help in either family business.

Table 17 shows the distribution of working children by industry

Table 17: Distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by industry and sex in 2000/01

Industry	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Agriculture & Fishing	129,879	110,763	240,642
Manufacturing	3,738	3,520	7,258
Construction	1,976	0	1,976
Trade	30,174	35,145	65,319
Transport	1,261	0	1,261
Personal services	33,865	65,742	99,607
Total	200,897	215,170	416,067

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey

Table 17 reveals that, the majority 57.8 percent of all working children in the urban informal sector was engaged in the agriculture/fishing industry. They were followed by 23.9 percent who were engaged in personal services industry. Similar pattern was observed by gender, where nearly two thirds of the boys were engaged in agriculture sector compared to girls as 57.8 percent. The proportion of girls who were engaged in the personal services was notably higher than for boys. While the proportion of girls in trade industry was slightly higher than that of the boys, it was vice versa in the manufacturing industry.

The 2000/01 ILFCLS further shows that the distribution of working children between those who were attending school and those out of school had a similar pattern by sector where they were almost equally represented, except in construction and transport sectors. In trade, more than half (52.8 percent) were out of school, while in construction, eight out of ten (81.9 percent) working children were out of school.

As far as the employment status of working children by industry was concerned, the 2000/01 ILFCLS showed that the majority of them (about 67 percent) were self-employed while the remaining were either employed by others or worked in their household enterprises. For the workers the majority 72 percent were paid workers while the remaining were unpaid workers

On the working condition issues as far as working hours were concerned are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by working hours and sex in 2000/01

Working hours	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Less than 10	56,767	49,052	105,819
10 – 19	46,850	62,869	109,719
20 – 29	31,775	38,483	70,258
30 – 39	16,841	24,693	41,534
40 – 49	17,061	14,218	31,279
50+	31,603	25,855	57,458
Total	200,897	215,170	416,067

Source: 2000/01 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey

Table 18 first of all indicated that the majority 68.7 percent of the working children in urban informal sector worked for less than 30 hours a week or not more than 4 hours per day. More than one fifth worked for 40 or more hours a week or 6 or more hours per day. Although generally there was no apparent difference in the work duration among male and female children, male children tended to work for longer hours than the females.

When age was taken into consideration, the 2000/01 ILFCLS showed that 21.4 of working children in the age group of 5-9 years worked for 30 or more hours a week. Approximately one fifth (19.6 percent) of children aged 10-14 worked for 30 or more hours a week. Close to half (49.8 percent) of the oldest group (15-17) of children also worked that long. Comparatively, the oldest group of children put more hours of work followed by the youngest group because these two groups have more children who do not attend school. Many of these children either have completed or are too young for schooling.

The 2000/01 ILFCLS also indicates that the pattern of actual hours of work was different between children attending school and those not attending. Children attending school generally worked for short durations of time unlike children who were not attending school. Results showed that about 15.1 percent of children attending school worked for 30 hours or more per week compare to 53.6 percent of children not attending school.

During the 2000/01 ILFCLS, attempts were also made to categorize the mode of payment of wages and salaries to working children, which could either be on piece rate according to the tasks to be performed, on hourly basis; daily; weekly or monthly basis. Almost two thirds (65.9 percent) of paid children workers got their pay on monthly basis, followed by piece rate (19.8 percent), payment a hourly basis was the least practiced accounted for only 1.9 percent of all working children.

1.2.3 Child labour and the education system

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 envisages the total elimination of poverty by 2025 and thus accords high priority to the education sector, which is considered to be pivotal in bringing about social and economic transformation. However, up to date the education in general and primary education in particular is one of the underlying factors that are closely associated with and sustain the incidence of child labour in Tanzania.

To start with, the learning environment is still not conducive in most of the primary schools in Tanzania. There are shortages, for example, of teachers where the teacher pupil's ratio has been worsening from 1:40 in 1999 to 1:57 in 2003. There are shortages of classrooms, while at the national level pupil/classroom ratio is 1:80 in some regions like Mwanza it is 1:157 and in Dar es Salaam it is 1:116. For desks, on average at national level 4 pupils share one desk while in Dodoma 6 pupils share one desk. There are also shortages of text and exercise books, and even toilets (MOEDC: 2002) in most primary schools.

The inadequate infrastructure in primary schools demoralizes pupils' interest to learn. Consequently, they either drop out of school or become truants before they join the army of child labourers in the informal sector activities.

Secondly, there are also insufficient linkages between the content of education and the needs of the labour market and the local economy as a whole. For example, during the ILO/DFID sponsored baseline study on the nature and extent of child labour in Tanzania conducted in 2000 some of the children interviewed said that they engage into child labour because the education system was not so good for them. Some of them left school because of the punishments given to them by teachers especially caning. Others indicated that it was better to make money because they did not see any benefit of going to school. They expected to be employed after school or selected for further education. They do not see children finishing primary school being selected to go to secondary school, get employed and even those finishing secondary school education do not get employment. Hence they emphasized that going to school is wastage of time.

Galabawa (2001) points out that the dropout rates in Tanzania primary school tend to be associated with age, gender and social economic status. With the exception of Coast districts and gender sensitive areas like Tarime, Bariadi and Ngorongoro, drop-out rates are higher among boys than girls. They tend to be high at grade one, four and six because of the possible disinterest in schooling and the dry curriculum offered. The general lack of schooling monitoring of learning, achievement and quality is another determinant of dropouts.

For those who drop out of school, systems that cater for specific needs and mainstream them back into formal education have been inadequate. There are insufficient structures in place to assist and motivate poor communities to send their children to school, and to ensure that they do not remain outside the formal education system and become potential child labourers

Parents in poor households who send their children to school not only incur the direct and indirect costs of education but also the opportunity cost, which is the wage that the children will earn if the time at school were spent working.

For those who happen to complete primary school education very few, only about 10 percent are selected to join secondary school education (MOEC: 2002). This transition to secondary schools from primary schools had persistently remained lower than any other sub Saharan Africa (URT: 2002). The reason for low secondary school enrolment is basically lack of secondary schools in many areas. Therefore, the majority ends up being absorbed in different informal sector activities where others engage in the worst forms of child labour.

1.2.4 Other push and pull factors

Apart from unconducive school environment, which sometimes forces some children to drop from school or to be truants and engage in child labour, there are several factors that push and pull children into child labour. In their investigation on the worst forms of child labour in Tanzania and particular in the informal sector Kadonya, Madihi and Mtwana (2002) identified four major factors. Those factors were economic factors, social factors, political factors and child-centred factors.

The most notable cause of child labour that ranked highly in their investigation was absolute poverty. In Tanzania poverty is largely a rural phenomenon. In the rural areas, incomes are lower and poverty is more widespread and deeper than in urban centres. The poor are concentrated in subsistence agriculture. Within the rural areas farmers are poorest than non-farmers. This situation forces some children to migrate to urban areas and they end up being street and working children.

Although poverty is less acute in the urban areas, it is still a serious problem. According to the 2000/01 Household Budget Survey (HBS), the basic needs poverty incidence to Dar es Salaam was 17.6 percent, and for the other urban areas 23.8 percent compared to 28.1 percent and 28.7 percent in 1991/1992 respectively. (URT: 2002) The urban poor are concentrated in the informal sector.

Non-income poverty can also be vividly seen in Tanzania for example, in education where the available data suggest that the poor are more likely to be less educated, high mortality rates (especially among infants and under five children) and corresponding low life expectancy, malnutrition among children, non availability of clean water and the vulnerability of most people to unpredictable events such as famine and HIV/AIDS.

Among social factors, death of parents and/or guardians ranks high. With the rise of HIV/AIDS incidences where Tanzania ranks 6th and 18th according to absolute numbers of infected population and as a percentage of her population in the sub Saharan Africa respectively (Patel: 2001). Due to that Tanzania was estimated to have 600,000 orphans by 2000. Another social factor is irresponsible parenthood either due to alcoholism, having multiple marriages and large families, marriage breakdown and divorces leading to step parenthood. All these cause children to move to the streets and work while still young.

Another significant cause of children engaging themselves in child labour is the negative attitude of some parents towards formal education. This has been demonstrated by some parents' refusal to enrol their school-going age children in primary schools. The explanation given is that even if they were to enrol their children in school, they end up not securing any employment in the formal sector upon their completion.

While government policies initiated by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund have to some extent succeeded in improving macro-economic indicators, little positive change has been registered in the living conditions of most families, which are still poor and therefore precipitate child labour.

Apart from socio-economic and political factors contributing to children's involvement in the informal child labour activities other reasons include delinquency, peer influence and lack of skills acquisition. All these factors are child-centred factors.

1.3 Worst forms of child labour in the informal sector

1.2.2 Introduction

Child labour refers to work that is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful to children and interferes with their schooling either by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school or by obliging them to leave school prematurely or by requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work. In its most extreme forms, it involves children being enslaved, separated from their families, exposed to serious hazards and illnesses and/or left to fend for themselves on the streets of large cities all of this often at a very early age (ILO: 2002).

The ILO convention No. 182 defines the worst forms of child labour as:

- ☞ All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, as well as forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflicts.
- ☞ The use procuring or offering of child for prostitution for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances.
- ☞ The use, procurement or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in relevant international treaties and;
- ☞ Work, which by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children, such harmful work to be determined by national authorities.

Tanzania has ratified the above convention. Likewise, it has ratified the minimum age for admission to employment, the ILO convention No. 138.

1.3.2 Dimension and characteristics of the worst forms of child Labour (WFCL)

In 2001 Tanzania was among the 19 countries, which participated in the investigation of the WFCL, which was sponsored by ILO through IPEC/SIMPOC. Among the 38 rapid assessments, which were done worldwide, seven were from Tanzania. The sectors that were investigated included commercial agriculture where working children in tea, tobacco, coffee and horticulture were targeted;

others were from mining, prostitution and informal sector. These studies indicated there is a high prevalence of WFCL in Tanzania.

In this sub-section the study on the informal sector, which was urban based will be presented to show the prevalence of WFCL in Tanzania.

In the informal sector a total of 157 working children in the cities of Dar es Salaam and Mwanza and in the Municipality of Arusha who were engaged in scavenging, quarrying, garage and fishing and fish processing were interviewed. Only about 10 percent of the respondents were girls. As Kadonya, Madihi and Mtwana (2002) have observed in Tanzania girls tend to be hired for domestic work, rather than in the informal sector activities selected for the study. Girls are used to perform domestic work believed to be more trustful than boys in the households hired.

On the ages of those working children, Table 19 shows their percentage distribution according to their sex.

Table 19: Percentage distribution of working children in the urban informal sector by age and sex (N=157)

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
6<=	0.6	0.6	1.3
7 – 9	0.0	0.6	0.6
10 – 13	26.8	5.7	32.5
14 – 17	63.1	2.5	65.6
Total	90.6	9.4	100.0

Source: Kadonya, Madihi and Mtwana: 2002

Table 19 depicts that about one third of those working children were aged below 14 years and about 2 percent were even below 10 years of age. The remaining two thirds were relatively older children aged between 14 and 17 years. Also the same table shows that girls were much younger compared with the boys.

Only 32 percent of the interviewed working children were born in the study areas, while the rest were migrants. Among the migrants 64 percent migrated with their parents or they came to urban areas to stay with their relatives while the 29 percent came either to look for employment or acquire skills in the IS especially on garage activities. The rest had run away from their homes due to mistreatment by either their parents or guardians and other abuses.

On family status and size, about 43 percent of all working children interviewed, were either staying with both parents and other relatives including grandparents, aunts, uncles and siblings within the same household. Working children who stayed with only their mothers comprised 19 percent, followed by 13.4 percent who were staying with other adults like their employers. Only 4.4 were living with their fathers only. About 20 percent either lived alone or with their friends/peers. As far as family sizes were concerned about 36 percent of the working children were staying in households with no fewer than six members.

Their educational profile will be presented in the next sub-section, which specifically deals with that issue.

During the survey, children who were engaged in scavenging the majority 61.3 percent were found scavenging boxes, bottles and tins. These items were in high demand for paper and beverage industries as well as for other informal sector activities. Scavenging for food, either for the children themselves or for household consumption was carried out by 12 percent of all scavenging children. The remaining 27 percent were engaged in scavenging toys, shoes, clothing, timber pieces and charcoal. Other items were plastic bags, rubber bands, electrical wires, photos and magazines.

The second group of working children, which was male dominated, was involved in garage activities. Mechanical work was the dominant task performed by about 49 percent of all interviewed working children in the informal garages. The second outstanding task was panel beating. Car spraying, painting and auto-electrical work followed as the tasks least performed. Working children in the informal garages were always under supervision of adults and in most cases their participation was taken as part of an apprenticeship.

The third group of working children was engaged in fishing and fish processing activities. Although boys dominated in these activities, key informants indicated that the participation of girls in fish processing activities increases during the fishing seasons. The majority (about 41 percent) of the interviewed working children in this group were ferrying fish from boats and canoes at the shore to platforms at beaches. Another activity was to remove equipment and carry them to fishermen's village along the beaches. Finally, the working children had to come back again and wash the boats and canoes to prepare them for parking. If the child was working on an engine-powered boat, it was his responsibility to buy and carry cans of diesel or petrol from the filling stations to beaches. Other duties included helping in mending fishing nets and buying food from food vendors for the fishermen.

The second major task was fish bisecting and cutting to pieces or filets and then washing the same on the shores of the lake. Fish bisecting was followed by salting and drying in the sun for two to seven days, depending on the intensity of the sunshine. An added responsibility to this task was to make sure that fish, bisected fish and fillets were not stolen. This process engaged about 14 percent of all interviewed working children in fishing and fish processing activities.

Actual fishing attracted twelve percent of working children engaged in fishing and fish processing activities. This activity was done, either from the shores by using hooks or nets or in deep waters. Another task, which attracted about 9 percent of all working children, was loading fresh fish into lorries for the big fish processing industries in the city. The task included cleaning the fish if they were dirt, removing ice by spade from one end of the lorry to another so that the fish could be packed properly, and then covering them up with ice for preservation. The last two tasks were scaling and removing fish intestines, washing them on the shores of the lake and collecting fish fats especially from Nile Perch (Sangara) which are very rich in fats.

Working children who were involved in quarrying activities constituted 18 percent of all working children who were interviewed in this study. The participation of girls in this activity was higher than in other activities studied. Girls who were participating in this activity made up 53 percent of all working children compared to 40 percent, 7 percent and none in scavenging activities, fishing and fish processing activities and garage activities respectively.

Collection of stones and crushed stones for and from stone crusher was the dominant task performed by 55 percent of all working children interviewed in this activity. The remaining 45 percent were crushing stones.

The study also revealed that the children worked on average nine hours per day, which was detrimental to their normal growth and development. About 46 percent worked every day without rest and despite the weather conditions. This situation has far reaching consequences in as far as school performance and child growth and development are concerned as it is doubtful that these children get ample time to rest, play and work in their school assignments.

Some of the working children in quarrying, garage and fishing and fish processing activities complained of body pains, sustaining injuries, abuse and contracting respiratory, water borne, and other water related diseases frequently. Children in scavenging complained of sustaining injuries, respiratory and diarrhea due to the nature of their activity, and the environment which was dirty, smell and included discarded expired hospital needles and syringes, broken bottles and dangerous chemicals. Despite all these dangers, children were found working without any protective gear such as gloves, helmets, gumboots, masks and glasses to protect themselves.

On modes of payment the majority 66.2 percent were paid in cash, followed by 14.0 percent who were paid in kind especially in fishing and fish processing activities, 12.7 percent were completely unpaid while the remaining 7.0 percent were apprentices. As far as their earnings were concerned on average they earned Tshs.679/= (US\$ 1 = Tshs.887/= by September, 2001) per day.

However their earnings depended with their activities and age. For example, some of those who were engaged in fishing and fish processing earned up to TShs. 1,115/= per day while those who were scavenging earned on average only TShs. 388/= per day. Moreover, older children earned more than the young children. For most of them those payments did not reflect the hardship and risks involved while working let alone for their physical upkeep.

All working children spend their earnings on their personal needs and others spend on their household budgets. On average the surveyed working children spent TShs. 361/= per day per person. Males spent on average TShs. 373/= compared to TShs. 189/= per day of their female counterparts. Most of the items which children spent their money on, in almost all activities were food, i.e. breakfast, lunch, and dinner for those children who stayed alone or preferred to be independent from their parents or guardians. However, the relatively highly paid children involved in fishing and fish processing as well as garage activities seemed to spend their earnings apart from food items on more luxurious goods and services like watching rated X video shows, paying prostitutes, buying cigarettes, alcohol and even marijuana and other drugs.

For the working children who were contributing to their household budgets on average contributed TShs. 311/= per day. However male working children contributed more (TShs. 323/=) per day than their female colleagues who contributed only TShs. 207/=. This disparity was attributed to the nature of the activities which female children performed e.g. fish scaling, scavenging for expired foodstuff for consumption and for discarded second-hand clothes, which had no market.

CHAPTER 2 - PREVENTION OF WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR THROUGH EDUCATION IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR

2.1 Introduction

Tanzania's development theory and practice are geared towards combating ignorance, disease and poverty. Investments in human capital and provision of education have been recognized as central to quality life. Provision of education and literacy to all is the cornerstone for quality life, has been recognized at national policy level. This is in accordance with the United Nations Declaration on Basic Human Rights and the Jomtien Declaration of 1990.

To achieve the above, a series of policies and reforms in the education sector since 1995 aims at ensuring that all eligible children have adequate access to good quality education especially, primary education. The policies maintain that no child should be denied access to basic education because of poverty, sex, disability, and cultural or religious background.

2.2 Primary formal education – in theory and practice

Galabawa (2001) has identified three phases on Tanzania's political thinking, which are intimately connected with Universal Primary Education (UPE). The first phase from 1967 to early 1980s, is associated with Socialism and Self-reliance. This phase saw phenomenal growth in enrolment into primary school. The gross enrolment rates, which were 35.1 in late 1960s and early 1970s, apparently grew to 98.0 percent in 1980 when the net enrolment rate was 68 percent. This period also experienced an increased allocation of government recurrent expenditure on education, which averaged 17 percent of the total government's expenditure. It was a phase that also answered to the call of education for all in a poor country committed to equitable and fair provision of education to all.

The second phase from mid 1980s to mid 1990s was characterized by ideas of free choice; market oriented schooling and cost efficiency. This had a highly pronounced adverse effect on UPE as demonstrated by falling enrolment rates, low intake rates and high internal inefficiency.

The third phase covered the period from mid 1990s and after marking the era of 'income and non-income' poverty collective thought. The collective national thought attempts to address the following:

- ☞ A donor dependence syndrome and a defeatist developmental mindset.
- ☞ A weak and low capacity for an education management.
- ☞ Failures in good governance in the organization and production of UPE.
- ☞ An ineffective implementation syndrome.

This commitment is exemplified by abolition of school fees and other household contributions to children education.

The Education Act, No. 25 of 1978 (amended in 1995) provides for compulsory enrolment and attendance of pupils in primary schools. Under Section 35 every child who is aged seven years but has not attained the age of 13 years must be enrolled for primary education. The Primary School (Compulsory Enrolment and Attendance) Rules of 1979 (Government Notice 129/1979) hold parents criminally liable if they fail to ensure that their child is enrolled and regularly attends primary

school until completion and the same for any other person interfering with a child's school attendance.

In practice however, not all of the seven years old children are enrolled into primary schools. This has been a result of many factors including abject poverty among parents who fail to meet the associated costs (especially before the abolition of school fees), long walking distance to school especially in rural areas, inadequate curricular, lack of value to education on the part of the parents and lack of space especially for schools in urban centres like Dar es Salaam.

Furthermore, it is estimated that, about 20 percent of children who enrol in primary schools drop out of schools every year for various reasons including early marriage and pregnancy among school girls, unconducive learning environment, which is characterized by dilapidated classrooms, shortage of desks and large class sizes especially in urban schools.

In order to improve the situation of primary education the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) formulated the Education and Training Policy, which was approved in March 1995. As part of the implementation of this policy, the Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP) was developed in 1997. Under the Master Plan, the following programmes were initiated:

- (a) The programme for Construction, Rehabilitation and Maintenance of Physical Infrastructure (CRAM) aims at improving the quality and quantity of primary school infrastructure. This move is likely to lead to increased enrolment, attendance and decline in truancy and dropout.
- (b) The Complementary Basic Education in Training (COBET) programme, aims at providing primary education to out-of-school children, including street children, dropouts and left-outs. Although this project is not specifically intended for children directly involved in child labour, it constitutes an alternative approach for providing primary education to such children. Under the COBET programme, there are two projects, namely, the Promotion and Strengthening of Correspondence and Continuing Education and Development of Community Based Adult Literacy Curriculum.
- (c) School and community health services programme to provide lunch, first aid treatment, personal hygiene, environmental sanitation and health education have direct and positive impact on the learning capacity of school children. The projects include promotion of school feeding, provision of clean and safe water and sanitation services in schools in communities and provision of health services in school and communities. The projects are likely to lead to more conducive teaching and learning environment and healthier communities.

Despite the Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP) Tanzania continued to experience stagnant or worsening primary education indicators. For example in 2000 the Gross Enrolment Rates (the capacity to accommodate all children seeking education at a given grade level) was 77.7 percent compared to a Net Enrolment Rate (the proportion of school age children actually enrolled) was 56.7 percent (Galabawa: 2001).

Hence the government came up with the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP), which is a five year plan (2002 – 2006) aimed at the delivery of sustainable good quality basic education. PEDP is an extensive programme that is implemented countrywide. This plan articulates the attainment of universal primary education within the frameworks of the Local Government Reform Programme

(LGRP). PEDP was prepared through consultative fora by the government and all stakeholders in education sector particular primary education. These include bilateral and multilateral organizations, NGOs and CBOs.

The main thrust of PEDP lies in the following four strategic priority areas:

- ✓ Enrolment expansion
- ✓ Quality improvement
- ✓ Capacity building
- ✓ Strengthening institutional arrangements

A monitoring exercise for PEDP, which was done for the first year of the plan (2001/2002) shows achievements, constraints, innovations employed and capacity requirement needed in the implementation of the plan.

First of all, the monitoring exercise revealed remarkable achievement in registration and enrolment in year 2002 was 1,659,847 pupils against the target of 1,500,000 pupils with an increase of 10.7 percent. As compared to 2001 registration of 1,140,544 pupils there was an increase of 45.5 percent. Gross enrolment ratio (GER) in year 2002 was 100.7 while net enrolment ratio (NER) was 99.3. Also the ratio of boys and girls enrolment in Standard I was 1.06 while that of all pupils Standard I – VII was 1.04. The abolition of school fees and other mandatory parental contributions from January 2002 has contributed a lot to this achievement.

It is estimated that more than three million Tanzania children and young people between ages of 7 and 18 years have dropped out of school or have never been enrolled (MOEC: 2001). This very large number is likely to decrease with the abolition of school fees from January 2002. However, given the weak capacity of the formal school system and the resource constraints likely to prevail in education for the foreseeable future, it is possible that significant number of children from the specified age group is likely to remain outside the formal system. Therefore the phase one of registration of children 11 to 13 years old for COBET programme was done in all regions in 2001/2002 where a total of 365,963 children among them 240,280 boys and 125,683 girls were enrolled (MOEC: 2002).

As far as teachers are concerned a total of 9,100 teachers were recruited for the first year 2001/2002. Allocation of teachers to councils was based on teacher pupil ratio (1:50). All Councils with teacher pupil ratio above 1:50 were allocated a number of teachers to be recruited. In some regions like Shinyanga, Tabora, Rukwa, Kagera and Kigoma however, the allocated teaching posts were not filled. This could be attributed to the hostile geographical and cultural environments, which are not attractive to new teachers. Also a total of 13,414 teachers underwent in-service training at various training centres.

As an interim measure for meeting the increased enrolment, double shift teaching system has been found to be one of the alternatives for reducing overcrowding of children in classrooms. It was observed by the evaluation team however that communities in some urban areas do not prefer the double shift system, for reasons including limited security of the pupils, lack of meals at schools and the ineffectiveness of teachers during the afternoon sessions. It can also be observed that in areas with fewer teachers, the double shift teaching has increased the workload of teachers and resulted in better utilization of teachers in areas where there are adequate teachers and fewer classrooms.

The number of classroom constructed was 16,494 of which 8,817 were completed in 2001/2002 and 7,677 were at different levels of construction. The construction used both resources allocated and community efforts. Other achievements included construction of teachers' houses, toilet blocks, staff rooms, supply of textbooks and other educational materials and availability and disbursement of funds to councils.

The monitoring team also revealed a number of constraints. They included insufficient school management and financial management skills, acute shortage of teachers' houses, lack of funds and facilities to enable the regions to follow up and monitor PEDP implementation, disbursing education's other charges from treasury without clear instructions; delay in distribution of PEDP documents and partial dissemination at regional, council and community levels.

In order to take aboard realities and make PEDP a success some Councils have employed encouraging innovations. These include sending officials to councils piloting COBET so as to gain and borrow their experiences, make use of the community efforts to construct additional classrooms and schools to reduce the possibility of more children enrolling in already over-populated schools and use of savings from construction funds to rehabilitate school buildings.

Capacity requirements identified included providing funds for training PEDP main actors at all levels, supervision and regular monitoring, transport and provision of COBET teaching and learning materials.

Indeed, the current efforts by the government, non-governmental organizations and individuals to reform basic education in Tanzania will most likely result into the reduction of the magnitude of the child labour problem.

2.3 Education status of working children

In this sub-section the educational profile of working children in WFCL in the informal sector, which were investigated in 2002 in the Cities of Dar es Salaam, Mwanza and Municipality of Arusha will be presented. Table 20 shows their percentage distribution according to their education levels by age.

Table 20: Percentage distribution of working children in the informal

sector by education status and age (N = 157)					
Education Status	Age Group				Total
	6<=	7 – 9	10 - 13	14-17	
Never enrolled	1.3	0.0	14.0	8.3	23.6
Dropout from primary education	0.0	0.0	5.7	13.4	19.1
Attending primary education	0.0	0.6	12.7	9.6	22.9
Completed primary education	0.0	0.0	0.0	34.4	34.4
Total	1.3	0.6	32.5	65.6	100.0

Source: Kadonya, Madihi and Mtwana 2002

The education profile of working children in the informal sector, as depicted by the table above, indicates that at least one third of working children had completed primary school education. They were followed by those never enrolled, who accounted for at least a quarter of all interviewed working children, the majority of whom 59 percent were aged 10 – 13 years. Similarly, the study revealed that 23 percent of the working children were primary school pupils who also worked on part-time basis. The remaining working children, estimated at about 20 percent, were primary school dropouts, the majority 70 percent of whom were aged between 14 to 17 years. The picture emerging

from this finding is that the majority of working children are either dropouts or primary school leavers.

2.4 Alternative Educational Strategy

The Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) is one of the alternative education strategies. As it has been indicated in the previous section, this programme aims at providing primary education to out-of-school children, including street children, dropouts and left-outs who are aged 8 to 18 years. Although this project is not specifically intended for children directly involved in child labour, it constitutes an alternative approach for providing primary education to such children.

COBET is an initiative spearheaded by the MOEC and it has been piloted in 50 centres in five districts namely Kisarawe, Songea Rural, Ngara, Musoma Rural and Masasi Districts. UNICEF provided technical support, with financial support from the government of Norway and CIDA.

Under the COBET, classes are formed using two age cohorts, cohort one (for children aged 8 to 13) and cohort two (14 to 18 years). The intended three-year cycle allow the cohort one children to mainstream into formal primary school system education level while cohort two are expected to attempt the Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE) and join secondary education or vocational institutions. The programme is therefore meant to complement the formal primary education system and not to replace it or operate as a parallel system.

Unlike the formal schooling, which has a fixed timetable and premises, the COBET programmes are flexible. First of all COBET classes (they are called COBET centres) are in many cases conducted in different premises from the formal primary schools. These COBET centres include village/local government offices, church houses, mosques, community social centres, warehouses and private houses. Secondly, communities play a crucial role in the planning, implementation and management of education in their local areas. For example, parents, children and the facilitators decide when to begin and finish classes. The number of contract hours does not exceed four hours per day. This allows children to undertake other activities such as doing petty business or helping their parents in household activities.

Basic subjects taught include Communication Skills (Kiswahili and English), Mathematics, General Knowledge, Vocational Skills and Personality Development including Life Skills. The Tanzania Institute of Education, which is also responsible for the formal education curriculum and training, material development develops the curriculum and institution materials for COBET in collaboration with the experts from the MOEC, other institutions and relevant NGOs.

Normally three facilitators operate each COBET centre. One Grade A teacher is hired and paid by the MOEC. The other two are para-professionals with certificate equivalent to secondary education. They are recruited locally and are paid by the district authorities. The training of facilitators to improve on skills orientation in the use of new materials is an ongoing activity.

CHAPTER 3 - DESCRIPTION OF THE ACTUAL FUNCTIONING OF SKILLS TRAINING IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter prevention of worst forms of child labour through education was addressed. In this chapter the description of the actual functioning of skills training in the informal sector will be examined. Specifically the chapter will address the overview on skills training sector, main training providers, and traditional apprenticeship training system.

3.2 Overview on skill training sector

After independence the Apprenticeship Ordinance, Chap.18 of the Laws (1940) remained the main guidance for training within the industry. In 1974 the first Vocational Education and Training Act (VET Act) was passed, which provided for the establishment of a National Vocational Training Division (NVTD) within the Ministry of Labour. The main responsibilities of the Division were to ensure an adequate supply of properly trained manpower at all industrial levels of craftsmen and to secure improved quality and efficiency.

The training system, which emerged was dual, the first phase being a two-year institution-based training followed by a three years' phase of apprenticeship training within the industry. A system of trade testing was established, in order to assure formal recognition of training completed (trade tests III, II and I). However, the implementation of the Act proved to be difficult, especially with regard to in-plant and apprenticeship training (Pfander and Gold: 2000).

In 1981 the Government approved a 20-year development plan for vocational training. The plan aimed at initially establishing a Vocational Training Centre (VTC) in each region (with industrial focus), and subsequently in each district (with focus on agriculture/local crafts) by the year 2000. This plan was based on a purely supply-driven approach to manpower development, which proved to be unsatisfactory later on.

Between 1986 and 1990 the Government undertook a major review of the VET system (with support from SIDA and DANIDA), as the labour market situation and consequently the demand for vocational training had changed drastically. The Government was no longer to be the major employer and the parastatals no longer the main absorbers of graduates from VTCs. The review of the VET system ran parallel with the socio-economic transformation-taking place, and it was the first step of linking vocational training with the restructured economy.

Pfander and Gold (2000) outline the main findings of the review mentioned above as follows:

- ✓ The training centres operated in isolation from the industry they were supposed to serve. As a consequence, a mismatch between qualifications and labour market demand developed.
- ✓ The NVTC did not satisfactorily fulfil its role as a forum for policy dialogue and system development.
- ✓ Instructors were inadequately trained and, quality of training was low.
- ✓ The lack of apprenticeship placements hampered the functioning of the training system.
- ✓ The trade testing system was expensive complicated and inefficient.

✓ The VET system was very centralized and did not encourage regional initiative. These findings were the basis for the Government to embark on a large-scale reform process in the early 1990s.

In 1991, a core group of stakeholders started to develop new policy guidelines for vocational training in Tanzania. The group included representatives of the Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE), and the Organization of Tanzania Trade Unions (OTTU), later registered as Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions (FTTU) and today replaced by the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA). Representation also involved Government ministries, academic institutions, as well as of the public and private industries. The core group's findings and recommendations formed the basis for developing a draft policy on VET, which was presented to the Government within the same year. The central recommendation regarding institutional reforms was the establishment of the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA), to be financed by a VET Levy and supervised by a National Board. This culminated in the passing of the second VET Act of 1994, which is the current legal framework for Government programmes and donor assistance with regard to the development of the VET system in Tanzania.

As an authority VETA has multiple roles, namely policy making, setting standards, financing training providers, operating own training centres, as well as offering services such as vocational teacher training and trade testing. VETA is to meet social demand and labour market needs in all sectors of the Tanzania economy (formal and informal) and to provide suitable training and training facilities at the same time. More specifically, VETA has been given the task to ensure that the VET system is demand-oriented, cost effective and gradually decentralizes its functions to the regions. A continuation of the dual training system is foreseen in the 1994 VET Act, combining broad basic training, gradual specialization and practical experience at work. The promotion of on-the-job training in industry both for apprentices and updating or upgrading of skills is one of the responsibilities of VETA. In addition, VETA is to foster a flexible training approach and appropriate teaching methodologies.

VETA was originally designed for primary school leavers who were not able to find places in either public or private secondary schools. Nowadays VETA provides training to both primary and secondary school leavers. However, entrance requirements have led to an increased intake of form IV school leavers. Currently VETA coordinates 764 VTCs offering 90 different long skills courses and tailor made short courses (VETA: 2003). Also it provides training at 10 designated model centres and 10 VTCs as well as running a resource centre (TEVETA: 2002).

The top authority within VETA is given to a tripartite plus National Board (which currently has 11 members), comprising representatives of the Government, of employers' and employees' organizations, as well as representatives of non-governmental training institutions. The ministries represented are the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), the Ministry of Labour and Youth Development (MOLYD), as well as the Ministry of Industries and Trade (MIT). The Board elects the Director General of VETA. It is also responsible for developing VET policies and for supervising implementation at a national level. It also sets policies and guidelines for the use of the VET Fund and is responsible for approving plans and annual budgets. Regional Boards and Trade Advisory Committees assist the National Board in determining regional training priorities and in coordinating all VET at regional level. In each region there is a Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre (RVTSC). The RVTSCs are the resource centers for other VTCs in the region, regardless of whether they are run by VETA, NGOs, private companies or other institutions.

Trade Advisory Committees (TACs) have on the other hand been given the responsibility to ensure that the VET programmes comply with the needs of the employment market. They have an advisory function to the Board with regard to setting up new VET programmes, abolishing existing ones, as well as with regard to training specifications and training standards. In addition, the TACs are to feedback information about the training activities to the employment market.

~~The VET fund is mainly from a training~~ levy, which is set at 2 percent of total gross emoluments payable by the employer in enterprises with four or more employees. Besides the VET Levy, there are modest contributions from trainee fees and from production, as well as considerable contributions from external donors. The VET fund is meant to be used for financing vocational training through VETA, and also supporting other training providers. The Board establishes the funding criteria.

For a smooth implementation of the 1994 VET Act, the VETA Board, with the support of a group of donors (SIDA, DANIDA, IRISH AID, GTZ and JICA) developed a Strategic Action Plan for 1996-1999 (SAP 1). The main objective of the plan was to ensure that VETA's institutional and management systems are functioning as provided for under the Act and that training provided meets the needs of the labour market. SAP I consisted of 5 components.

- (i) Development of institutional structures and management systems (VETA secretariat and headquarters).
- (ii) Development of the Regional Boards and RVTSCs (strengthening regional institutions).
- (iii) Training System Development (training, testing and certification).
- (iv) Development of the National Vocational Teachers Training College in Morogoro (MVTTC).
- (v) Gender issues and promotion of entrepreneurship and preventive maintenance.

In order to prepare the trainees for self-employment in the IS, SAP 1 called for the provision of targeted skills training accompanied by basic business/administration training (simple cost calculation, bookkeeping and marketing). For those already working in the IS, there was need for short courses for up-grading entrepreneurship skills in the sense of attitude and local cultural climate conducive to micro enterprise as the basis of informal sector activities, was to be stimulated.

VETA finalized in November 1999 a second Strategic Action (SAP II) for the year 2000-2004. The overall objective of SAP II is "to ensure demand driven and quality gender focused VET provision in Tanzania". This overall objective has been translated into four outputs, as listed below.

- (i) A demand driven VET system developed and implemented.
- (ii) Effective national VET provision support systems developed and implemented.
- (iii) VETA has become financially sustainable.
- (iv) Organizational and management systems have been developed and implemented.

The focus of SAP II is on operationalising the infrastructure designed during SAP I, rather than on developing more infrastructure. Technical support, capacity building and organizational development will become vital elements. The involvement of stakeholders as during the design of SAP I shall continue during the implementation phase. The two major donors (DANIDA and GTZ) have agreed to assist VETA in implementing SAP II for another phase of cooperation of three years that started in June 2000.

In its activities, VETA takes a trainee-focused approach: it aims to provide employment oriented training to young people, be it in the formal or the informal sector. The ultimate goal is to improve the chances for employment through job-related vocational competencies. Since the capacity of the formal sector to absorb the trained workers is dwindling, VETA puts an additional focus on the growing prospect in the IS.

3.3 Main training providers

Apart from VETA itself there are several of both public and private sector training providers in Tanzania. The main ones are Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) under the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, Post Primary Technical Colleges (PPTCs) under the Ministry of Education and Culture, Small Industries Development Organizations (SIDO) under the Ministry of Trade and Industries and Social Welfare Department Vocational Training Centres for disabled. Together with these formal training institutions, NGOs, donors and mission schools provide a wide diversity of vocational education training. More recently, private training institutions have arisen to fill the apparent gaps of the informal training sector especially computer training.

3.1.1 The Folk Development Centres (FDCs)

FDCs were born out of the idea that technical and business skills needed to be promoted in the rural areas in Tanzania to support adults to engage in gainful activities as part of efforts to stem rural-urban migration. With the assistance of SIDA, a total of 58 FDCs, have been established since 1975. It was initially planned that each district in the country had to have at least one FDC. These centres have a total capacity of enrolling 3,600 people, but the currently average utilization is estimated at only 15 percent (ILO: 2002).

The FDCs were primarily a tool for the Post Literacy Education Programme of the Ministry of Education and aimed their activities not only at the youth but also explicitly at adults. They sought to transfer relevant skills for agriculture and other community based economic activities, together with providing literacy skills and promoting Tanzania culture. In practice, the emphasis was very much on adult education. In 1990 the responsibility of FDCs was transferred to the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children. The focus of the FDCs shifted then to the community development in a broader sense. The target is now on primary school leavers and gradually also Form IV secondary school leavers.

Originally the curriculum at the FDCs focused on three core areas: -

- (i) Agricultural Skills
- (ii) Home economics (nutrition, cookery, needlework and tailoring
- (iii) Technical subjects such as masonry carpentry plumbing, electrical installation and welding.

The courses ranged from short courses of even one day mainly geared to problem solving training and long-term courses of up to two years for youth. But in recent years the FDCs have been focusing on pre-employment vocational training for youth, using standardized VETA curricula and preparing for formal VETA certification also five FDCs cater also for the handicapped

The government provides permanent teaching staff, many of which have an educational background, but little training qualification in craft skills development. Also because originally objective of the FDCs was not vocational training they tend to lack appropriate tools and equipment. Some do not even have the right infrastructure and facilities for skill training. The tools and equipment are mostly obsolete and worn out. The government also provides teaching materials and meals. Initially the

financing of the expenditure of FDCs was to come in equal parts from the government, the communities, and through income generating activities. When in 1994 the government stopped its contributions to cover only the salary costs of the staff, the FDCs introduced training fees. The FDCs now charge between TShs. 25,00/= to 150,000/= for long courses of three months to two years.

3.3.2 Post Primary Technical Training Colleges (PPTCs)

PPTCs were established in 1990s to provide a two years training programme in domestic science, carpentry, masonry and tin smithing in approximately three hundred centres. Currently there are 284 centres throughout the country (ILO: 2002). Lack of funds to pay recurrent costs, inefficient qualified teachers and inadequate curricula has led to a huge underutilization of the PPTCs which their enrolment has been around 4,000 with an initial capacity of 50,000 trainees.

3.3.3 Church owned training centres

In Tanzania there is a large number of church owned vocational training centres scattered all over the country. They are estimated to be responsible for about 30 percent of all vocational training conducted in Tanzania. Most of these centres provide technical oriented skills mainly carpentry, masonry, motor mechanics, tailoring and secretarial services, among others.

Many of these training centres are based in rural communities and regional centres in urban areas. They provide pre-employment skills training to young school leavers, usually with a minimum requirement of completion of primary education. Gradually secondary school leavers are also joining the centres. The trainees usually come from the respective dioceses and are predominantly boys.

Most of the church owned training centres are run by directors who report to their boards and in some cases directly to the church hierarchy.

3.3.4 Non Profit Training Providers

Traditionally non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have also filled part of the vacuum left by the public sector and include skills development as part of the services for their target group (which invariably mainly consisted of Micro-credit schemes and social services).

3.3.5 Private Commercial Training Providers

With privatization and decline in training under parastatals, the number of private training institutions has grown gradually. These training institutions provide training in mainly “modern” subjects like computer courses, English language and Management skills. Some of these institutions are partly supported by donors or NGOs, but most operate on their own and they are a bit expensive compared with other providers.

3.3.6 Vocational Rehabilitation Training Centres (VRTC)

In Tanzania there are four vocational rehabilitation centres under the Department of Social Welfare. The Yombo VRTC in Dar es Salaam is the biggest of all centres. It has a capacity of 150 students and admits crippled or lame persons offering various vocational training like carpentry, masonry, tailoring, office management, painting, shoe making and electronics. Singida VRTC in central Tanzania is the centre for blind and it has a capacity of taking 56 students per year. The trades taught include weaving, tailoring, handcraft, stitching, Braille, agriculture and domestic science. The nature of the trades taught and the disability itself is a big obstacle towards self-employment. Manoleo VRTC is located in Tabora region the centre caters for blind students. Trades offered at the centre

are telephone operation, carpentry, agriculture and Braille. The centre has a capacity of 50 students per year. Mtapika Masasi VRTC is located in the Southern part of Tanzania in Mtwara region. The centre is also for the blind and has a capacity to take 72 students at a time. Agriculture and carpentry are the main trades offered at the centre.

3.4 Traditional Apprenticeship Training

3.4.1 Dimension

According to the 2000/01 ILFS almost 90 percent of the Tanzania labour force in the informal sector acquired its skills while working i.e. it did not receive any formal training for the work they were doing. Almost the same percentage was observed in the 1990/91 NISS. This indicates that most of the working population in the informal sector received its training through enterprise based training. This can be through traditional apprenticeship system or just through on the job trial and error learning.

3.4.2 Actual Functioning

3.4.2.1 Admission

Like in other African countries the admission in the traditional apprenticeship is mainly based on family ties. This ranges from recruiting direct relatives to recruiting those from the extended family or close friends. Therefore, as Mwinuka (1996) noted under the traditional apprenticeship system, it is mainly the parents who make the necessary contacts with the master craftsmen, which make the potential trainee to be admitted. However, master craftsmen are willing to take up apprentices from elsewhere and train them, provided that this does not interfere too much with production (Monji: 1995).

3.4.2.2 Payment of Fees

Different studies show different percentages of master craftsmen who charge their apprentices. These differences emanate from the different samples taken from different trades. However few master craftsmen who have apprentices charge a fee. While Monji (1995) estimated to be only 3 percent, Nell and Shappiro (1999) indicated to be 18.6 and Mwinuka (1996) revealed that at least one third of all master craftsmen were charging their apprentices. Although the charge varied from trade to trade all the above authors revealed that master craftsmen were charging apprentices very little money on average only TShs. 2,000/= per month.

Apart from the majority of the apprentices not paying for the training they receive, some of the master craftsmen provide them with shelter/accommodation, free meals and even pocket money. On the other hand some of those who are not paying in cash for training had to commit themselves for a certain period of time or contribute towards purchase of some of the materials.

3.4.2.3 Apprenticeship Contract

As indicated above the criteria applied in taking youth as apprentices mainly is trustworthiness of the candidate and mostly associated with kinship or friendship ties. This makes formal contracts between master craftsmen and their apprentices to be few. The lack of a clear indication of obligations between the master craftsmen and the apprentice in a form of contract has contributed to the high dropout of apprentices, which Monji (1995) estimated to be forty percent.

3.4.2.4 Training Method

The most common method of training used by the master craftsmen to train apprentices is by demonstration and instruction. Most of the master craftsmen being themselves self-made entrepreneurs have had no training in training others to begin with.

3.4.2.5 Duration of Training

The duration of training also varies from trade to trade and from one master craftsman to the other. The studies by Monji (1995), Nell and Shappiro (1999) and Mwinuka (1996) show that the training for example in carpentry on average took one to three years, tailoring six months to more than a year, mechanics two to three years up to even five years. Masonry and bricklaying one year to two, metal and tin smithing three to six months and shoemaking one to three years.

The criterion for completing apprenticeship training is the level of skills acquired by the apprentice as assessed by the master craftsmen. No certification of any kind is available.

What can be deduced from the above is that traditional apprenticeship in Tanzania is not organized. There is no common syllabus, which is followed by all trainers of even a particular trade. Each trainer devises his/her syllabus from the trade he/she is training.

3.4.2.6 Employment After Training

In their study Nell and Shapiro (1999) obtained information on the current employment status of 60 percent of all the apprentices trained by the interviewed enterprise in the past five years. The table below summarizes the findings.

Table 21: Current status of apprentices who completed their training period

Employment Status	Male	Female	Total
Employed in enterprise	7.7	2.0	6.3
Still in business	2.5	6.6	3.5
Found job in formal business in some trade	0.2	0.0	0.1
Found job in same trade	11.9	11.7	11.8
Found job in different trade	2.7	1.5	2.4
Set up business in similar trade	32.6	15.8	28.5
Set up business in different trade	2.8	4.1	3.1
Unemployed	2.7	6.6	3.7
Unknown	37.0	51.5	40.6
Total absolute numbers	598	196	794

Source: Nell and Shapiro 1999

The table above shows that the largest number of those apprentices (29 percent) set up a business for themselves in the same trade in which they were trained. This was found to be twice as common for young men (33 percent) then for young women (16 percent). Another 12 percent found jobs in the informal enterprises in the same trade. Others were still in the same enterprise where they were apprenticed, while 4 percent were unemployed (again twice as many young women as men)

3.4.3 TAT Intervention

Traditional apprenticeship training is a completely self-organizing on the job training system and has until recently, never been officially taken note of and never been affected by interventions. Traditional apprenticeship training is available in a range of traditional technical skills. Financing, arrangements and duration differ from trade to trade and from one master craftsman is another.

Haan (2001) indicates that VETA has identified a number of constraints to skills development in informal worksites through training by master craftspeople as follows.

- ☞ There is no uniform neither training system nor training plan, which ensures the transfer of a set of relevant skills from master craftspeople to apprentices.
- ☞ Training is not a priority, and master craftspeople lack the pedagogical skills required.
- ☞ Skills transfer is limited to technical skills and does not include business skills or knowledge about occupational safety and health.
- ☞ Training is not based on a contract and often not even on a clear understanding of the duties and rights of both parties, often there is a family relationship between the master and the apprentice, and in other cases the fee is waived on the understanding that the apprentice will contribute free labour.
- ☞ Training takes place at the present technological level of the informal sector and does not prepare the MSEs for the skills required to meet new quality standards following for example, from trade liberalization and globalization.
- ☞ Apprenticeship training does not lead to certification so that the quality of the training provided remains uncertain for both present and future trainees as well as potential employers.

VETA, together with support from the ILO (1998-99) and the GTZ (since 1999), has been implementing pilot programmes to improve traditional apprenticeship through building the technical skills and training capacity of informal sector master craftsmen. The pilot programmes focused on the Dar es Salaam region.

The programme worked through 15 groups, including associations and self-help groups in Temeke, the least developed and assisted district in Dar es Salaam. It purposely sought to include both male and female master craftspeople, and for that reason it focused on manufacturing (carpentry, tin-smithing, welding), services (car and electrical repair, panel beating) and trade (food vendors and traders). Of the 95 master craftspeople identified (employing some 200 apprentices), 14 were women. A training needs assessment (TNA) was carried out by trainers from VETA and other institutions (VETA, 1998). Some of the findings revealed that: 75 per cent of the craftspeople had completed primary education and 92 per cent of them had obtained their skills through apprenticeship and practice without formal vocational training, while 8 percent had followed training at a vocational training centre with 7 percent a grade – III trade test and 1 percent a grade I test certificate. A further analysis of the skills of the masters showed deficiencies in technical quality assurance, costing, business skills and pedagogical skills.

3.4.4 Training of Master Craftsmen

In the informal sector apprenticeship learning is limited to the knowledge and experience of master craftsmen. Research which has been done shows that many entrepreneurs who are themselves master craftsmen have little formal training or none (1990/91: NISS)

In the same studies those master craftsmen have always been asked about their own training needs. Most of them have always been interested in acquiring technical skills according to the trades they do and on marketing abilities.

Important reasons why the master craftsmen have not yet followed such training are given by Haan (2001) as either is too costly for them, or training normally are given at the wrong hours, or there is no time to follow or there is no relevant training available. They however are willing to pay for appropriate training, depending on the time and quality/relevance. Therefore, there is a need for VETA and other vocational training providers to take into consideration the above when they prepare programmes to train master craftsmen.

CHAPTER 4 - DESCRIPTION OF THE RELEVANT POLICY CONTEXT

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the description of the actual functioning of skills training in the informal sector in Tanzania was presented. In this chapter the description of the relevant government policy and global development frameworks and programmes as far as skills training in the informal sector particularly for working and withdrawn children is concerned and beyond will be presented.

2.2 Government Policy

4.2.1 Informal Sector Promotion and Skills Training

As it was indicated in Chapter One, there is no policy paper solely geared towards the development of the IS. The sector is marginally mentioned for example, in the National Employment Policy (NEP) and Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy (SMEDP).

The National Employment Policy addresses among other things the promotion of youth employment through the strengthening and expanding of vocational training in both public and private vocational training centres so that they can be self employed or find employment in the formal sector. Also through advising and educating the youth on how they can obtain credit facilities from public financial institutions, private financial institutions and sponsors. The policy also encourages the provision of practical education and counselling in schools to prepare the youth for self-employment.

It is therefore, recommended that an informal sector employment policy should be in place. This policy should have among other things, adequate monitoring and information feed back system on the IS employment trends. Moreover, training opportunities have to be defined by self-employment opportunities. Furthermore, the policy should establish a clear operational linkage between the VET sector and self-employment.

One of the main weaknesses of the current employment policy is lack of a coordinating mechanism between the Ministry of Labour, Youth Development and Sports and the local government authorities that are supposed to have committees for employment promotion in place and also create conducive environment for employment growth. Employment promotion is very much a cross cutting responsibility of most ministries. Hence, efforts to enhance job creation require efforts from all ministries to create a more conducive environment.

Several shortfalls have also been noted in the course of implementing the objectives of the various official employment related documents described in Chapter Three. They include: -

- ☞ Lack of capacity building (data, resources and personnel) and poor coordinating mechanism during implementation.
- ☞ Shortage of resources (trained manpower, funds and working facilities).
- ☞ Lack of coordination in many programmes and initiatives.

- ☞ Many programmes have been donor dominated in terms of funding, control and influence.
- ☞ Programmes have not been backed by comprehensive packages for employment creation. For instance, some of the programmes, which have offered funds to MSEs, women and youth have not also made other needed services available (e.g. training, technical service).

It is therefore, recommended that the government should speed up the review of the employment policy and make sure that it creates a favourable/conducive environment for the labour force including those in the informal sector. Moreover, the government and other stakeholders should ensure that there is coordinating mechanism in the implementation of the programmes and projects. Furthermore, employment programmes and projects should be a comprehensive packages and sustainable.

As far as Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy which was just inaugurated in April 2003 is concerned, emphasize will also be directed to the business training where the government will enhance the capacity of institutions providing business training to SMEs. In the Policy paper it has been observed that SMEs operators in Tanzania have rather low business skills and seems not to appreciate the importance of business education. On the other hand, the quality of training provided by existing business training institutions and costs involved has tended to be unattractive and unaffordable to the potential beneficiaries.

Therefore in order to improve the business skills of SMEs operators, the government intends to come up with the following strategies:

- ✓ Embark on capacity building of business training institutions aimed at improving quality of services provided.
- ✓ Facilitate tailor made business training programmes for startups and for strengthening businesses.

4.2.2 VET framework: Policy and services

The 1994 VET Act is the current legal framework for the government programmes and donor assistance with regard to the development of the VET system in Tanzania. Through VETA this legal framework among other things has to meet social demand and labour market needs in all sectors of the economy (that is both formal and informal) and to provide suitable training and training facilities at the same time. More specifically VETA has been given the task to ensure that the VET system is demand oriented, cost effective and gradually decentralizing its function to regions (even down to the districts). This legal framework is appropriate to the needs of the IPEC programme as far as skills training of working children in the WFCL in the urban informal sector is concerned.

Moreover, as it has been indicated in Chapter Three, Tanzania has also a diversified network of both public and private VET training centres NGOs and other facilities all over the country, addressing training needs at various levels including the needs of the potential IPEC project target group (working children in the WFCL). However, again as it has been indicated in Chapter Three, most of the VTC in the country both public and private are poorly equipped both materially and financially as well as staffing and provide training that is still essentially supply driven.

Since about 90 percent of all VET in the IS in Tanzania operates through traditional apprenticeship (TAT), the same will necessarily apply for the target group of the proposed IPEC project TAT as the

main skill training method. As already mentioned, the importance of TAT has already been recognized and that is why VETA together with the support of ILO and GTZ has been implementing a pilot programme to improve traditional apprenticeship through building the technical skills and training capacity of its master craftsmen.

4.3 Global Development Frameworks

4.3.1 The Tanzania Poverty Reduction Strategy (TPRS)

Since independence poverty has been declared one of the three major enemies of the country, others are disease and ignorance. Tanzania Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (TPRSP) is a new medium term funding mechanism for funding priority areas and sectors that are regarded to have a highest impact on poverty reduction. Its implementation is in its third year.

Tanzania PRSP has earmarked seven sectors as priority area for poverty reduction these are: -

- (i) Education (Basic Education)
- (ii) Water
- (iii) Roads (Rural roads)
- (iv) Agriculture (Research and Extension)
- (v) Good governance (Judiciary)
- (vi) HIV/AIDS

Selection of these priority sectors and their funding is as agreed upon by the government, civil society, parliament, representatives of ordinary citizens, and the world Bank and IMF.

Apart from those priority sectors TPRS recognizes that there are particularly vulnerable groups in Tanzania that require special attention; which includes children who are in the labour force and not going to school. As it has been indicated in Chapter One, around one fifth of all children aged 5-17 years were in the labour force and not attending school in 2000/2001. This is the same group, which is also being targeted by IPEC.

Although the TPRS does not set explicit targets for employment, it is clear that employment is a crucial dimension of the reduction of income poverty. Reaching income poverty targets depends on sustained economic growth, which creates employment and widens economic opportunity. Views expressed during the preparation of the TPRS emphasized the need to address the problem of unemployment among the youth, especially in urban areas.

Unemployment in Tanzania has been growing due to the low productivity especially in agriculture (which is the largest employer) a sector that contributes significantly to rural urban migration a factor compounding the problem of urban unemployment. The retrenchment exercises carried as part of the reforms since 1990s have caused loss of jobs and hence unemployment for large number of people. At the same time, the informal sector, which employs a substantial number of urban labour force while continue to have a high potential for employment creation and income generation for large numbers of the poor it faces the problem of limited expansion and development; among the factors that contribute to this problem is inadequate opportunities for training and retraining to improve informal sector operators, and workers' skills, productivity and competitiveness.

In order to address the skills gap, one of the actions identified in the Poverty Reduction Strategy is a demand driven skills training programme for employment promotion and poverty reduction. This is in recognition of the fact that the opportunity and ability of the labour force to acquire and update

skills is important in employment creation, productivity enhancement and competitiveness in the open market.

Thus to start with the PRSP included a targeted government intervention, with an annual allocation of TShs. 100 million to support demand driven skill development and to assist the vulnerable groups which include the unemployed, children below the age of 18 who are withdrawn from child labour and youths employed in self /group sustainable activities.

In order for deliberate employment promoting skills training to be undertaken systematically and simultaneously throughout the country, an institutional framework that facilitate access to skills training opportunities and employment promotion in all districts has been institutionalized. This includes the operationalization of a district level nerve centre of action in every district. This nerve centre is the Area Employment Committee established under the National Employment Promotion Committee, established under the National Employment Promotion Service Act of 1999. The role of those committees is to mobilize, encourage and select unemployed people for employment promoting skills training and monitoring their application of those skills in self-employment, access to paid employment, productivity enhancement and poverty reduction.

Actual skills training is conducted by registered public and private training institutions all over the country, which are carefully selected and formally authorized by the MOLYDS to provide the training services under the HIPC initiative. Such institutions include VETA, FDCs as well as other public and private training institutions that provide the required skills in various sectors.

In order for the skill training programme to benefit the unemployed people in various parts of the country, simultaneously and in response to the divergent needs of the client and the labour market, the programme is operated through the voucher system like the one which was used during the Redeployment Programme under the Civil Service Reform Programme from 1995 to 1998.

Under the voucher system, the skills training vouchers are centrally issued to the district by the MOLYDS; then at the district level the Area Committee Secretary issue the vouchers to unemployed people who have been selected for training. Thereafter the unemployed voucher holder will undergo skills training at one of the selected training institution that provides the skills that the trainee has been selected to acquire. After successful completion of the training the Area Committee Secretary of the district that nominated the trainee will certify service delivery and thereafter the MOLYDS will pay the relevant fees to the training institution on actual fees chargeable within the specified ceiling.

To ensure programme impact i.e. the trained people are gainfully employed, accessibility to credit facilities from credit providers like the Youth Development Fund, Women Development Fund, the Presidential Trust Fund etc. is of paramount importance.

In 2002/2001 the number of people trained was 388 comprising of 179 males and 209 females. Skills provided include fish farming, tree nursery, gardening farming of onions, bookkeeping, livestock keeping mushroom farming, business management and other informal sector activities like carpentry, masonry, tailoring, food vending etc.

Taking into account the magnitude of the problem, high demand for skills training and the task involved of doing needs assessment, selection of beneficiaries, mobilization, liaison with training institutions, training etc. There is a felt need for more funds for the programme. Skills' training is

equally important for enhancing the human capital for increased labour productivity and quality of goods thus reducing poverty in the society.

Therefore, there is a need for all concerned parties from Ministries concerned with children affairs like the Ministry of Labour, Youth Development and Sports, Ministry of Education and Culture and Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children and NGOs like KIHOWEDE, KULEANA, CARITAS Tanzania and development partners like ILO/IPEC and UNICEF to participate fully in the TPRS revision process in order to make sure that the problem of working children who do not attending school is a priority area that should be given enough funding to alleviate it.

4.3.2 The ILO Tanzania Decent Work for Poverty Reduction.

The ILO in collaboration with other multilateral and bilateral development agencies is actively engaged in supporting the reform process that is taking place in Tanzania in partnership with government, employers and workers. The four strategic objectives that form the ILO decent work agenda are the basis of its programmes to implement an active partnership with its constituents.

Specifically these are:

- (i) To promote and realize the fundamental principles and rights at work.
- (ii) To create greater opportunities for men and women to secure decent employment and income.
- (iii) To enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all.
- (iv) To strengthen tripartism and social dialogue.

As a member of the ILO, Tanzania is committed to these principles and ideals as a means towards achieving sustainable social economic progress that has significant impact on poverty reduction for the majority of its people. The ILO has played a role in translating these ideas into reality on the basis of its technical cooperation mandate.

The ILO is contributing efforts towards good governance by promoting the fundamental principle and rights at work. In this regard, the organization is supporting Tanzania to harmonize policies and legislation in conformity with ILO conventions.

As far as child labour is concerned ILO is providing technical support to the prevention, protection, withdrawal and rehabilitation of children in WFCL through the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). This programme was incepted in 1992 and began its activities in Tanzania in 1995 and has received substantial financial support from the United States of America.

The objective of the programme is four fold:

- ✓ The protection and prevention of children from entering the labour market.
- ✓ The rehabilitation of children withdrawn from the labour market.
- ✓ The promotion of alternative income generating activities for effected families.
- ✓ The promotion of education or vocational training alternatives for withdrawn children.

The programme strategies are three fold:

- ✓ Technical support in building capacity of the social partners to plan and implement programmes for the elimination of child labour.
- ✓ Support for public awareness and policy advocacy programmes on child labour problems and the need for effective policies.
- ✓ Direct support to communities for the protection, withdrawal and rehabilitation of child engaged in the WFCL

One of the achievements realized since the programme started is that the Tanzania government has ratified the ILO convention NO 182 on elimination of the worst forms of child labour. Likewise Tanzania has ratified the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment the ILO convention NO 138.

Also the Ministry of Labour and Youth Development has already developed the Child Labour Policy. However, the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children will have to integrate it in the Child Development Policy that is still being developed.

Moreover, labour inspectors although are not enough have been trained in addressing child labour issues including the occupation health and safety aspects. Initiatives are also directed at supporting the development of a labour market information system that captures the trends in child labour for use in policy advocacy and programme development. As a result of the project policy advocate initiatives child labour has been included as a key poverty-monitoring indicator for the Tanzania Poverty Monitoring System.

Support for child labour withdrawal and rehabilitation has been garnered through sensitization of employers associations and trade unions. As a result employers' associations and trade unions have played a significant role in advocating for a workplace free of child labour. For example tea, coffee and sisal plantation companies have entered into agreement with Tanzania Plantations and Allied Workers Union (TPAWU) a trade union on the prevention of child labour with the support of the Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE).

Moreover, through project sensitization activities, private plantation companies have actively supported the strengthening of primary education services in local communities as a means of improving children's access to education alternatives.

Furthermore, local communities and local leadership have enacted by-laws for the protection of children from the worst forms of child labour and have established monitoring mechanisms for expose of cases to law enforcement agents, on child abuse and child exposure to hazardous working conditions, NGO'S like KIWOHEDE, CHODAWU and Caritas Tanzania have been active in outreach programmes to with draw rehabilitate and reintegrate thousands of children from the worst forms of child labour in the informal sector, mining, domestic service, prostitution and commercial agriculture.

The lessons which have been learnt from this programme is that community mobilization and sensitization coupled with public awareness and advice programme have become effective strategies in garnering support of house holds, community leaders; employers association, trade unions, the media and the government policy makers in collaborating effectively at prevention, protection, withdrawal and rehabilitation of children engaged in child labour which led to the prevention

withdrawal and rehabilitation of an estimated 5,000 vulnerable children under the age of 18 (ILO : 2003).

Promoting women's employment in eliminate child labour is another on going three years project implemented under the ILO/IPEC programme funded by the Netherlands government. The objectives of the project are two-fold:

- ✓ Enhancing the capacity of the social actors to formulate and implement policies and programmes that effectively take into account the linkages between women's employment and child labour.
- ✓ Promote the socio economic empowerment of women through integrated policies and programmes that address both women employment and reduction of child labour.

The overall goal is to develop a model scheme for creating more and better jobs for women in an environment that progressively reduce child labour. The project is targeting 2,250 women in two targeted areas namely the informal sector and plantation agriculture. Several thousand children are expected to be withdrawn from work in the two sectors.

Extensive awareness building for the communities policy makers and public at large, on nature of linkages between women's employment and child labour issues is one of the strategies. Others are the development of the capacity of the support so far institution to providing vocational skills including occupational health skills, life skills on control of HIV/AIDS and business management skills to women. Mobilization of women into groups and supporting them to develop organizational and leadership skills for them to access financial services is also part of the empowerment strategy.

So far the achievements of this project are that sensitization and awareness building has had an impact. There is commitment and support for the project by the local government authorities, community leaders, union leaders and plantation managers. Employers are improving the working conditions for women workers i.e. support for day care centres.

Support has been mobilized from Local Government, Non Government Organizations and communities and as a result:

- Structures (district committees) have been developed for planning and implementation of programmes to withdraw children from plantations and integrate them either into the education system or vocational skills training programmes.
- A total of 272 children have so far been withdrawn from both plantations and the informal sector work and integrated into the education system or vocational skills training.
- A revolving fund administered by a commercial bank to provide targeted women with access to micro-credit has been established.
- Capacity is also being developed for women in the informal sector to manage small businesses through training. Women have organized themselves into groups mobilizing own savings as a precondition to accessing credit facilities.
- The project has mobilized and trained a total of 280 women out of the target group of 500 informal sector women, for the ten months project period.
- As regards searching for alternative solutions to child labour, 700 women plantation workers have been mobilized and trained on a wide range of issues like trade unionism, child labour, saving and credit cooperatives.

Reasons learnt from this projects is that in mobilizing support for the project, participation of the local authorities and communities has been a critical factor of success right from the initial stages of project identification.

CHAPTER 5 - IDENTIFICATION OF OPPORTUNITIES AND GOOD PRACTICES, AND DEVELOPMENT OF COUNTRY STRATEGY PROPOSALS FOR THE IPEC SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMME

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter a description of the relevant policies concerning skills training and the informal sector was outlined. In this chapter an identification of opportunities and good practices and development of country strategy proposal for the IPEC skills training programme will be presented.

5.2 Opportunities provided by sectoral policies

The 1997 National Employment Policy (NEP), the 1995 Education Training Policy and the Vocational and Education Training Act. of 1994 provide the most relevant opportunities for the integration of the proposed IPEC skills training programme in the urban informal sector which is invariably associated with child labour .

As far as the NEP is concerned there are three areas that provide opportunities for the IPEC skills training programme i.e.

- (i) Strengthening and expansion of vocational training in both public and private vocational training centres so that more youth can be self employed or find employment in other sectors.
- (ii) The provision of practical education and counselling in schools to prepare the youth to make the right decisions on the skills they would prefer for self-employment according to the environment they are in.
- (iii) A strong commitment towards supporting self-employment and small and medium size enterprises. This objective can only be reached by training the youth on self-employment.

Therefore, using the NEP IPEC skills training programme can have among other things a component of providing vocational skills elements and vocational guidance and counselling in primary schools.

On the part of the Education and Training Policy of 1995 in 1997 the Basic Education Master Plan was developed as part of the implementation of that policy. Under the plan the Complementary Basic Education Training (COBET) programme has been initiated by the Ministry of Education and Culture as an alternative approach for providing primary education to out of school children including working children whom are also targeted by the IPEC action programmes.

Through the IPEC Time Bound Programme on worst forms of child labour in Tanzania, the Ministry of Education and Culture is being supported to establish COBET centres for cohort 1 in eleven districts. The centres will provide transitional education to children withdrawn from or at risk of getting into worst forms of child labour. The IPEC skills training programme could utilize these centres for complementary vocational skills training packages for children completing transitional education.

Also the identification and registration of working children should in each district be supported by and involve IPEC implementing agencies, Ward Education Officers, District Child Labour Coordinators, members of District Child Labour Sub-Committees, community leaders, school teachers as well as other parties as may be appropriate.

In the case where training and education related centres have already been established by NGOs, and CBOs, IPEC should collaborate with the concerned institutions to support and strengthen such centres to enable them to accommodate some of the children targeted by the programme.

In order to have sustainability of the centres, the operational and monitoring mechanism that is in place is that the implementation of COBET in all districts is based on the existing organizational structure. Therefore, the District Executive Director (DED) in each district is the overall overseer of the programme. While the District Education Officer, who is functionally responsible for all the educational matters in the district and a member of the District Child Labour Sub-Committee, technically assists the DED on all matters related to the administration and management of COBET in the district. The District Education Officer also makes necessary consultations with the District Child Labour Sub-Committee for discussion and necessary action. At the Ward and Village levels the District Education Officer liaise with the Ward Education Secretaries and the Village Chairmen.

The facilitators in each centre include schools teachers, retired teachers, qualified unemployed teachers, form four leavers and vocational skilled persons available in the communities. However, those facilitators whom some are para-professionals are provided with orientation and training in order to enable them to teach COBET classes.

As Tanzania continues to benefit from donor support under the HIPC process, increased funding is becoming available for the social sector, notably education. It is foreseen that through such finding COBET programme will be systematically expanded to cover many more districts. It is feasible that the IPEC skills training programme could provide access to skills training to children in those districts, which are most prone to child labour by complementing both the PEDP and COBET programmes.

On the part of the Vocational Education Training Act of 1994, which is the current legal framework for government programmes and donor assistance with regard to the development of VET system in Tanzania has also a big role to play as far as the IPEC skills training programme is concerned. As we have seen in chapter three in order to spearhead the development of VET system in Tanzania a Vocational Education Training Authority (VETA) was established. Among other things VETA has been given the task of meeting social demand and labour market needs in all sectors of the Tanzania economy both formal and informal and to provide suitable training and training facilities.

VETA is working through its VET providers to provide vocational skills training to children withdrawn from the worst forms of child labour and those at risk in the targeted districts of the IPEC Time Bound Programme in Tanzania. There exist a good opportunity for the IPEC skills training programme to collaborate with VETA in terms of consolidating the lessons and experiences being achieved and where possible to replicate such training in non TBP districts prone to worst forms of child labour.

5.3 Opportunities provided by the traditional apprenticeship system

In Tanzania the traditional apprenticeship system is the major training provider in the informal sector. Although the majority of the master craftsmen train direct relatives and extended family or

close friends' children, some of the providers are willing to take up apprentices from elsewhere, provided that it does not interfere too much with production. Some of the master craftsmen are willing to support the apprentices by providing them with shelter/accommodation, free meals and even pocket money.

Although the apprenticeship system in Tanzania is not well organized, still the IPEC skills training programme could utilize the traditional apprenticeship system to train some of the children withdrawn from child labour. This would however, involve the initial selection of suitable master craftsmen and giving them training and orientation on the technical side of the trades they would be providing, as well as on the pedagogical aspects of the training and the entrepreneurship issues in order to make their training more effective. Secondly, it would require a sort of a standardized apprenticeship modular training system and a quality control, testing and certification in order to raise the skills standard of the target group. These tasks could be performed in consultation and collaboration with VETA, which has been entrusted with the regulations of the VET system in the country.

5.4 Good practices

5.4.1 Influencing Labour Legislations and Participation in the consultative PRS process

Tanzania has already revised her labour legislations and the draft bill is ready to be tabled in the Parliament. The reasons, which motivated the government to initiate the revision among other things was the shift from a planned economy to a market economy, the need to bring Tanzania's legislation in line with standards in ILO Conventions, which the country has ratified and the public outcry against the current insufficiency and inadequacy of the current laws.

In order to review the labour legislation a task force was appointed by the Minister for Labour and was composed by a tripartite plus members including representatives of trade unions and employers, lawyers, academicians, prominent businessmen, senior public servants and judges. It also coo-opted other public servants from different but affected ministries.

The proposed bill prohibits child labour for any child under the age of 15 years and for certain employments like in mining for children less than 18 years unless is for training purposes.

The implementation of Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) in Tanzania is in its third year. The formulation of the PRS entails a cycle that comprised of at least 3 steps. The first involves identifying key poverty reduction priorities through poverty diagnostics and analysis. The second involve making public choice for implementation of poverty reduction priorities and taking decisions on resources ablations among various priorities based on the performance of the key social services delivery providers and other development agencies. This involves using participatory approaches based on the field back of the poor on quality or service delivery provisions transparency of resources allocations and the budget process, and encouraging civic engagement as both national and local level to discuss sectoral priorities and public action choices. The third step involves monitoring outcomes of the strategy and the process and disseminating results through transparent and broad based participatory process. It is envisaged that the participatory consultation process cut across all these three phases.

In all those stages Ministries, Government Departments and Local and International NGOs and dealing with children rights at different levels were involved in the consultative process.

5.4.2 Integration of target group into existing programmes

Tanzania is one among the initial countries currently implementing a Time Bound Programme (TBP) under the International Programme of Eliminating Child Labour (IPEC). A TBP is essentially a set of tight integrated and coordinated policies and programmes to prevent and eliminate a country's worst forms of child labour within a defined period of time. It is a comprehensive approach that operates at many levels, including international, national, district, community and individual or family level. TBP emphasize the need to address the root cause of child labour, linking action against child labour to the national development effort, with particular emphasis on economic and social policies to combat poverty and to promote universal basic education and social mobilization.

Hence, in implementing the TBP IPEC has been using a multi-sectoral planning, implementation and follow up, combining technical aspects of VET, social follow up, and post training employment support services. As a result this has called for institutions in charge of technical aspects of VET for that matter VETA, the institutions or NGOs operating in the social sector and those operating in the employment sectors to participate in programme activities for the withdrawal of children from worst forms of child labour and the provision of education and training alternatives to them.

In Tanzania currently there are two programmes/projects, which are targeting ex-child labourers and children at risk for skills training. The first one is the TBP, which is involved in protection, prevention and withdrawal of children from the worst forms of child labour as well as those at risk. An estimated 5,000 working children in the worst forms of child labour including in the informal sector have already been withdrawn by different NGOs. Some of the withdrawn children have already been integrated in the education system while others have been equipped or are receiving vocational skills to enable them access gainful self-employment in the informal sector.

The second project is that of enhancing women employment opportunities under conditions that would lead to the reduction of child labour. Under the project, a total of 272 children have so far been withdrawn from both plantations and the informal sector and are being provided with educational and training alternatives.

5.5 Other strategy elements

5.5.1 Informal sector protection

The absence of social protection and especially health insurance has been and still is one of the main risks of informal sector (IS) operators. In realizing this, ILO in 1995 provided financial and technical support to development of a mutual health insurance fund for several groups from the informal sector in Tanzania.

At present efforts are focused on and are succeeding in the establishment of a health insurance scheme for the IS workers in Dar es Salaam – UMASIDA (Health care Community Fund for the Informal Sector Workers). This is an umbrella organization comprised of nine informal groups. Through ILO's technical and advisory support, IS workers were mobilized, organized and trained in the management of the scheme.

To date the fund has grown in size with around 6,000 members contributing to it regularly. Fund contributors and their immediate family members receive both primary and secondary health care services that are financed from the fund. It is therefore recommended that an informal social

protection (health care) element like the UMASIDA project should be planned by IPEC for the proposed comprehensive programme.

5.5 Country Strategy Proposal

5.6.1 Background and Justification

Given that the majority of working children in the urban informal sector in Tanzania have little or no basic education, they tend to have limited opportunities for gainful employment. Hence, they tend to engage in informal sector activities with low returns and high job insecurity, which trap them in poverty and makes them vulnerable to exploitation, economic shocks, food insecurity and disease.

At the same time the informal sector in particular the small and urban industry and service sub-sectors provides a possibility for young people to learn a skill and increase income earnings opportunities. The method of acquiring skills on the job is still the dominant mode of training in the informal sector in Tanzania.

Though the main focus of the project will be on vocational skills training as a strategy to combat worst forms of child labour in the urban informal sector, it will equally link to education as the key element in the prevention of child labour.

5.6.2 Development Objective

To develop a comprehensive policy outline based on the skills strategies for the potential and withdrawn working children in the urban informal sector.

5.6.3 Immediate Objectives

The following table shows the immediate objectives, strategies to achieve those objectives, the concerned target group, major out outputs, activities, intervening agencies and prospective sourcing of funding.

Table 22: Programme Proposal Table

IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES	STRATEGIES	TARGET GROUPS	MAJOR OUTPUTS	ACTIVITIES	INTERVENING AGENCIES	RESOURCES
Providing vocational skills elements and vocational guidance and counselling in primary schools	* Introducing vocational skills elements in primary schools. * Introduction of vocational guidance and counselling in primary schools.	Primary school pupils	Trained primary school pupils in the selected districts	* Preparation of training manuals for both vocational skills and vocational guidance and counselling, * Training of teachers for both vocational training and vocational guidance and counselling,	* IPEC, * MOEC, * Tanzania Institute of Education, * VETA	* The Central Government, * Donors
Providing primary education and vocational skills to out of school working and withdrawn children	* Establishing COBET centres.	Out of school working children and Withdrawn working children	Trained all identified working children and withdrawn working children in selected districts	* Identification and registration of working and withdrawn children. * Identification of suitable places/premises to establish COBET centres. * Preparation of training manual, * Identification and employment of suitable facilitators. * Training of facilitators, * Supporting and strengthening existing COBET centres.	* IPEC, * MOEC, * District Councils * District Child Labour Sub- Committees. * NGOs & CBOs	* HIPC, * The Central Government, * District Councils * Donors
Providing demand driven training on vocational skills to withdrawn working children	* Training demand driven vocational skills. * Training entrepreneurial skills.	Out of school working children and Withdrawn working children	Trained all identified working children and withdrawn working children in selected districts	* Identification and registration of withdrawn working children. * Conducting vocational skills training needs assessment for withdrawn working children. * Carrying out local labour market surveys. * Preparation of training manuals, * Training of instructors, * Collaborating with other	* IPEC, * MOEC, * MOLYDS, * District Councils, * NGOs & CBOs, * VET Providers, * District Child Labour Sub- Committees.	* HIPC, * The Central Government, * District Councils * Donors

				VET provides.		
Developing traditional apprenticeship system	* Training identified potential and withdrawn working children using the traditional apprenticeship system. * Training identified master craftsmen. * Standardizing traditional apprenticeship system. * Including entrepreneurial training for both apprentices and master craftsmen.	* Children at risk of engaging into child labour. * Withdrawn working children	Trained all identified children at risk and withdrawn working children in selected districts	* Identification and registration of potential and working children. * Evaluating educational levels and skills training needs of potential and working children. * Identification and selection of master craftsmen. * Training of master craftsmen. * Preparing a standardized apprenticeship modular training scheme. * Incorporating entrepreneurial training for both apprentices and master craftsmen training	* IPEC, * MOLYDS, * VETA * NGOs & CBOs, * VET Providers, * District Child Labour Sub- Committees.	* VETA (Using the 2 percent levy) * The Central Government, * Donors
Facilitating accessibility to credit for self-employment and further training	* Identification of appropriate adequate credit providers. * Training the target group on how to access and utilize credits for self-employment and further training.	All potential and withdrawn children undergoing vocational skill training	Trained all potential and withdrawn children under training in selected districts	* Mobilization * Organizing * Training	* IPEC * Ministry of Cooperatives * Public and Private Credit Providers	* Central Government * Local Government * Donors
Facilitating creation of youth vocational associations	Facilitating creation of youth vocational associations	Withdrawn working children under training	Organized all trained withdrawn working children in selected districts	* Mobilization * Organizing * Training	* IPEC * MOLYDS * Informal Sector Association	* Central Government * Local Government * Donors
Other strategy elements	Establishing mutual health fund	All potential and withdrawn children under training	Organized all trained withdrawn working children in selected districts	* Mobilization * Organizing * Training	* IPEC * MOLYDS * Informal Sector Association	* Central Government * Local Government * Donors

CHAPTER 6 - CONCLUSION

This study shows that although the informal sector provides direct employment and income to 16 percent of the total Tanzania Mainland labour force there is no policy paper solely geared to its development. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that informal sector policy should be in place for the sake of the development of this sector.

Children below the age of 18 are also working in the informal sector although even current labour legislations prohibit it. According to 2000/01 ILFCLS nearly 9 percent of all working children were engaged in urban informal sector activities while the majority almost three quarters had not completed primary school; thus they were either non enrolled, pre-primary and primary school pupils and primary school dropouts.

In such a situation Universal Primary School Enrolment (UPE) can therefore help a lot to prevent children from child labour and even the worst forms of child labour by ensuring that all school-aged children are enrolled. However, it is not a matter of enrolling children for primary education but what is important is to ensure that the enrolled children remain in school and complete their primary school education. This can only be achieved if the school environment would be improved to attract pupils and even their parents and guardians. This includes not only having enough infrastructures like classrooms, desks, toilet buildings, exercise and textbooks but also having enough qualified and motivated teachers and ideal syllabus.

Furthermore, there is a need of providing practical education and counselling in primary schools to prepare the youth to have right decisions on the skills they would prefer for self-employment according to the environment where they are.

For the working children who are out of school and are illiterate because they were never enrolled or semi illiterate because they are primary school dropouts more efforts should be done by the IPEC skills training programme to identify and enrol them in non-formal school programmes like COBET. Such a programme is very vital in making sure that such disadvantaged do get the basic education. The identification and registration of working children should be supported by and involve all IPEC implementing agencies involved in protection, prevention and withdrawal of working children. For the COBET centres to have sustainability there is a need to make sure that in all districts they are based on the existing organizational structures under the DED.

VETA has to use its wide network, resources and its experience to integrate the worst forms of child labour concerns in its training programme policy and regular activities so that its immediate and long term plans provide education and training alternatives that can cater for the vulnerable groups including both withdrawn working children and those who are at a risk of getting into the WFCL.

However, before embarking on the training itself VETA is supposed to carry out a thorough vocational skills training needs assessment of the identified working children to identify their needs. Also prior to registration in a particular course, there is a need for the working children to undergo counseling sessions on career guidance to assist them in selection of vocational skills and understanding opportunities or alternatives in the labour market. During the execution of the programme there will be a need for VETA to work in a close collaboration with VET providers, community master craftsmen and NGOs and CBOs concerned with vocational skills training to

carry out local labour market surveys in different districts in order to identify demand and marketable skills from time to time.

Although the traditional apprenticeship system is still disorganized some of the withdrawn working children or those who are at a risk of engaging in child labour or WFCL will have to be integrated in this system for their skills development. Due to that reason there is a need to do something about the system. VETA, which is responsible in regulating VET system in the country to standardize the traditional apprenticeship so that skills standards are offered, could be raised in the informal sector.

In order for the IPEC skills training programme to succeed there is a need also to facilitate the accessibility to credit for self employment and further education for target group, the creation of their own vocational (trade) associations to safeguard their interests and to have social protection programmes like a mutual health insurance fund for their welfare.

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