

**HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AND CHILD LABOUR IN KYELA
DISTRICT TANZANIA**

BY

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**FOR REFERENCE
ONLY**

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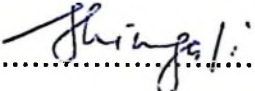
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ABSTRACT

This study was done in six rural villages of Matema and Ipinda wards, Ntebela division of Kyela District, Tanzania to study the causes of child labour in rural areas of the district and the factors which perpetuate the problem. The study design was cross-sectional whereby 120 children and 36 households were purposely sampled in equal numbers from each village, and data were collected using structured questionnaire, check list of questions and focus group discussions. Children of the age 5 to 14 years were studied. Computer software of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed to code, enter and analyse the data. The study found that the factors influencing child labour in the area are household poverty indicated mainly by low household income as the main cause; many economic activities per household leading to bad/wrong time of working, long duration in hours of work per day and improper socialisation of children; adults and children migration in search of employment; marriage instability and breakage; children orphanage; children personal needs; allurements of children by casual daily or seasonal wage employers; low education level of the household head and lastly children not being interested in schooling. The null hypothesis was adopted since the chi-square test (single tailed test) show that $p=0.0755$ ($p>0.05$) at 5% significance level. In conclusion the study has dwelt on and revealed that many agricultural and non-agricultural household activities which are done to reduce poverty in the rural villages have side effects on the high participation of the children of the same households as child labourers. Therefore it is mainly recommended that the government should help people in rural areas to reduce household poverty and in turn the households will reduce and eliminate child labour.

DECLARATION

I, Godwin Hezron Hamisi Mwamkinga, do hereby declare to the Senate of Sokoine University of Agriculture that this dissertation is my own original work and that has not been submitted for a degree award at any other University.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother Tumwagile Samwel Mpela who laid the best foundation for my education.

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ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMNS

ACA	Agricultural Credit Agency
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
asi	above mean sea level
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CHODAWU	Conservation, Hotels, Domestic and Allied Workers Union
COBET	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
CSPD	Child Survival, Protection and Development
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
ESRF	Economic and Social Research Foundation
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ha	hectares
HBS	Household Budget Survey
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IGAs	Income Generating Activities
ILFCLS	Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
IPEC	International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour
KDC	Kyela District Council
KIWOHEDE	Kiota Women Health and Development
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals

mm	millimetre
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NESP	National Economic Survival Programme
NHP	Net Household Product
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
PPA	Participatory Poverty Assessment
PRB	Population Reference Bureau
PSP	Population Strategy Programme
RAWG	Research and Analysis Working Group
REPOA	Research on Poverty Alleviation
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TPAWU	Tanzania Plantation and Agriculture Workers Union
Tshs.	Tanzanian shillings
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organisation.
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USD	United States Dollar
WCSDG	World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization
WFCL	Worst Forms of Child Labour
yrs	Years

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background information

Poverty may be defined as a state of deprivation and prohibitive of decent life that results from many mutually reinforcing factors including lack of productive resources to generate material wealth; illiteracy; prevalence of diseases; discriminative socio-economic and political systems and natural calamities such as drought, floods, HIV/AIDS and wars (URT 1999, cited by PSP, 2003:205). Two characteristics of poverty in a society have been identified by researchers, namely absolute (abject or hard-core) and relative poverty. Absolute poverty is the inability to obtain a minimum specified standard of living. Also absolute poverty has been defined as a condition or characteristic of living below a poverty line or standard of living (Semboja, 1994:40). Relative poverty is a comparative term of living standard among people of the same population. According to Blackwood and Lynch (1994: 572), a person may be relatively poor but may or may not be absolutely poor. There are two main categories of poverty, which are income and non-income poverty. Income poverty is measured in terms of the national food poverty line and basic needs poverty line (URT, 2005a:4). The non-income poverty is measured in terms of several categorical indicators, which are education and illiteracy, health services, survival and nutrition, HIV and AIDS and water and environmental health (URT, 2005a:11-13). According to URT (2004a:17), poverty indicators for the households include literacy, school enrolment and the level of schooling attained, child and adult mortality, fertility, source of drinking water and unemployment.

Child labour is work performed by children under 18 years of age which is exploitative, hazardous or inappropriate for their age and which is detrimental to their health, schooling, or social, mental, spiritual and moral development (URT, 2002a:73; ILO 2004:1). The cut-off point of children's age to count their work as child labour differs among countries. In Tanzania, for example, child labour is counted when children do such work during their 5 years of age and below 18 years of age (URT, 2002a:73; REPOA, 2003:10; URT, 1996:1). In Pakistan child labour is measured if the children between 5 – 14 years of age participate in economic activities (Jafri and Raishad, 1997:70). Child labour is a socio-economic problem facing all countries in the world (Musoke, 1996:2; ILO, 2004:1; Globalmarch, 2004:1; REPOA, 2003:1; Gursharan, 1994:xiv). It is a problem because it has detrimental effects to children due to harsh working conditions and exploitative nature of the work done. Child labour also leads to pupils failing in school performance and education attainment as a whole (Akabayashi and Psachalopoulos, 1999:126; URT, 2002a:31). Musoke (1996:3) argues that once in employment, child workers in industries, mines and other sectors such as agriculture, fishing or in the informal sector, including those self employed are faced with very detrimental and serious risks to their health and physical as well as social, psychological and emotional development.

In many countries (societies) like Tanzania, a significant number of children (from both sexes) participate in economic activities and contribute substantially to household income. Some children may just help their parents in house keeping; some may do petty trading at home, streets or market places in towns; while some others may work in formal and informal establishments. But children who are working more than the recommended time per day and sometimes without going to school are regarded as child labourers.

Agriculture, forestry and fishing are said to be the main economic activities drawing child labour in Tanzania (URT, 2002a:38).

1.2 Problem statement

Traditionally or usually children in the households are assigned some duties or work activities, which are aimed at food production or income generation. All of us know that in the Tanzanian context, women and children in rural and urban areas spend long hours working in survival activities such as cooking, fuel wood and water collection, food preparation and other related activities (Lowasa 1999:2). These duties or work activities (reproductive roles), for a long time, have been considered as means to teach the children or pass the skills and knowledge to them (children socialisation) so that when they become adults they are able to sustain their lives. That is social reproduction. In so doing parents have been allocating time for children to work, recreate and also attend classes in schools. But as poverty deepens all over the world, especially in rural areas of developing countries including Tanzania, households have come up with poverty coping and reduction strategies. Kyela District in particular, has its people adversely affected by poverty, especially in rural areas. This has made the households to come up with various income generating activities to reduce poverty including fishing at night, petty trading at rural markets and allowing the children to migrate to other areas to look for casual labour employment or better life. These strategies (activities) have made children work all the time and sometimes without going to school. Furthermore, although there have been government campaigns against child labour; the problem still prevails in the district.

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 General objective

To determine household poverty as the fundamental cause and other related causes of child labour in Kyela District so that households, government and policy makers can use the information to end child labour.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

- (i) To assess the household income generating activities for poverty reduction and that draw child labour.
- (ii) To determine the annual household income.
- (iii) To assess the time used by children in income generating activities.
- (iv) To assess how education of household heads affect child labour.
- (v) To determine the number of children who migrated in search of employment.

1.5 Conceptual framework

1.5.1 Description of the relationship of variables

The conceptual framework was developed in order to catch the information on household poverty and child labour. The effects of independent variables on the dependent variable are explained as follows. All the independent variables are supposed to have a positive or negative correlation with the dependent variable. That is the number of households' income generating activities, amount of household income generated per annum, the number of children working hours, the low education of the household head and the numbers of children migrating in search of employment have an effect on child labour.

Figure 1 below shows the conceptual framework indicating the schematic relationship of variables. The variables are operationally defined in Appendix 1.

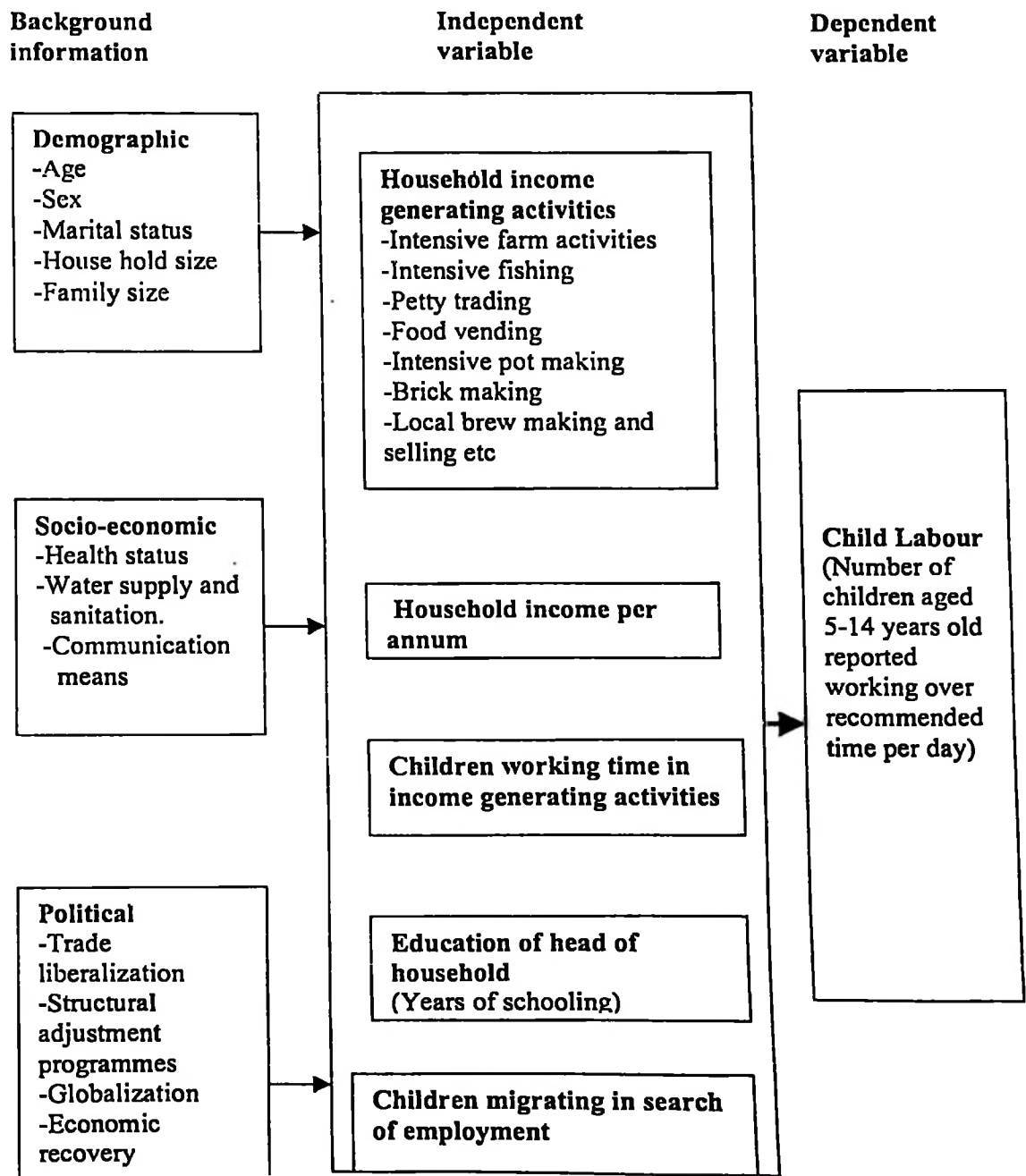


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

1.6 Hypothesis

Null hypothesis (H₀): Household income is not significantly associated with having child labour in the household i.e. household income is independent of child labour.

Alternative hypothesis (H_a): Household income is significantly associated with having child labour in the household i.e. household income is dependent of child labour.

The null hypothesis was tested using the chi- square at 5% significant level.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The concept of poverty

Poverty is conceptualised by scholars and researchers in many ways or faces. A portion of population which lacks an income which is required to meet basic needs and social services in life (such as food, housing, clothing, education, health, water, sanitation etc) is said to be poor. In other sense people are said to be poor if they lack employment or they are underemployed and they are powerless in decision making on matters concerning their day to day lives (World Bank 2000:1; Lowasa 1999:2). Also poverty is manifested in other areas of human life such as living in squalid surroundings; lack of transport and communication facilities; lack of credits and markets; low utilisation of technology; high incidences of diseases such as malaria, HIV/AIDS, diarrhoea, high infant mortality rate (IMR), high maternal mortality rate (MMR), low literacy rate, lack or shortage of physical assets and livestock such as land, cattle, goats, stored crop, farm implements, furniture and other household assets such as radio, TV set, refrigerator etc.

2.2 Definition of poverty

As it can be imagined from the above explanation, it is not easy to have one single definition of poverty, as poverty is multidimensional and location specific. This is because poverty has various indicators which some of them can be measured and quantified and some are not easily quantified. Blackwood and Lynch (1994:568) comment that poverty affects many aspects of human condition, including physical, moral, and psychological, so a concise and universally accepted definition of poverty is elusive. Considering these,

researchers and scholars have come up with various definitions of poverty and some of them are as given below. Ojha (1970) and Reutlinger and Sewsky (1976), cited by Blackwood and Lynch (1994:568) define the poor as that portion of population that is unable to meet basic nutritional needs. Singer (1975), cited by the same authors views poverty in part as a function of education and/or health, life expectancy, child mortality etc. Poverty is a condition of being unable to meet “basic needs”. Basic needs refer to physical (food, health care, education, shelter etc) and non-physical (participation, identity etc) requirements of “meaningful life”, (Streeten 1979, cited by Blackwood and Lynch 1994:568). Sen (1983), cited by the same authors relates the concept of poverty to “entitlements”. According to Sen, “entitlements” refer to various bundles of goods and services over which one has command, taking into considerations the means by which such goods are acquired (e.g. money, coupons, etc) and the availability of the needed goods. This means that poverty is a shortage or lack of “entitlements”.

As given in section 1.1, URT (1999), cited by PSP (2003:205) defines poverty as a state of deprivation and prohibitive of decent life that results from many mutually reinforcing factors including lack of productive resources to generate material wealth; illiteracy; prevalence of diseases; discriminative socio-economic and political systems and natural calamities such as drought, floods, HIV/AIDS and wars. Also Kayunze (2001:1) defines poverty as deficiency symptoms in various spheres of human life, including nutrition, housing, clothing, water, health, education, sanitation, employment, expenditure, income and consumption. World Bank (2001:1) summarises that the poor are the people who lack adequate food and shelter, education and health, and have deprivations that keep them from leading the kind of life that every one values. Moreover they are often exposed to ill

treatment by institutions of the state and society, and they are powerless to influence the key decisions affecting their lives.

In this study, poverty is defined as the state of a household or a person to live in an undesirable life due to shortage or lack of income, shelter (or housing), food, clothing, education, health, water and sanitation and also physical productive and non-productive assets such as land, livestock, fishing gear, furniture etc.

2.3 Characteristics of poverty in a society

There are two characteristics of poverty as described by researchers. These are the absolute (abject or hard-core) poverty and relative (soft-core) poverty. Absolute poverty, as defined in section 1.1, is a condition of living below a poverty line or standard of living (Semboja 1994:40). This means that absolute poverty is referred to inability to attain a specified or a minimum standard of living. Relative poverty can be defined as the condition of one person or a portion of a population living in a lower standard of living in comparison to the other. Relative poverty measures define the segment of the population that is poor in relationship to the income of the general population (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:572). Relative poverty is a comparative term of living standard among the people of the same population. The implication is that every society, except where every one have the same standard of living, has poverty. Hence a society may have relative poverty and at the same time has no absolute poverty. Blackwood and Lynch (1994:572) argue that there may be an improvement in relative poverty while there is an increase in absolute poverty. Conversely, relative poverty may increase while absolute poverty may decline.

2.4 Categories of Poverty

There are two main categories or types of poverty which are described by researchers. These are income poverty and non-income poverty. Income poverty is that one when a person or a portion of a population experiences shortage of income to meet a minimum specified amount of food or basic needs. In Tanzania, income poverty is measured in terms of national food poverty line and basic needs poverty line (URT 2005a:4). Non-income poverty is that one when a person or a portion of a population experiences deprivation of social needs and services such as health services, education, water, sanitation, environmental care, decision making etc. According to URT (2005a:11-13), as explained in section 1.1, non-income is measured in terms of several categorical indicators, which are education and illiteracy, health services, survival and nutrition, water and environmental health and HIV/AIDS.

2.5 Poverty indicators

PSP (2003:207), states that a Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) exercise that was conducted in 1998 in Tanzania to develop poverty and welfare monitoring indicators came up with 14 items which are ranked from the most to the least important. Each item has several indicators and ways how to gauge the poverty of households or a portion of population. Table 1 shows a list of the poverty and welfare monitoring items. The items and the indicators to measure them are elaborated in Appendix 2.

Table 1: A list of poverty and welfare monitoring items from the most to the least important in Tanzania

Items		
1. Food security	2. Income and production	3. Education
4. Health status	5. Water and sanitation	6. Health service
7. Nutrition status	8. Transport and communication	9. Housing
10. Environment	11. Household and family relation	12. Energy
13. Empowerment and participation	14. Tradition and norms	

Source: URT (1999) cited by PSP (2003:221-222).

2.6 Poverty measurement

Hemmer (1987:22) reported that there are two major ways of measuring poverty. The first one is by means of basic and social needs which use non-monetary indicators and the second one is by means of poverty lines defined in monetary terms.

2.6.1 Basic and social needs methods (i.e. using non-monetary indicators)

Poverty measurement by these methods is better done in a participatory manner and the minimum values of basic and social needs one should not go without are set. People getting less than the set minimum amounts of values of indicators of social welfare are considered to be poor.

2.6.1.1 Method of using the characteristics of the members of a population

In this method experts together with the members of the population identify the characteristics and group all members of the population into well being levels, based on the characteristics identified (Kayunze 2001:3). Ownership of productive and non-productive assets e.g. land, livestock, a stand of a cash crop, a milling machine, shop, radio, bicycles, fishing gear, canoe/boats etc is one type of the characteristics. Other characteristics include

ownership of durable and high valuable house, clean and expensive clothes; being able to pay for their children's education, being able to eat nutritionally best meals. Based on the agreed characteristics of well-being levels the members of the population are grouped into groups say the group of non poor, poor and poorest. Or the groups can be more than these say the group of the richest, richer, rich, less poor, poor and poorest.

2.6.1.2 Wealth ranking method

This one is a method of identifying groups or rankings of households according to well being or wealth, including those considered poorest or worst off (Grandin 1988, cited by Chambers 1994a:960). This often leads to identification of key indicators of well being. These indicators are given weighting by the people in the community or some key informants are used to weigh the indicators and then rank the households or the individuals. Even the poor can rank others or themselves. The most common method is sorting cards into piles, carried out either by local individuals in private or by groups (Chambers 1994b:1259). People scoring big piles of cards are ranked richer than those getting small piles of cards. Chambers (1994b:1260) argues that some limitations of this method are that in a group, one person may dominate and overrule others and also some analysts have been reluctant or unreliable in ranking themselves, their near relatives or their close friends. Shared concepts are needed for consistent rankings.

2.6.1.3 Basic necessities surveys

Mack and Lansley (1985) and Frayman (1991) cited by Kayunze (2001:3) report that this method of poverty assessment is based on an approach used in Britain in the early and late 1980s, but with an important adaptation; the approach to weighting and how a poverty line

is defined. Poverty is defined as “the lack of basic necessities”. The basic necessities list is first generated by wealth or well-being ranking methods, or focus group discussions. Each necessity is given a weighting and a poverty line set. A sample survey is then carried out using a survey instrument to rank households in poverty or wealth levels according to possession and weightings of the basic necessities.

Hemmer (1987:23) argues that measuring poverty using non-monetary indicators is very subjective since measuring immaterial needs is very controversial and can be hardly recorded empirically. Moreover, social and basic needs differ among people of different localities and culture, especially the quality of the needs. Therefore, in order to avert the difficulties of poverty measurement by social indicators, monetary indicators are often used in poverty studies (Kayunze 2001:6). In the study area, social and basic needs/necessities also differ among people of different villages or localities. For instance, the people who rely on fishing as their main occupation value and rank high having a fishing gear while the people who rely on paddy cultivation value and rank high having a pair of oxen and an ox-plough; although to both, some of the social needs/necessities are highly valued and ranked the same such as having a house out of good and durable materials.

2.6.2 Poverty lines and poverty measurement using monetary indicators

Using monetary indicators of poverty, poverty can be determined in absolute or relative terms. In the former case poverty lines are used whereas in relative poverty measurement poverty lines are not used (Kayunze 2001:6).

2.6.2.1 Poverty lines

PSP (2003:208) reports that traditional measurements of poverty use poverty lines. The definition of the poverty line is based on the income necessary to support a person at the subsistence level of food, shelter, clothing, and other necessities (Rowntree 1901, cited by Blackwood and Lynch 1994:568). The same authors say that the notion of poverty line has evolved to reflect the changes in living standards that occur over time and across regions. So, for a given set of living standards, the poverty line is defined typically as the minimum income level required to purchase the socially determined essentials for living (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:568). According to PSP (2003:208), a poverty line is determined in one of the following ways:

Cost-of- basic needs method

By this method, a poverty line calculation is based on the cost needed to obtain a basic diet for the main age, sex and activity groups and multiplying that cost by a factor to provide for other necessities. Semboja (1994:45) argues that in Tanzania where the poor spend about 71% of their income on food a factor of $100/71$ that is 1.41 is multiplied by the income needed for food among the poor to get a poverty line.

Food energy method

By this method the poverty line is set at the consumption expenditure level at which an adult person's average dietary energy intake is exactly sufficient to meet dietary food energy requirement.

Food share method

The poverty line is derived from the cost of a consumption plan needed to acquire just sufficient nutrients. If this happens to be a third of total consumption, the poverty line is set at three times the cost.

2.6.2.2 Poverty lines in Tanzania

PSP (2003:209) reports that, in Tanzania the two poverty lines that have been used in most poverty studies are of T.shs. 73 877.00 (Upper poverty line) and T.shs. 49 600.00 (Lower poverty line) per adult equivalent per year in 1995 prices. Based on the two lines, households with expenditure less than the lower poverty line have been referred to as absolutely (hard-core) poor while those with expenditures equal to and more than the lower poverty line but less than the upper poverty line have been called the less poor. Those whose expenditures are equal to and more than the upper poverty line have been referred to as non poor. The poverty lines are recommended for use in poverty studies after adjusting them for inflation using official inflation rates in order to express values in real terms rather than nominal terms (Kayunze 2001:7).

Other poverty lines commonly used in Tanzania, according to NBS (2002:78), are the food poverty line and basic needs poverty line which were calculated in Household Budget Surveys of both 1991/1992 and 2000/2001.

Food poverty line

This is calculated based on the food consumption patterns of each year reported by the poorest 50% of the population. It is the sum of the cost of the calorific values of the

quantities of each item consumed which is equal to a minimum of 2200 calories per adult equivalent per day.

Basic needs poverty line

This makes allowance for the fact that individuals need more than just food to live. The share of the expenditure on non-food items in the poorest 25% of the population is calculated and this is used to increase the food poverty line to have the basic needs poverty line (non-food consumption).

These poverty lines are taken by NSGRP as national poverty lines (URT, 2005a:4). The poverty lines which were calculated in HBS of 1991/1992 and 2000/2001 are as tabulated in Table 2.

Table 2: Poverty lines in Tanzania per adult equivalent for 28 days in 1991/1992 and 2000/2001 (Tshs. nominal prices)

Poverty line	Year	Dar-es-Salaam	Other urban areas	Rural areas	Mainland Tanzania
Food poverty line	2000/2001	6719	5607	5107	5295
	1991/1992	3031	2387	1958	2083
Basic needs poverty line	2000/2001	9203	7680	6996	7253
	1991/1992	3841	3088	2603	2777

Source: NBS, (2002:78).

World wide and in Tanzania in particular the common poverty line which is frequently used and mentioned in political and governments' forums is the income or expenditure of

USD 1 per day per person. Likewise in this study the poverty line of USD 1 per day per adult equivalent is used to determine the poverty among households in the study area.

2.6.2.3 Measurement of absolute poverty using monetary indicators

According to Blackwood and Lynch (1994:569), there are four kinds of absolute poverty measurements. One class of poverty measurements is concerned with the number of people who are poor: The head count. A second type measures the amount of income needed to raise the poor out of poverty: The income shortfall or the poverty gap. The third class of poverty measurements is concerned with the distribution of income among the poor. Finally, there are composite poverty measurements such as the Sen Index and the Pa Index. These are concerned with the poverty of the poor only and not of the overall society.

The headcount

This is defined as:-

$$H = q/n$$

Where:

H = the head count ratio, that is the proportion (or percentage) of population getting income which is lower than poverty line;

q = the number of households or people whose income is below the poverty line;

n = the total number of people in the population or sample (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:569).

So the headcount ratio is used to determine the proportion or percentage of people or households which increase or decrease below the poverty line.

The income shortfall or the poverty gap

This is defined as

$$I = q (z - \mu)$$

Where:

I = aggregate income shortfall,

q = number of people below the poverty line,

z = poverty line,

μ = average income of the poor (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:569).

This measurement calculates the amount of income by which the poor fall short of the poverty line and thus indicate their degree of immiseration. But it does not show the severity of poverty and the distribution of the income among the poor.

The income distribution among the poor

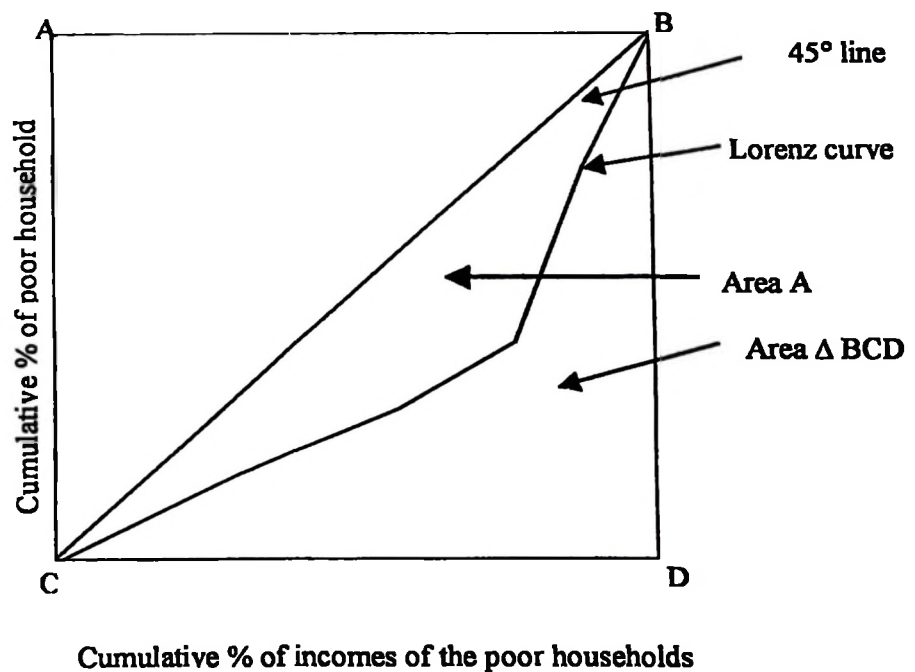
The most widely used measurements in this area are Lorenz curve and the Gini coefficient. These measurements are concerned only with the income distribution of the poor. The Lorenz curve is a graphical representation of the relationship between the cumulative shares of income of the poor (on the horizontal axis) and the cumulative percentage of the poor population (on the vertical axis) (Blackwood and Lynch 1994: 569-570).

The Gini coefficient is a measure of income inequality that is based on the Lorenz curve. It is the ratio of the area bounded by the Lorenz curve and the 45 degree line to the total area between the 45 degree reference line and the horizontal axis.

$$G = \frac{\text{Area between the Lorenz curve and the diagonal line (area A)}}{\text{Total area between the diagonal line and the horizontal axis (area } \triangle BCD \text{)}}$$

$$0 \leq G \leq 1.$$

Where G = Gini coefficient (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:570). An example of the Lorenz curve is shown in Figure 2 below.



Source: Wikipedia (2005:3).

Figure 2: Lorenz curve to indicate the income distribution of the poor

The greater the G values the more the inequality among the poor. For instance the HBS 2000/2001 results reveal growing income inequality in Tanzania, as measured by a rise in the Gini-coefficient from 0.34 in 1991/1992 to 0.35 in 2000/2001 (NBS 2002:83). Both the Lorenz curve and the Gini coefficient do not indicate the number of people whose income fall below the poverty line and also do not indicate the extent of impoverishment of a population (Kayunze 2001:9). Although mentioned the Sen index and Pa index are not commonly used in poverty studies in Tanzania, so they are not elaborated here. But essentially they are composite measurements of poverty whereby for instance, the Sen index reflects the number of the poor, the extent of their immiseration and the distribution of the income among the poor (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:570).

2.6.2.4 Relative poverty measurement using monetary indicators

According to PSP (2003:211) and Kayunze (2001:11), the relative poverty concept focuses on the well being, e.g. income or expenditure of the poorest x% of a population vis-à-vis the incomes of all other members of the population. In this approach no poverty line is used, instead either of the following alternative approaches is used:-

i) The average income of a specific percentage of the population

The average income of the poorest x% say 10%, 20% or 40% is found. People whose incomes are less than the average are taken to be poor. Once established, the same percentage is used consistently in cross-sectional and longitudinal studies so that data are comparable.

ii) Comparing income with a predetermined percentage of the mean income of the population

The mean income of a population is determined. The percentage (say 40%, 50%, or 75%) of the determined mean reflecting poverty is estimated. People whose incomes are less than the percentage are taken to be poor.

One of the advantages of using relative poverty measurement approaches is that they are politically and socially appealing since they consider poverty in the whole society and provide data wealth using in promoting community based development. But the disadvantages are; measurements of relative poverty do not reflect the well being of the poor; a relatively poor person may be very rich in absolute terms or vice versa. Secondly, improvement in relative poverty may be realised even in some cases where absolute poverty may have increased. Lastly, elimination of poverty using relative poverty approaches is impossible since even if all the people are rich, those with less wealth than others will be said to be poor. So due to these weaknesses relative poverty measurements are not used in poverty studies (PSP, 2003:212).

2.7 The state and distribution of poverty

2.7.1 World state and distribution of poverty

According to World Bank (2000:1), poverty amidst plenty is the world's greatest challenge. In the midst of great wealth and a technological revolution, deep poverty persists. About 1.2 billion people still live on less than a dollar a day, and three billion live on less than USD 2 a day. One and a half billion people still lack access to safe water, and 125 million children around the world do not attend primary school and millions especially

children, go to bed hungry every night. Also according to PRB (2000), cited by PSP (2003:212) in the year 2000, the world had 6067 millions (that is 6.067 billions) people and in 2004, the World Bank cited by WCSDG (2004:45) estimated the number of these people to be 1.1 billions. The distribution of the poor people in the world is as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Distribution of the poor living on less than USD 1 a day in year 2000

Region	Number of the poor (in millions)	Percentage
South Asia	432	39.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	323	29.4
East Asia and Pacific	57	5.2
Latin America & the Caribbean	56	5.1
East Europe & Central Asia	20	1.8
Middle East & North Africa	8	0.7
China	204	18.5
Total	1100	100.0

Source: World Bank (2004). Global Economic Prospects, cited by WCSDG (2004:45).

2.7.2 The state and distribution of poverty in Tanzania

Poverty is not uniformly distributed geographically or within the population. Distinctions can be noted in rural /urban poverty situations, gender and agro-ecological zones. Surveys have shown that 50% of all Tanzanians are poor; while 36% of them live in very poor conditions. There is also sufficient evidence to indicate that poverty is more prevalent in rural areas relative to urban areas. Almost 60% of the rural population is poor compared to 39% of the urban population (URT 1998:5). According to Household Budget Survey (HBS) the proportion of the population below the national food poverty line is 18.7% and that below the national basic needs poverty line is 35.7%. Poverty remains overwhelmingly in rural areas where 87 percent of the poor population live, and is highest among

households who depend on agriculture (NBS 2002:81). Based on human development index, the regions of Tanzania Mainland are ranked from the richest to the poorest in the late 2002, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Rank of regions of Tanzania Mainland from the richest to the poorest basing on the Human Development Index (HDI)

Richest	Rich	Poor	Poorest
1. Dar es Salaam	6. Ruvuma	11. Pwani	16. Kagera
2. Kilimanjaro	7. Mtwara	12. Tanga	17. Mwanza
3. Mbeya	8. Tabora	13. Mara	18. Lindi
4. Arusha	9. Singida	14. Dodoma	19. Shinyanga
5. Iringa	10. Morogoro	15. Kigoma	20. Rukwa

Source: URT (2002b: 56).

2.7.3 Poverty situation in Mbeya Region and Kyela District

URT (2003b:ix) comments that a good agricultural potential has given Mbeya Region the fifth largest regional GDP which at Tshs 366 241 millions in the year 2000 was exceeded by Dar-es-Salaam, Mwanza, Shinyanga and Arusha. However, the same author reports that Mbeya seems to have the largest regional GDP of the four neighbouring regions but seems to have the smallest per capita GDP compared with the same regions.

In year 2000 Iringa had Tshs. 214 575 per capita GDP, Rukwa Tshs. 219 406 and Ruvuma Tshs. 222 406 while Mbeya had Tshs. 174 544 per capita GDP. The relative low level of per capita GDP in Mbeya Region is a worrying factor, which can only be redressed by better production per capita. (URT 2003b:32-33).

URT (2002b:54) argues that Mbeya Region performs well particularly in income poverty cluster with second lowest basic needs and food poverty head count ratio of the country. High primary school enrolment ratios and good access to safe water (66%) for the rural areas also contribute to the overall performance of the region. However the performance on a few indicators gives reasons for concern, which are the high dropout rate for primary schools (27.3%), high incidence of diarrhoea cases and high prevalence of HIV infections among blood donors (17%). NBS (2002:23) estimates the percentage of households having houses with modern walls to be 32% only.

In Kyela District there are many poverty indicators which are responsible for the district remaining poor. Some of these are firstly, high maternal mortality rate which was 334 and 160 per 100 000 live births in 2002 and 2003 respectively (KDC 2003:5), which is very high compared to the rate in developed countries which is below 10 per 100 000 live births (PSP 2003:32). Secondly high incidences of diseases for example malaria is reported to be at 49.7% (KDC 2003:3), thirdly high number of school dropouts and school left outs (i.e. children who are out of school) which were 130 and 1312 respectively in 2003 (KDC 2003:14-15). The fourth is the number of children with moderate malnutrition in 2003 was 1034 (KDC 2003:11). The other undesirable family problem which is growing very fast in the district is the number of orphans which is accelerated by HIV/AIDS. KDC (2003:7) reports that in 2003 there were 2605 orphan children in the district.

2.7.4 Poverty distribution between rural and urban people in Tanzania

As stated in section 2.7.2 above, URT (2005a:4) also, asserts that poverty remains overwhelmingly in rural areas where 87% of the poor population live and is highest among households who depend on agriculture.

According to PSP (2003: 214 – 215) rural people tend to be and generally are poorer than urban ones, although some rural people are richer than urban ones. The main reasons for the tendency are:-

- (a) Social services, like education, health, water and sanitation which are poorer in rural areas than urban areas, limit human capital development.
- (b) Fewer employment opportunities, hence rural people rely mostly on rain fed agriculture, which is seasonal and precarious.
- (c) Shortage of capital for agriculture, which is their main economic activity, like use of inorganic fertilizers.
- (d) Poor infrastructures notably rural roads, increase in transport costs and cause other various difficulties in accessing markets for rural people products.
- (e) Rural people are poorly represented in organs that make decisions affecting them. Therefore, some decisions made at the district, regional and national levels do not enhance their poverty alleviation efforts.
- (f) Rural people cannot press the government unlike urban people, who can demonstrate demanding for some services from the government.
- (g) High prices of goods from town and low prices of rural agricultural products result into unequal exchange, thereby impoverishing rural people.

- (h) Vulnerability to macro-economic shocks and plans, such as taxation and transitory food insecurity hit harder rural people than urban ones.

2.8 Causes of poverty in Tanzania

Cooksey (1994:74) argues that the causes of poverty are multiple and highly complex in their interrelationships. URT (1998: 6–10) explains some of the major causes of poverty in Tanzania which are summarized as follows:-

2.8.1 Internal causes

The causes of poverty which are due to internal factors within our communities, society or country are;

- (a) Inefficient fiscal and monetary policies, which do not promote economic growth.
- (b) Insufficient support to the leading economic sectors.
- (c) Use of low level technology, which encumbers high production.
- (d) Poor gender division of labour at the household level, especially in rural areas where women do most of the activities while men rest more time, resulting in low production.
- (e) Poor work output at the individual and, household and community levels.
- (f) Diseases, including HIV/AIDS and others, which have already been eradicated, and those that are easily controlled and prevented in developed countries.
- (g) Having big families hence more dependants than other family members who can work.

2.8.2 External causes

The causes of poverty which are due to external factors outside our communities, society or country are;

- (a) National debt, which causes some proportions of recurrent budget to be paid to rich countries in lieu of being spent on social services and economic development.
- (b) Unequal exchange in international trade thereby limiting the ability of developing countries to break out of poverty cycle.
- (c) The burden of refugees, which increases pressure on natural resources.

2.9 Efforts of poverty reduction in Tanzania

2.9.1. Poverty reduction at the national level

Since independence in 1961, poverty was declared the national scourge alongside with the other two scourges, which are ignorance and diseases. All the national development plans were targeting at reduction of poverty and also ignorance and diseases. Although some of the writers such as Mtatifikolo (1994) cited by Kayunze (2001:17) say that during the early years after independence there was no specific action against poverty, but it is argued here that some effort to reduce poverty nation wise were being carried out. For example, Kashuliza (1986:59) reports that, soon after the independence in 1961, the government started the Agricultural Credits Agency (ACA) which was specifically charged with the responsibilities of meeting the credit needs of the small farmers.

Then came the Arusha Declaration in 1967 which, not only popularised the socialism and self-reliance policy but also it emphasised rural development, tried to bridge the gap between the incomes of the urban and the rural people, and reducing income disparities

among wage earners. After the Arusha Declaration some policies and sectoral programmes were announced with the aim to reduce poverty or improve the living standards of the people. Some of the policies were socialism and self-reliance, socialism and rural development. Other programmes were Universal Primary Education (UPE), Siasa ni Kilimo (Politics is Agriculture), Mtu ni Afya (Human being is health), Water for all and Chakula ni Uhai (Food is life).

In early and late 1980s, Tanzania witnessed the introduction of many economic programmes and policies to reduce poverty, some were home made and some were introduced by the external agents. Some of these were the National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) of 1981, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1982 and the Agricultural Policy of 1983. Others were the trade liberalisation of 1984 and the Structural Adjustment programme, which were sponsored by the World Bank of 1986 and implemented as Economic Recovery Programmes (ERP I) of 1986/87 to 1988/89 and ERP II of 1989/90 to 1991/92 (Bagachwa *et al.*, 1995, cited by Kayunze 2001:18).

Recent efforts to reduce poverty are implemented by the government by abiding to the programmes published in booklets such as Tanzania Development Vision 2025 of 1998, The National Poverty Eradication Strategy of 1998, Tanzania Assistance Strategy of 1999, Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper of 2000 and recently, the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty of 2005.

2.9.2 Household poverty reduction initiatives

In Tanzania and in the study area in particular, households are trying hard to overcome poverty. Several activities both farm and non-farm are done intensively by almost all the members of the households except the under five children to let ends meet. The activities done in order to generate household income and which draw excessive labour and time are household poverty reduction activities or poverty reduction strategies. This is because in most cases these activities which draw child labour augment the household income (URT 2002a:33).

Tanzania's development policies have considered activities of both formal and informal sectors including non-farm activities, in alleviating poverty (Kihyo *et al.*, 1999:100). Household income generating activities have been considered as interventions of poverty or poverty reduction initiatives. These initiatives are taken by individuals both in urban and rural areas and they are supported by various donors, non governmental organizations and the government. This is in alignment with United Nations' Millennium Development Goal (MDG) number 1, which aims at eradication of extreme poverty and hunger by the year 2015 (UN 2003:1) and that of Tanzania development target number 1 (URT 2000:5).

By poverty reduction, literally here it means making or enabling an individual, a household, a community or a country as a whole to acquire additional wealth or income which will shift him/her or it from the poor to the less poor standard of living. Poverty is a challenge to human life. In fact, according to Sokoine, the late Tanzania Premier when addressing the Tanzania National Assembly in 1983/1984 as cited by Lowasa (1999:1), "human life is always a struggle. One has to strive to overcome the challenges of life, be it

environmental, man-made or natural calamities. Without individual courage and determination, the challenges would lead to human destruction. The ability to overcome the challenges is within human capabilities". Mhagama (1995:7) argues that poverty alleviation is concerned mainly with the cushioning of low-income and vulnerable people from effects of sudden deterioration in their standard of living. Again Limbu (1995:6) in general terms states that poverty alleviation in rural areas "means increasing the ability of rural population to acquire basic necessities, namely food security, adequate and decent clothing, better shelter/housing which includes better place to sleep, improving democracy and security. Other things remaining the same, poverty alleviation could be synonymous to the increase in rural income".

In addition, which seems to be a mathematical definition, household poverty alleviation is gain in net household product (NHP) which satisfies some human needs, where net household product is a total value (money value) of products and services (including wages from casual labour) minus total cost (except the value of the household labour) incurred to produce the products and the services in a year (Kayunze, 2001:23). The net household product per adult equivalent is compared with the national poverty line which is about USD 1 per adult equivalent per day (URT, 2005b:3).

To overcome poverty, people in Tanzania and in Kyela District in particular have come up with various income generating activities most of them with a side effect of children participation as child labourers. Non-farm income generating activities, traditional and some are new to the rural areas are being done intensively. Examples of the activities are brick making for sale, food vending at market places and near schools, making and selling

local brew, intensive fishing at night, collection and selling of fire woods, pots making, fish petty trading, food crop products petty trading, scrap metal scavenging and selling etc. All these engage a lot of children in their operation at family level. Adams (1994:110) reports that, the results of rural budget surveys in a number of developing countries suggest that non-farm income represents between 13 and 67 percent of total rural household income. For the case of employed children, they are under paid and they are forced to work to help reduce their families' poverty.

The other means of poverty reduction adopted by the children and which seem to be encouraged by their parents or guardians is migration to other places within the country or across the boarder to Malawi. According to Liviga and Mekacha (1998:3), one of the push factors favouring youth migration from rural areas is low income, while one of the pull factors is being employed and or self employed. All these poverty reduction initiatives involve children especially at the expense of schooling. It is an attempt of this study which has come up with empirical information of household poverty and child labour especially in rural areas of Kyela District, to put clear their relationship.

2.10 Definition of child labour

As it is given in the background information many scholars and writers have defined child labour according to the definition given by ILO which is: Child labour is work performed by children under 18 years of age which is exploitative, hazardous or inappropriate for their age and which is detrimental to their health, schooling, or social, mental, spiritual and moral development (URT, 2002a:73; ILO 2004:1). This definition gives child labour the sense of work. In the sense of the number of children Musoke (1996:2) defines child labour

as those children who by one reason or another are forced to sell their labour power for wages in order to earn means of subsistence or living in the labour market. According to Musoke (1996:3), as explained in section 1.1, once in employment, child workers in industries, mines and other sectors such as agriculture or informal sector, including those self employed, are faced with very detrimental and serious risks to their health and physical as well as social/psychological and emotional development. Again Black (1993:16) argues that exploitative child work is when children work when they are too young, work for too long hours, for too little pay, in hazardous conditions and under slave-like arrangements.

2.11 Child labour Vs child work in child human capital development

According to URT (2002b:92), child work is an integral part of the socio-cultural and economic systems of many African households and communities. It is part of the training and capacity building of a person. Child work does not automatically lead to exploitation. Moreover, some argue that work is often important form of socialisation in developing countries, where survival is still a primary issue (Akabayashi and Psacharopoulos 1999:121). Also Rodgers and Standing (1981) cited by the same authors argue that we have to be careful not to make an automatic assumption that work by children impairs education and intellectual development....work itself may be an important component of "education" especially in household-based production systems.

Again Black (1993:15-16) asserts that communities which value certain technical skills such as pottery, weaving, woodwork, blacksmith, lace making, bangle making usually begin to impart them to children as early as practicable. This has been a universal

experience; in pre-modern Europe boys used to be apprenticed at the age of nine or ten, and girls of the same age were apprenticed into marriage and domestic service. However, some new social, cultural and economic developments have encouraged households to use child labour as a source of income. This has led to some of the worst form of child labour as children become integrated into the labour market, outside of their homes. Children become vulnerable to psychological and physical abuse that lead to numerous mental, physical, social and moral problems. They are often denied their rights to education, good health and care (URT 2002b:93). Moreover child work can be harmful to the development of human capital- probably to the extent that it results in a reduction of other inputs of human capital development such as time to study (Akabayashi and Psacharopoulos 1999:121).

2.12 Some legal definitions of a Child in Tanzania

According to URT (2002a:7), in Tanzania, there are statutes that give a general definition of the child in line with Article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child whereby a child is defined as any human being below the age of 18 years. These include the Interpretation and General Clauses Act, 1972, in which a “minor” is defined (section 3 (1) as a person who has not attained the apparent age of 18 years. The age of Majority Ordinance Cap. 431 and the Age of Majority (Citizenship Laws) Act 1970, the Citizenship Ordinance Cap. 452 and the Registration of Births and Deaths Ordinance Cap. 108 are all general statutes which set the age of majority at 18 years. The Employment Ordinance Cap. 366 of 1955 which was amended by Act No. 5 of 1969 defines a child as a person under the apparent age of fifteen (15) years (Section 2); and prohibits employment in any capacity whatsoever of a child below the age of 15 years. Under the Adoption Ordinance

Cap. 335 (of 1955) the maximum age of an “infant” to be adopted is 21 years, implying that any one below this age is an infant also known as a child (URT, 2002a:8). Again the Marriage Act No. 5 of 1971 allows a girl to get married at the age of 15 years (URT 1996:6), which means the Act defines a girl child as that one of below 15 years of age. Surprisingly related to the Marriage Act, it appears people in Kyela District are even violating it as URT (2004b:22) reports that the number of children of the age 10 to 14 years who are married is 120, 11 are living together, seven are separated, five are divorced, 22 are widows and 19507 have never married. This makes a social hurdle in an effort to eliminate child labour, because these children in different marital statuses have to work as adults for their households' livelihoods.

2.13 Child rights

According to URT (1996:12), Tanzania is one of the UN member states which have ratified the convention on the Rights of the Child. According to the convention the basic rights of the child are stipulated as follows:-

- Survival rights;
- Development rights;
- Protection rights;
- Participation rights;
- The right not to be discriminated against;

2.14 Some legal provisions related to working children

Also according to URT (2002a:8), 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 81(2); 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:

- Limit to the weight a child shall be allowed to carry (Section 2 (1) (a));
- Limit to the consecutive and total number of hours a child may work in a day (Section 2(1) (b));
- A child shall not work during the night (Section 2) (1) (c);
- A child shall not enter a machinery room (Section 2(1) (d));
- A child shall not work during schooling hours (Section 2(1) (e));

2.15 Some of the important policies and their relevant parts related to children

According to URT (2002a:8), these are:

- i) The Education and Training Policy of 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 of 1979, holds 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 of 1997, aimed at alleviating poverty through increase in per capita income. The policy encourages child work as a socialization process but discourages 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 of 1996, which recognizes child rights to, among others, nutrition, health and shelter, education, safety and rights not to be discriminated against.**

Since the laws and policies in Tanzania do not put a single cut off point of age to define a child so that he/she can be legally allowed to work or be employed, for the purpose of this work, a child was considered in child labour if he/she was 5 to 14 years of age.

2.16 The Objectives of the Tanzania Child Development Policy

According to the Tanzania Child Development Policy URT (1996:10-11), the objectives are:-

- i) **To define a child in the Tanzanian context.**
- ii) **To educate the community on the basic rights of the child**
- iii) **To provide direction and guidance on child survival, protection and development.**
- iv) **To provide direction on upbringing of children in difficult circumstances.**
- v) **To enable the community to understand the source of problems facing children.**
- vi) **To give a proper direction to children so that they may become good citizens.**
- vii) **To clarify the roles and responsibilities of children, parents, community institutions and the government in planning, coordinating and implementing plans for children.**
- viii) **To emphasize the joint responsibilities of both parents (men and women) in caring for and bringing up their children.**

- ix) To educate the community in order to ensure that children inherit good traditions and customs.
- x) To ensure that there are laws which can be used to deal with child abuse.

2.17 World distribution of child labour

According to ILO (2004:1) more than 200 million children are working in the world, and in fact according to Globalmarch (2004:1) the number is more than 246 million. Both the developed and developing countries showed prevalence of child labour in the year 2000, which is well indicated by data from countries' ILO offices respectively. To mention a few examples Table 5 below shows the total child labour in some countries.

Table 5: Total child labour around the world

Country	Total child labour	Age range (years)
Afghanistan	601 000	10 – 14
Angola	431 000	10 – 14
Argentina	486 387	5 – 19
Australia	804 100	15 – 19
Austria	200 800	5 – 19
Bangladesh	6 584 000	5 – 15
Belgium	67 669	15 – 19

Source: Globalmarch (2004:1-3)

2.18 Child labour in Tanzania

REPOA (2003:1) reports that based on ILO's World Employment Report of 1998–99, Tanzania has a total labour force of 16.17 million, out of which 18% are workers aged 14 years and below. This means that more than a total of 2.9 million were child labourers in those years. The 2000/2001 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (ILFCLS) found that 4.7 million children aged between five and seventeen years were engaged in

children in Tanzania work for more than 40 hours a week or 6 or more hours a day. The recommended time or the cut off point of time for children to work not being counted as child labourers also depend on country's labour laws. In Pakistan the working time for children to be termed as child labourers is more than 35 hours a week (Jafri and Raishad, 1997:75). In Tanzania, the recommended time for a child to work is not more than 4 hours a day or not more than 30 hours a week (URT, 2002a: 48). By this cut off point, the same author reports that 1.6 million children work for more than 4 hours a day in Tanzania.

2.21 Efforts to end child labour

The efforts to end child labour in the world are advocated by the International Labour Organization (ILO) with its International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). The ILO Convention No.182 of 1999 on worst forms of child labour states that "where a child under the age of 18 years is engaged in domestic labour and works under conditions that are hazardous, then this constitutes a worst form of child labour and must be eliminated as a matter of urgency" (ILO, 2004:1). In Tanzania, steps are being taken and Tanzania is one of the first three countries in the world (the others being El Salvador and Nepal) to implement the pilot time bound programme to eliminate the worst forms of child labour. The government runs a programme, which is supported by ILO and funded by US Department of Labour (Reliefweb, 2004:3). The programme targets only 11 districts in the country, which are Simanjiro, Kinondoni, Temeke, Urambo, Mufindi, Iringa Rural, Iramba, Kondoa, Arusha Urban, Arumeru and Ilala (REPOA 2003:4). These areas are either main source or employing areas of children in child labour. These efforts are aimed to end child labour in commercial agriculture, mining and prostitution. However, workers trade unions, government labour officers and NGOs put efforts to eliminate child labour all

over the country. The problem of child labour at household level in Kyela District increases, as the district is not included in the programme for the elimination of child labour in the country.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted in six villages of Kyela District. Three of them were selected from Matema ward and the other three from Ipinda ward. The two wards belong to one administrative division of Ntebela. The villages in Matema ward are Ikombe, Matema and Mababu while the villages in Ipinda ward are Lupaso, Kafundo and Ipinda. Parts of Ikombe and Matema which are bordering villages make the shores of Lake Nyasa and parts of all the three villages in Matema ward lie in the lower slopes of Mount Livingstone. The three villages of Ipinda ward lie on the central flat land part of the Ntebela division. Ipinda is a small town which is the headquarters of Ipinda ward and also Ntebela division. Kafundo and Ipinda villages share the same border. Ikombe, Mababu and Ipinda villages have big village markets in the district. The study area can be well seen in Figure 3.

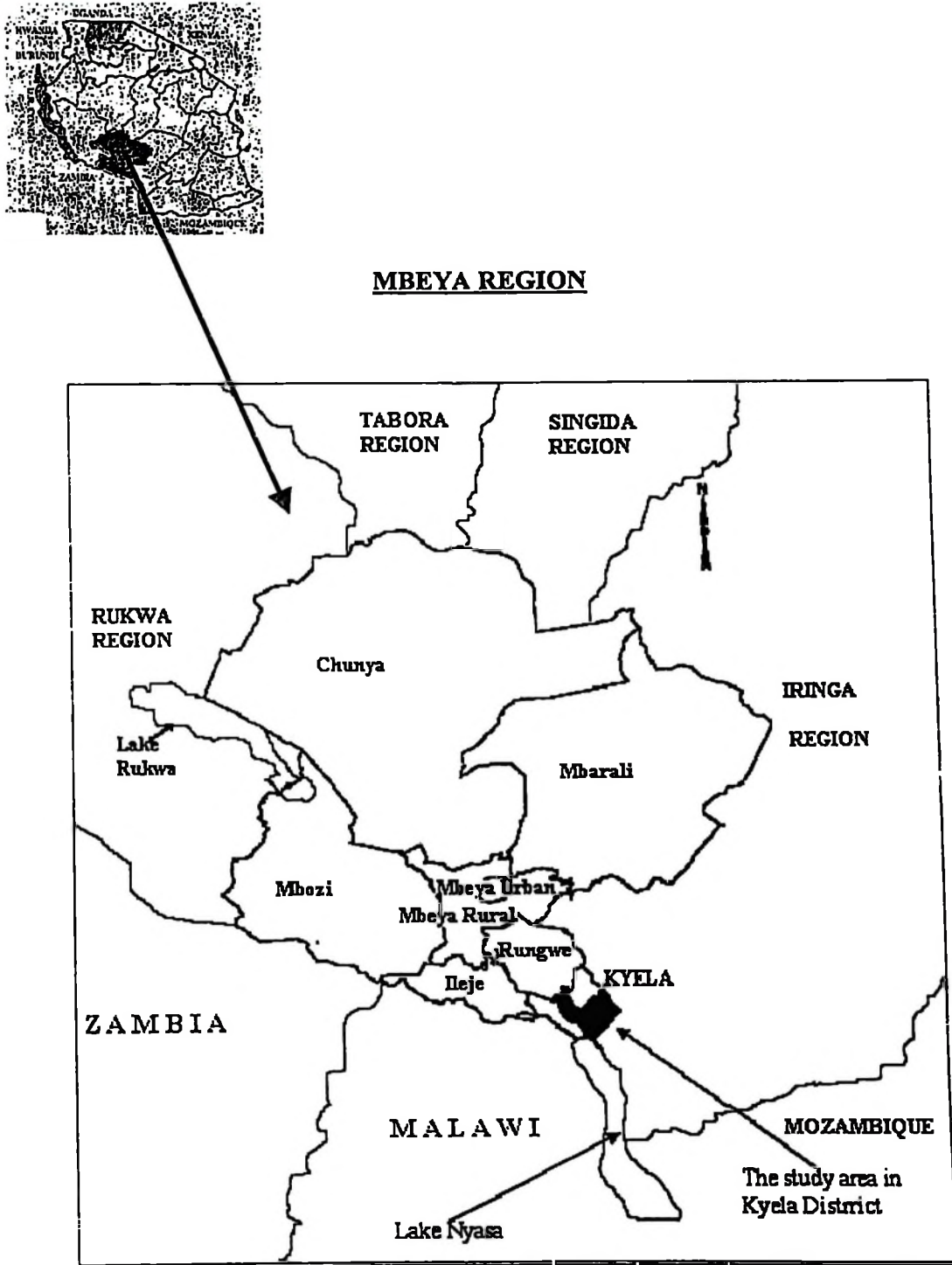


Figure 3: The study area

3.1.1 Criteria for selecting the study area

The study area is basically a rural area whereby Tellagan (1977), cited by Kasimila (2003:4) defines a rural area as a place in which agriculture is the main activity and the key source of income, including small towns, which primarily serves as agricultural areas. The economic activities of the inhabitants in the study area are agriculture, fishing, forestry and petty trading which employs a big number of children in their execution as reported by URT (2002a:38). Again a point in time has come now to talk about child labour in rural areas as Alan Silverman cited by Black (1993:17), points out that “we talk about street children but what about beach children and children in rural areas for whom street is inappropriate?” Also Chambers (1981:13) suggests that one of the ways to remedy the biases exhibited by rural development tourism is through poverty oriented research in rural areas to be carried out by officials as part of their in-service training.

3.2 General description of Kyela District

3.2.1 Geographical location, land area and use

Kyela District is one of the seven (7) districts of Mbeya Region. It is located at the South-eastern end of the region. It lies between 30⁰⁰' and 35⁴⁰' longitudes east and between 9²⁵' and 9³⁰' latitudes south. A good part of the district lies on the floor of the Great Rift Valley at the Northern tip of Lake Nyasa. The district is bordered by Ileje District to the North-West, Rungwe District to the North, Makete and Ludewa Districts (in Iringa Region) to the East. Lake Nyasa lies in the South and the Republic of Malawi to West-marked by Songwe River valley (URT 1997:1). The district has a total land area of 1322 sq. km. (1 322 000 hectares) of which arable land is 500 000 ha; forest reserve is 63 000

ha; water masses (Lake Nyasa, rivers and swamps) is 450 000 ha and others 308 000 ha. (URT, 1997:1).

3.2.2 Administrative structures and population

The district is divided into two administrative divisions namely Unyakyusa (in the South) and Ntebela (in the North). These are divided into 15 administrative wards, which are further divided into 96 villages (KDC, 2004:1). According to the National Population and Housing Census of 2002, Kyela District has a population of 173 830 with a rural population of 153 790 (about 88.5%) and urban population of 20 040. The total number of children aged 5 to 14 years is 46 436 with a total of 41 573 (about 89.5%) living in rural areas and 4863 living in urban areas (URT, 2003a:1).

3.2.3 Weather and economic activities

The district has a humid tropical climate with a mean daily temperature of 28⁰ C. The rainy season is from November to June with a short dry spell in February. The district receives a mean rainfall of between 2000 mm to 3000 mm. The peak period of heavy rainfall is during the months of March and April (KDC, 2004:1). Kyela District's economy largely depends on agriculture and livestock activities, which contribute 65% of the district GDP. The two sectors are estimated to provide means of livelihood to 85%-90% of the people in the district. The sectors' contributions are followed by fishing and forest operations estimated to contribute 30% to the district GDP. Trading and small-scale industrial operations are estimated together with other remaining activities to contribute 5% to the GDP (URT, 1997:60).

3.3 Research design

In this study a cross-sectional research design was used, because this enables a researcher to collect data at a single point in time. It is also useful because it involves collection of data on a sample of at least two groups of subjects, e.g. persons with different ages, education, income levels etc at one point in time (Bailey 1994: 36; Bernard 1994: 282). It is also used in descriptive studies. In this study children and heads of households were involved. Another factor which influences the choice of this design is the resource limitations in terms of time and research funds for data collection.

3.4 Sampling methods and sample sizes

Multistage sampling technique was applied. The district has two administrative divisions and one was involved in the study because of cost minimisation. The administrative wards were purposively sampled taking those with all or some of their inhabitants living on combined agriculture, fishing, forestry and petty trading (e.g. selling food in the streets or at the markets) economic activities as these are said to be the main economic activities involving child labour. Two wards Matema and Ipinda were sampled. The villages with fishing, forestry and petty trading especially with village markets were purposively sampled, while those with agriculture only as an economic activity were simple randomly sampled. Three villages in each ward were sampled whereby their names and locations are as explained in section 3.1 above. The sampling of children themselves was mainly purposive in order to catch the children in child labour. Twenty children and six heads of households (in which children are living/working) from each village were sampled. According to the above procedure, a total of 36 heads of households and a total of 120 children were involved as respondents in the study.

3.5 Data collection and instruments for data collection

Primary data was collected from firstly, the children themselves who were involved in child labour, secondly from the heads of the households who were presumed to be either sources or employers of child labourers and thirdly from the village leaders, school teachers, district labour and social welfare offices, NGOs, and workers trade unions currently working against child labour. Data from children who were involved in both agricultural and non-agricultural economic activities were used. Secondary data were collected from libraries, internet and other relevant sources such as National Bureau of Statistics offices in Mbeya and Dar-es-Salaam. Structured questionnaires with both open and close-ended questions were used for primary data collection. Focus group discussions with heads of households together with a checklist of questions were also used to add information that was not captured by the questionnaires. See the questionnaires and check list in Appendices 3, 4 and 5. Some questions were adopted from the 2000/2001 Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (URT, 2002a:82-90). The data were cleaned in each day after collection.

3.5.1 Pilot study

A pilot study was done first in the study area to test the validity of the instruments of data collection and then necessary corrections were incorporated at the Sokoine University of Agriculture.

3.6 Data processing and analysis

The data collected were processed and analysed at the Sokoine University of Agriculture. Before analysis the data were further cleaned, sorted, summarised coded and entered. The

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software was applied in coding, entry and analysis of data. Descriptive statistics, particularly frequencies and percentages, means, medians modes and also cross-tabulations were used. Chi-square analysis in the SPSS was also used to test the null hypothesis i.e. the independence or dependence (association) of the variables which are household annual income and household having child labour.

3.6.1 Analysis of focus group discussions

In each village a focus group discussion was carried out between the researchers and the sampled household heads and other key informants. Content and discourse analyses were used to analyse the focus group discussions. According to Kothari (1993:137) content analysis consists of analysing the contents of documentary materials such as books, magazines, newspapers and the content of all other verbal materials, which can be either spoken or printed. Again discourse analysis is the linguistic analysis of ongoing flow of communication, several people discussing, and not individual person specifically. It finds patterns of questions, who dominates time and how, and other patterns of interaction (Gee, 1992 cited by Ratcliff, 2005:4-5). The quality of this data depended how much an individual behaviour is subject to group influence, or on the relationship between leaders and other people, husband and wife or parent and child.

3.7 Limitations of the study

3.7.1 Limitations due to research funds

Firstly the funds were disbursed very late to the researcher from the sponsor, the Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security and Cooperatives, which made the research work plan to be

disorganised and sometimes due to worry of not accomplishing the work in time the researcher had to borrow funds from other sources which also could not suffice the requirements. Secondly the funds disbursed were not enough to cater for some activities. For example, due to shortage of funds the researcher and the assistant sometimes had to hire bicycles instead of cars for transport especially in areas where public transport operates occasionally i.e. in few days in a week.

3.7.2 Untimely meetings with local leaders

In some cases local leaders especially the Ward Executive Officers, Village Chairpersons and Executive Officers, District Officers were not readily available when the researchers wanted to meet and talk to them. This problem was critical especially during the pilot study which was done during the time of the 2005 main national election campaigns. While the researchers needed crucially introduction and familiarization to them and the people/respondents the leaders were busy with the election campaigns. The problem persisted even during the research work itself.

3.7.3 Reluctance of the respondents

Some respondents especially the children and the household heads were reluctant to answer some of the questions due to either sensitivity of the question or having no record in memory. For example the questions related to the households annual incomes and children incomes. The researchers had to spend more time to discuss with the respondents to come up with the data on such particular questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Demographic and socio- economic characteristics of children in child labour

4.1.1 Age of the children

The age of the respondents in the study area ranged from eight years to fourteen years. The age could have been more than fourteen years as child labour in Tanzania is considered when children below eighteen years and above four perform laborious works, but the study restricted itself to children between five and fourteen years inclusive in order not to go against some laws especially the employment law as explained in sections 2.11 to 2.14. Some children reported to start working in child labour at the age of six years. The results show that many children at the age of 12 to 14 participate in child labour. This can be accounted for as the children in these ages are more mature and responsible. Similar results by other studies show high participation of children in the ages of 10 to 14 years (NBS 2002:58; URT 2004b:82). Table 6 shows the distribution children in child labour by age and sex.

Table 6: Distribution of children (respondents) by age and sex (N=120)

Age in years	Sex of the respondent		Total frequency	Percent
	Male	Female		
8	3	3	6	5.0
9	3	3	6	5.0
10	3	5	8	6.7
11	2	5	7	5.8
12	14	17	31	25.8
13	17	12	29	24.2
14	21	12	33	27.5
Total	63	57	120	100.0

4.1.2 Sex of the children

The children sampled in the study area indicate that both sexes participate fully in child labour although the results show that boys participate at only 5% more than girls. Results from the Integrated Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (2000/2001) show that participation of male children is also more than that of female children in the age of 5 to 14 years, by only 1.9% (URT 2002a:31). One of the reasons for boys to participate more than girls in the study area is that some of the economic activities which draw child labour such as fishing, brick making and ploughing, are traditionally and socially meant for boys rather than girls. The total participation percentages of the two sexes of children are indicated in Table 7.

Table 7: Total percentages of children (respondents) by sex (N=120)

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	63	52.5
Female	57	47.5
Total	120	100.0

4.1.3 Schooling status of children

By schooling status here it means whether a child is schooling on full or part time basis or not schooling at all. Many children and in fact almost all who were respondents in this study attend school and also work in household chores or in income generating activities which mainly subject them into child labour. Only 13 children reported not schooling during the research week(s), which is 10.8% of the sampled number of children, and that all the 107 children out of 120 i.e. 89.2% (full and part time) are schooling and also working. The works considered here are agricultural activities, income generating activities and also the household chores. It is clear that child labour has affected or affects school

attendance as 87 i.e. 72.5% of children reported to attend school on part time. Musoke (1996:3), the HBS and the ILFCLS both of 2000/2001 report a similar trend that many children in child labour of the age of 5 to 14 or 17 years are also attending school. The HBS reports that a third of the sampled children are studying and also working in household chores and in economic activities (NBS 2002:58), while the ILFCLS indicate that about 36.1% of children participate in economic activities (income generating activities) and also do study (URT 2002a:31). The percentage of children who both study and work in the study area is higher than those reported by the two studies because of two main reasons. Firstly, the proportion include both working in household chores and in income generating activities and secondly many children who were out of school are now encouraged to attend classes. The district has just started to implement a primary school programme known as Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET). Table 8 below shows the schooling status of the sampled children.

Table 8: Schooling status of children (N=120)

Sex of the respondents	School attendance			Total
	Full time	Part time	No	
Male	9	47	7	63
Female	11	40	6	57
Total	20	87	13	120
Percentage	16.7	72.5	10.8	100.0

4.1.4 Education level of children

By education level it means the highest class the child is schooling or the highest class schooled by him/her. The level of education of the children in child labour in the study area shows that many children are in standard I to standard IV as 77 children which are

64.2% reported to be up to standard IV. Thirty percent of the children in child labour are in standard V to VII. Only 7 children (5.8%) reported to be without any formal education. These are among the thirteen children who don't attend school at all (Table 8 above). The distribution of children basing on their level of education is as shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Distribution of children (respondents) by education level (N=120)

Education level	Frequency	Percent
No formal education	7	5.8
Up to standard four	77	64.2
Up to standard seven	36	30.0
Total	120	100.0

4.1.5 Employment status of children

The employment status here refers to whether the children in child labour are paid or are just working as family helpers. Half of the children sampled responded that they are paid for the work they do in child labour. This shows that children are encouraged by payment however little it is to enter in child labour. It is argued here that payment is an attractant of children to enter into child labour. The proportion of children who reported to work without pay is 14.2% indicating that they were mainly involved as household helpers or in household chores. Some 43 children or 35.8% of the children had no response. This is because most of these 43 were household workers in income generating activities or household chores of which most of the parents or the household heads do not pay the children. Also because the children failed to comprehend that their own work is a pay job since from the results of children income in the week(s) of data collection every child responded to have made some income from the work he/she was doing (Table 11). The employment status of the children is indicated in Table 10.

Table 10: Distribution of children by employment status (N=120)

Employment status	Frequency	Percent
With pay	60	50.0
Without pay	17	14.2
Missing response	43	35.8
Total	120	100.0

4.1.6 Income of children

The income gained by children in child labour per day was reported by them during the week(s) of study and actually they said it varies a lot depending on very many factors. Some of them being type and urgency of the activity, for example cocoa harvesting when the businessmen with money and transport are waiting; and also type of product and the demand of the product for example the sardines (fish) are highly demanded as some businessmen and women come from Malawi; burnt bricks transporting by carrying which was reported by many children that it is a very lowly paid job for them. But all in all the income per day gained by children is very small as many (72) children, more than a half responded that they get not more than Tshs. 1000.00 a day which is below the universal poverty line of USD 1 a day (Currently USD 1= Tshs. 1200.00). The minimum and maximum incomes reported were Tshs. 150.00 and Tshs. 2700.00 per day respectively, with a mean income of Tshs. 1015.00 and standard deviation of Tshs. 587.65. On average the mean income per day also is below USD 1. This low payment to children makes child labour exploitative (Black 1993:16). Similar results are reported by REPOA (2003:28-29) that household additional income accruing from children in child labour is found to be very low in most cases, with more than 50% earning up to Tshs. 10 000.00 per month which is Tshs. 333.35 a day. Table 11 depicts the income per day for each child in the study area.

Table 11: Distribution of children by income gained per day (Tshs) (N=120)

Income/ day	Frequency	Percent
150.00	1	0.8
200.00	8	6.7
250.00	1	0.8
300.00	3	2.5
400.00	6	5.0
450.00	2	1.7
500.00	18	15.0
600.00	3	2.5
700.00	6	5.0
800.00	6	5.0
900.00	1	0.8
1000.00	17	14.2
1200.00	13	10.8
1400.00	1	0.8
1500.00	14	11.7
1600.00	1	0.8
1800.00	2	1.7
2000.00	16	13.3
2700.00	1	0.8
Total	120	100.0

The mean (average) income per day is a little bit higher for boys (Tshs 1100.00) while that for girls (Tshs 920.20), even lower than the mean for both sexes (Tshs.1015.00). REPOA (2003:29) also report that on average girls in child labour get lower income per month than boys. The trend of the difference in average income between boys and girls in the study area is shown in Figure 4 below.

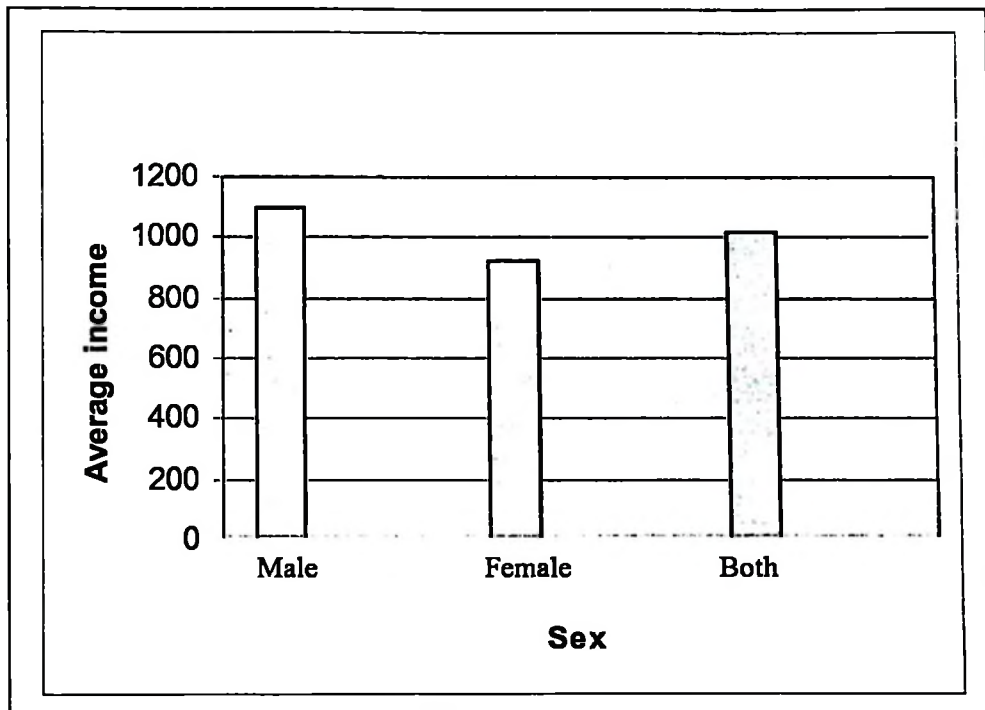


Figure 4: Children average income per day by sex

4.1.7 Use of child labour to augment household income

Many children reported that they give part of their income to parents/guardians which proves that child labour is used to augment household income hence reduce the household poverty. Out of 120 children, 88 (73.3%) said they give part of their earnings to parents/guardians by themselves, four (3.3%) give part of their earnings through the employer, seven (5.8%) give all their earnings by themselves, 19 (15.8%) said no, they do not give any, one child said she was not sure because she gives to them as a saving and only one child did not respond. In total 99 (82.5%) children said frankly that they give their earnings to their parents/guardians. This entails that child labour is used to reduce household poverty.

4.1.8 Health conditions of children at work place

Children when working encounter health problems due to the working conditions at work places, which make them suffer injuries due to accidents or any illness. Almost all children reported to work without protective gear and most of them do not know the liability of encountering an accident or illness due to the poor working conditions (i.e. ignorant of health hazard risks).

A total of 77 children (41 boys and 36 girls) which is about 64.2% of the respondents reported to have been injured or suffered a certain illness due to the working conditions at their work place. For instance male children especially in Lupaso village reported to have foot skin problems caused by walking bare foot on wetland during ox-ploughing. Boys who are engaged in fishing and ox-ploughing at night suffer fever and pneumonia and fatigue. Some children also suffer eye infections, stiff neck, backache, leg injuries etc. Musoke (1996:5) argues that, as such, children are more liable than adults to suffer occupational injuries because of/owing to inattention, fatigue, poor judgment and insufficient knowledge of work processes and also because of equipment, machinery, tools and layout of most work places designed for adults. Treatment to the injured/diseased children was reported to be not prompt because most of them go without any treatment or at most they are treated by medicine bought from local stores. Table 12 below shows the incidences of injuries or illness faced by children in child labour.

Table 12: Distribution of children by incidences of injuries/illness and sex (N=120)

Sex	Number of children		Total
	Injured/got sickness	Not injured/no sickness	
Male	41	22	63
Female	36	21	57
Total	77	43	120
Percentage	64.2	35.8	100.0

4.1.9 Attitude of children towards child labour

Most of the respondents were in bitter feelings with the work they do especially those involved in long time of work, working at night and those who were lowly paid than what they expected. Eighty five percent (85%) of the children responded that they were unhappy with their current job/work they were doing, but in most cases they have no alternatives. A study by ILFCLS 2000/2001 also, reveals that 51% of children of age 5 to 17 were not satisfied with their current job/work and also that 75% of children aged 5 to 9 were not satisfied (URT 2002a:63). Concerning to this many children in the study area showed a desire to continue studying without any interruption of work especially during school hours. The number and percentage of children indicating their attitude towards child labour is shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Attitude of children towards child labour (N=120)

Attitude	Frequency	Percent
Unhappy with their current job	102	85.0
Happy with their current job	18	15.0
Total	120	100.0

4.1.10 Problems faced by children in child labour

Many children reported that they face many problems during working. Among them are, little pay, physical and verbal abuse and harassment. For example one child in Ipinda small town said sometimes the elder children (boys) take his groundnuts without paying and sometimes he is beaten if he insists on them to pay for. Another problem is working in hazardous conditions for example without protective gear, the case of ox-ploughing in wet land without putting on gumboots and the case of going to fish in deep lake without life jackets are vivid evidences. Other problems are working for too long hours, work being too hard or too demanding, working during school hours and many incidences of injuries and diseases.

4.2 Demographic and socio-economic characteristic of households with child labour

4.2.1 Sex and marital status of the household heads

The results show that more male household heads were sampled than their female counterparts. This is because in general and especially in rural areas many households are headed by men and those few headed by women is just because most of them are widows; unlike in urban areas where many female household heads are just single, separated, divorced or widowed. A tendency in rural areas for a divorced or separated woman is to go back to her parents' household. The study has shown also 70% (seven out of ten) of the sampled female household heads were widows, two were married but their husbands living very far away and only one was divorced. But all the sampled male household heads were married. Table 14 indicate the distribution of the household heads in each sampled village by sex.

Table 14: Distribution of the household heads (respondents) according to village and sex (N=36)

Village of the respondents	Sex of the respondents		Total
	Male	Female	
Ikombe	5	1	6
Matema	5	1	6
Mababu	6	0	6
Lupaso	5	1	6
Kafundo	3	3	6
Ipinda	2	4	6
Total	26	10	36
Percentage	72.2	27.8	100.0

4.2.2 Age of the household heads

The age of the household heads ranged from a minimum of 29 years to a maximum of 78 years giving a range of 49 years. The mean age of the respondents is 52 years with a standard deviation of 12 years. Men have a minimum age of 29 years while women have a minimum age of 34 years, while the maximum ages for men and women are 66 years and 78 years respectively. Further analysis shows that most of the respondents are in the age group of 44 to 64 years giving 58.3% of the total number of the household heads (Table 15 below). It appears that household heads in this age group have many children in child labour in the study area.

Table 15: Distribution of the household heads by major age groups (N=36)

Village	Age groups			Total
	15-44	44-64	65 and above	
Ikombe	0	4	2	6
Matema	3	3	0	6
Mababu	2	4	0	6
Lupaso	1	5	0	6
Kafundo	2	3	1	6
Ipinda	2	2	2	6
Total	10	21	5	36
Percentage	27.8	58.3	13.9	100.0

4.2.5 Conditions of the shelter/houses of the households

The conditions of the shelters/houses of the households in the study area are generally poor. The results show that 35.5% (11 out of 36) of houses are out of burnt bricks walls and corrugated iron sheet roofs. Three more houses are out of mud bricks walls and corrugated iron sheet roofs, making a total percent of corrugated iron sheet roofed houses to be 38.9. All other houses have thatched roofs making a percentage of 61.1. Most of the thatched houses have walls out of bamboo/wood poles with mud or without mud sealing/plastering and earth floors. The HBS 2000/2001 reports that in Mbeya Region, the percentage of houses with modern roofing materials is 53% and that with modern wall materials 32%. According to the results of the focus group discussions (FGDs) held in each village, all the respondents (participants) agreed that a house with walls out of burnt bricks or cement blocks roofed with corrugated iron sheets with a cement floor implies that the house is in good condition and the household is less poor. Basing on this, it can be said that the households in the study area and in Mbeya Region in general, are still poor if poverty level is gauged on the basis of the condition of the shelters/houses. Table 18 shows distribution of households with shelters/houses out of different building materials.

Table 18: Distribution of the households by the condition/quality of the Shelters/houses (N=36)

Walling materials	Roofing materials		Total
	Thatched	Corrugated iron sheet	
Mud bricks	5	3	8
Burnt bricks	5	11	16
Cement blocks	0	0	0
Wooden poles and mud	9	0	9
Bamboo/wooden poles only	3	0	3
Total	22	14	36
Percentage	61.1	39.9	100.0

4.2.6 Household ownership of productive and non-productive assets

The ownership of physical productive and non-productive assets is taken to be an indicator and a gauge to measure the poverty level of the households as explained in section 2.6.1.1. The line to demarcate that a household is poor or non-poor depends on the consensus agreed upon by the expert(s) in poverty studies and the local people being studied. In the study area some assets differ in social value among the people and villages; and also some assets are not available at all and so not owned at all in some villages. Assets such as fishing nets, canoes, and pot making tools are found and hence owned and valued by people in Ikombe and Matema villages, while in the other studied villages are not found, hence not owned and valued. Poor soil conditions and high population density have made people in Ikombe village not to own paddy fields, cattle, land with perennial crop stand such as cocoa and palm. But they value them. In all other villages many people own and value them very much. Some people in a small town of Ipinda said for somebody to be said is a well-off, he/she should possess also good durable house(s) to rent to others or guests; a motor vehicle for family or public transport. Similar arguments were given also by people near the market places of Mababu and Ikombe because of the frequent visits of people from other parts of the district or country who want to rent houses or a car transport service. But some assets are said to be very important to every household so valued by all people in the study area. Assets such as land for cultivation of food and some cash crops, good durable house, kept cash income, hand hoes, machetes, radios, good furniture, stored crop for food or sale and other common ones to all people in the study area.

Due to this variability of ownership and social value of productive and non productive assets, it is difficult to have a single line to measure poverty of the households in the study

area. But since agriculture is the main activity in the area and in Tanzania in general, all the focus group discussions came up with a gauge that in order for a household to be non-poor it should possess at least 5 acres of arable land which is almost 2.5 hectares for cultivation of food and cash crops leave alone land occupied by perennial crops. When the household heads are grouped into two major groups of land ownership, and according to the above agreed poverty line 72.2% percent of the households (26 out of 36) are poor as they own land for annual cultivation less than 2.5 ha. The other 27.8% percent of the households (10 out of 36) are non poor as they own land for the same purpose 2.5 ha and above. The results also show that the minimum and maximum land owned by a household for this purpose is 0.25 and 4 ha respectively, with a mean land size of 1.92 ha and a standard deviation of 0.958 ha.

Other socio-economic characteristics of the households in the study area to reveal the severity of poverty are discussed in the separate section 4.3, as they are considered to have an influence on child labour in the households. But in fact NBS (2002:77) argues that household poverty is when a household is below a poverty line and any person living in this household is a poor person.

4.2.7 Perception of child labour and poverty in the study area

The people especially the farmers, fishermen and other local people with an exception of the very few civil servants don't perceive to a great extent the issue of child labour. Sometimes they feel proud if their children are working for someone else or have migrated to Malawi, Mtera or other places to be employed. They even feel proud if their children work hard, for many hours and productively in their households' economic activities. The

study found that there is only a bitter feeling when a child works for someone else and is lowly paid. Children or adults working for some one else are termed as labourers (*vibarua* in Swahili). This term was always reported by the respondents to relate to child labour if the labourers are children. Failure to perceive the problem of child labour can be contributed by low level of education and no exposure to child labour elimination programmes in the study area.

The issue of poverty is fairly perceived by almost all the people in the study area. But the perception is not to the extent of details and technical concepts of poverty. The people know that when a household fall short of income and food to meet the needs of the members of the household then the household is poor. They know also that some households are relatively poorer or richer than others. Funny enough one woman said: "We are all poor because even the said rich people are very busy to find money or food for their families".

4.3 Factors which influence child labour in the study area

The factors which influence child labour stated and discussed in the following sub-sections came out of the focus group discussions in each village and also out of interrogations to key informants like the district officers, head teachers, ward and village leaders. Some of the factors are also reported by other researchers/ writers on child labuur. The main factors are as explained below.

4.3.1 Household poverty

This had the highest number of counts in FGDs to be mentioned as a cause. This means that it is the leading one among others. Although the Kyela Acting District Administrative secretary (DAS) Mr. L. Mwankenja (personal communication on 24 August, 2005) said that many households in Matema, Makwale and Ipinda wards (which are adjacent wards) are less poor and the district income rely mostly on these wards compared to other areas in the district, but in all the standards many households in the study area which is part of the Matema and Ipinda wards, are poor. As pointed out earlier that child labour is used to augment the household income. About 69.4% of the household heads responded that sometimes their children are not attending school to augment household income and 75% gave a reason that they help in family activities (farm and non-farm activities). In an economic environment where survival depends on work in the informal sector, many parents conclude that taking children out of school and putting them to work is the most sensible solution for survival (Grootaert and Kanbur 1995, cited by Akabayashi and Psacharopoulos 1999:121). Also Musoke (1996:10) argues that children from poor families are forced into labour market- to work either individually or as part of contracted family labour.

Household poverty in the study area is well indicated by low households' incomes. The annual actual households' incomes range from a minimum of Tshs.100 000.00 to a maximum of Tshs.1 500 000.00 with the mean of Tshs. 509 361.10 and standard deviation of Tshs 283 805.50. When the actual household income per adult equivalent is calculated, the results show that the mean income per adult equivalent per day is Tshs.367.70 with a minimum of Tshs. 120.15 and maximum of Tshs. 925.20 and a standard deviation of

Tshs. 189.45. This is the indication that almost all households in the study area are living below a poverty line of USD 1 a day. The relationship shows that both households with low incomes and those with comparatively higher incomes have children in child labour, but as the annual household income increases the number of households with child labour decreases. Since all the household incomes do not meet the poverty line then this is again the evidence that low household income influence and perpetuates child labour in the study area. Among the 36 sampled households only four reported to have one child each in child labour and the rest reported to have two children in child labour. A study by REPOA confirms that there is negative correlation between household income and the incidence of child labour. The study revealed that most of those households that reported to have working children have relatively lower annual income (REPOA 2003:9). Table 19 below shows the distribution of households by annual income categories in the study area.

Table 19: Distribution of households by annual income categories (N=36)

Annual income category (Tshs.)	Frequency	Percent
100 000.00 to 9 000.00	24	66.7
601 000.00 to 99 000.00	11	30.5
1 001 000.00 to 1 599 000.00	1	2.8
Total	36	100.0

4.3.2 Many household economic activities

Poverty makes heads of the households to plan and create many farm and non-farm activities which eventually involve the children in their operation or execution, because the head of the household cannot hire labour from adults outside his/her household or family. Children are even withdrawn from school. This is what is happening in the study area because 72.5% of the children who responded said they attend school on part time,

meaning that some times they spend time of school in child labour, and also 10.8% of the children aged 8 to 14 years have not attended school at all.

The activities referred here are both farm and non farm activities. All the children who were respondents reported to do on average four economic activities to sustain the household livelihood. This is because the participation of the children in the activities can relief the adults to do other jobs or can improve the livelihood of the household. The economic activities are grouped into two broad groups, the farm activities and the non-farm activities. Under non-farm activities there are income generating activities and household chores. Leave alone the household chores, results shows that the mean number of income generating activities per household is four with a minimum of one and a maximum of seven activities. Considering that every child reported in child labour is doing all these activities plus the farm activities and the household chores, so this is the evidence that the big number of the economic activities per household increase the incidence of child labour in the study area. Figure 5 below indicates the percentage of households against the number of income generating activities (IGAs) per household. The study has found that there are many economic activities per household in the study area which lead to children to work in bad/wrong time, for long hours and hence improper socialisation of them.

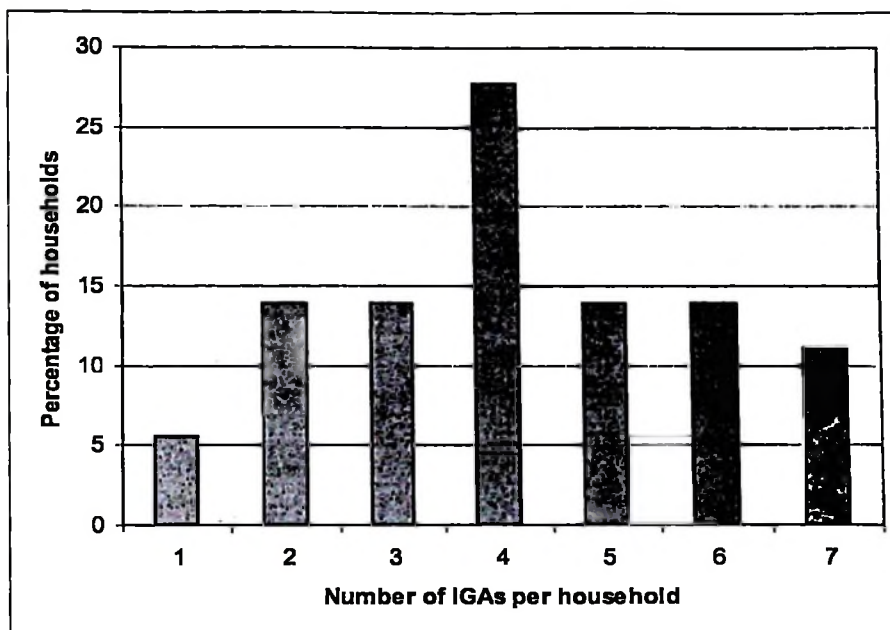


Figure 5: Percentage of households Vs number of IGAs per household

4.3.2.1 Bad/wrong time of working and long duration in hours per day

Two realities concerning time for children to work have been found. These are bad or wrong time of working in a day and long duration in hours per day.

i) Bad/wrong time of working for children in a day

This refers to what time of the day does the child work. The study has found that firstly, some children work at night. Some said mostly they work before 7.00 am especially starting at 4.00 am for the case of ox-ploughing and fishing, and some said starting at 1.00 pm till midnight especially for the case of fishing, cooked food vending and local brew making and selling and others said any time of the day. Secondly among those who reported to work during day time they sometimes work during school hours which are from 7.30 am to 4.00 pm. As stipulated earlier in section 2.13 (parts iii and v) that a child

shall never work at night and during school hours, so the time of working which is commonly found in the study area negate these laws, hence makes the children to be in child labour always however short the time spent is. Table 20 below indicate the distribution of children by time of working in a day.

Table 20: Distribution of children by time of working in a day (N=120)

Time of the day	Frequency	Percent
Before 7.00 am	6	5.0
Between 7.00 am and 12.00 noon	35	29.2
Between 1.00 pm and 6.00 pm	43	35.8
Between 7.00 pm and midnight	12	10.0
Anytime of the day	24	20.0
Total	120	100.0

ii) Long duration in hours of work done by children per day

The study findings also show that many children work more than the recommended time per day in Tanzania for children in the age of 5 to 14 years. Children in this age group to be counted not in child labour they should work not more than four (4) hours a day (URT 2002a:75). Thirty eight (38) out of 120 children which is equal to 31.7% of children reported to work for the duration of between 4 and 6 hours a day; fifty (50) out of 120 children which is equal to 41.7% of children work between 6 and 8 hours a day; 17 out 120 which is equal to 14.2% of children work between 8 and 12 hours a day and 15 out of 120 which is equal to 12.5% of children work for more than 12 hours a day. Many children work between 6 and 8 hours.

The results show a trend that the number of children working decreases with increasing duration in hours of time spent by children in economic activities. When calculated on

average times, this study reveals that the mean time spent per day (duration) is 7.4 hours ranging from a minimum of 5 hours and a maximum of 12 hours with a standard deviation of 2.35 hours. The ILFCLS of 2000/2001 reports similar results that 1.1 million children work for 40 or more hours a week or 6 or more hours per day (URT 2002a:48). In conclusion all the children are working for more than the recommended time per day indicating that duration of work per day perpetuates child labour in the study area. The results found are clearly shown in Table 21 below.

Table 21: Distribution of children in child labour by time spent per day in economic activities (N=120)

Time spent (duration) in hours	Average hours	Frequency	Percent
Between 4 hours and 6 hours	5	38	31.7
Between 6 hours and 8 hours	7	50	41.7
Between 8 hours and 12 hours	10	17	14.1
More than 12 hours	12	15	12.5
Total		120	100.0

4.3.2.2 Improper socialisation of the children

Most of the respondents who participated in FGDs and many others contacted failed to distinguish child labour from child work especially for children who are working for the family work. The parents/guardians consider child labour only when a child is working for somebody and also for payment ("*kibarua*" in Swahili). For instance some parents/guardians in Lupaso, Mababu and Kafundo villages said that though their children are involved in ox-ploughing at night especially very early in the morning starting from 4 am, they are taught and being apprenticed the skill for them to take up when they are adults. For the case of the fishermen children are apprenticed to fish at night simply because is the main activity of the parent/guardian and some types of fish are caught at

night in big catches. But children working at night are in child labour. Also many children are seen at market places during market days while they are supposed to be at school. Almost all parents/guardians said that withdrawing children from school in order to work for family business or allowing children to work during school hours in family activities is not good, though the activity might be very crucial to sustain the family at that moment in time.

In this study 35 children gave some reasons for not attending school or attending on part time. About four children out of 35 child labourers reported to be out of school currently in order to help in household chores/house keeping, 14 to assist in household enterprises/business, four to work for wages, eight cannot afford schooling, four poor/not interested in studies, one because of illness. This means that 22 out of the 35 children which 62.9% don't attend school fully because they are always working. Works done by children in families as part of socialisation or as apprentices, are very important part of informal education. Black (1993:16) argues that the work of a child is seen as an apprenticeship for life. The child is trained to learn by doing how to be responsible to take over his future and place in the community. This work is an education, not exploitation. But when children work for very long hours, for instance for more than 4 hours in Tanzania, work at night, in hazardous conditions and sometimes without going to school, that work is child labour not apprenticeship, so it is improper socialisation.

4.3.3 Adults and children migration

Some people can migrate from one area to another because they are looking for better life than they are having now or for the expansion of their agricultural or non agricultural

business and most of these migrate permanently. But in most cases people especially from rural areas migrate to urban places or to other rural areas due to poverty stress cushioning. Poverty stresses can be due to landlessness, frequent disease incidences, frequent household food insecurity, shortage or lack of income, lack of employment etc. In the study area also people migrate not for adventurous life but mostly to cushion poverty stresses. Respondents confirmed that there is a seasonal migration of fishermen with their children from Ikombe and Matema villages to Malawi or other parts of Kyela District especially near big river deltas of Kiwira and Songwe Rivers for bigger fish catches than they catch at their home villages. Sometimes especially children migrate to Mtera dam water reservoir and Lake Rukwa for fishing independently or fishing for another person. There is no data for people, who cross the country boarder because as the Kyela District Migration Officer argues that these are taken as traditional movements of the people with relatives on both sides of the boarder (personal communication on 9 January, 2006).

In addition FGDs revealed that, in other villages of the study area people migrate to look for temporary employment such as in tea estates near Tukuyu, Kiwira coal mines, or in road or any major construction site. When children migrate independently or with their parents or other adults they automatically become child labourers because of the poor working conditions they face there and they work overtime because they are there for a limited duration of time. Again when parents migrate they leave their children behind to take up their adult working roles so they automatically subject them into child labour. Musoke (1996:3) argues that child labour may facilitate adult migration to areas of high employment and better wages.

4.3.3.1 Number of children who migrate in search of employment

The study has found that a total of 13 boys and 11 girls have migrated from among the 36 sampled households in search of employment. The minimum and maximum age of the migrating children is 10 and 14 years respectively. The results reveal also the number of migrating children increases with age as 9 boys and 7 girls are migrants at the age of 14 years (see Table 22 below).

Although the migrating children do not reside in the study area by the moment of the study, but their socio- economic characteristics, for instance being out of school at the age of 10 to 14 years, being employed by somebody or working independently away from home at this age range aggravate the problem of child labour in the area. Results show that 24 children from among the 36 households have migrated in search of employment which is equal to 66.7%. In addition to a proof that many households in the study area are poor because their children of the age 10 to 14 years have migrated to look for employment, this number also shows the aggravation of child labour problem in the study area. Considering the sum of the number of children sampled living in the study area, plus the number of those migrating which comes to 144, the number of migrating children makes a percentage of 16.7% of all children in child labour.

Table 22: Distribution of migrating children in search of employment by sex and age (N=24)

Sex of the children	Children age (years)				Total
	10	12	13	14	
Male	2	1	1	9	13
Female	0	2	2	7	11
Total	2	3	3	16	24

4.3.4 Marriage instability and breakage

Children whose parents' wedlock is unstable or broken face problems of the proper upbringing and being taken care of. The children are sent to live with their grand parents, uncles, aunts, brothers or sisters where they miss parental love and care and eventually they are always overworked hence subjected into child labour. In the study area about 43.3% of the children in child labour are living with a single parent, grand parents or other relatives due to several reasons. Eleven out 120 children reported that their parents either separated or divorced and another eleven reported that their parents are away from the village. Considering both parents away from the village are in unstable marriage because a responsible parent can not let his/her child to live with other people and being used into child labour, then there are about 18.3% children in child labour who come from unstable or broken marriages. The total percentage of household heads who agreed to this cause of child labour was 55.5% i.e. 20 out of the 36 respondents concur with it.

4.3.5 Orphanage

The problem of children being orphans is increasing nowadays both in rural and urban areas. The problem is more serious in rural areas because in most cases many people residing in urban areas have their origin in rural areas, so when parents die in urban areas young children are taken back to their grand parents or other relatives in rural areas. Together with other natural causes of deaths, but the incidences of deaths of parents both in rural and urban areas, are increased with increasing number of people dying of HIV/AIDS. The results have shown that, leave alone migrating children, 24 out of 120 children have both parents dead and other 6 have one of their parents dead, so the number of orphans is 30 out 120 children who are in child labour. That is the percentage of orphan children in

child labour of the age 5 to 14 years is 25% in the study area. Though the study did not find an orphan headed household but it is very common nowadays to find these types of households in Tanzania. These children are forced into child labour because their parents have died. One orphan child Harry Agrey in Ipinda village which is a small town found selling fried groundnuts cried when he was asked why he is not at school instead he was selling groundnuts during school hours. This means that selling groundnuts during school hours is circumstantial, just because he has no alternative and he does not like. When it comes to orphan headed households the problems are more serious, for example a household head in Makete District who is an orphan girl Odeta (13 years old) says "sometimes I have to ask for three months permission from my teacher so that I can do some work to earn money for our daily bread" (The Guardian 31, January 2004:5). Almost all the parents/ guardians agreed to it that being an orphan child can render children into child labour.

4.3.6 Personal needs of children

Many participants (respondents) in FGDs said that some children are forced into child labour because they want to have their own pocket money to buy things they like at school, market or from the shop or any other place. The percent of the parents/ guardians who are heads of households who support the fact that it is one of causes of child labour in the study area is 63.9%. This corresponds with the truth that 66 out of 120 children (55%) said they want to save part of their income for other things but not to buy things required at school. Another 13 children (equal to 10.8%) said they want to start their own business. They mentioned that they save part of the income to buy food and cookies at school, to

have entry fees for video shows, to have money during local drums or dance concerts or to buy any thing they like.

One respondent as a household head (Mr. Mwanjokolo in Ipinda village), lamented bitterly that the people who sell food and other things at school premises are the major driving force for children to look for paid job to get some money to spend at school. With this new economic environment whereby TV/video shows and mobile phones are plenty even in rural areas and also food vending and petty trading being allowed at school, children needs also are increasing in such a way that parents/guardians can not afford them all. So children have to look for their own means to meet them, and the only way is to sell their labour, sometimes excessively to the extent that they become child labourers.

4.3.7 Allurement by some casual daily/seasonal wage employers

Another factor influencing child labour in the study area as given out by almost all parents/guardians is that some businessmen/women come in the area to buy for instance cocoa nuts, palm tree nuts and oil, rice, fish or scrap metals involve many children in operation of their activities. These people want to have their activities of collection and transportation of their commodities in as short time as possible and also as cheap as possible. The only possibility to attain their work plans is to employ many labourers but with little pay to maximise the profit. In doing these, they actually allure the children to work for them by paying them quick cash money and in addition some offers of things such as biscuits and chewing gum. So many children are attracted to work for these people for long hours, with little pay and also without attending school. Therefore child labour in

the area goes on taking place because these different activities involving child labour spread almost all over the year.

4.3.8 Low education level of the household heads

Another factor which has been found to perpetuate the incidences of child labour in the study area is the education level of the household heads which is very low. The study has found that 88.8% of the household heads have education level not more than standard seven, and only 4 out of 36 respondents (11.2%) have been to secondary school but not reaching form four (Table 23 below). These results have a positive correlation to the results of the FGDs whereby almost all households said they do not know the meaning of child labour. It has been discussed earlier that the children work for too long hours; since among the 120 children in child labour come from the households headed by these 36 heads of households, this means that the lower the education of the household heads the greater the chances of the existence of the child labour.

Cross tabulation of the education level of the heads of the households and the time spent in hours by children in economic activities shows that all the children working more than the mean working hours calculated (7.4 hours) come from the households of heads with education level not more than standard seven. The ILFCLS 2000/2001 came up with similar findings which indicates that about half (49%) majority of the children who work and are paid at piece rate come from household heads who never attended school (URT 2002a:60).

Table 23: Percentage of household heads with different education levels (N=36)

Education level	Frequency	Percent
No formal education - 1 year	3	8.3
Adult education - 2 years	2	5.6
Up to std 4 - 4 years	9	25.0
Up to std 7- 7 years	18	50.0
Up to form II- 9 years	2	5.6
Up to form III- 10 years	2	5.6
Total	36	100.0

4.3.9 Children not interested in schooling

About 30.5% of the parents/guardians said some few children are not interested in school at all, so these end up in child labour. These represent the group of school dropout and left out because of truancy only and not because their parents/guardians can not afford school requirements for them. KDC (2003:14-15) reports that there are 130 dropouts and 1312 school left outs children of the age 7 to 14 years. Taking a total of 46,436 children of the age 5 to 14 years in the district, this is equal to 3.1% of the children in this age group. It is most likely that these children end up in child labour. In this study also some few children, who are in child labour responded that they are not interested in school or they are poor in school performance. These are 4 out of 120 children in child labour, meaning that 3.3% of the children fall in child labour because they are not interested in schooling. But the reasons of not being interested in school could be many such as school environment not being suitable, afraid of teachers or poor in studies (URT 2002a:34).

The discussion above shows that household poverty is the main cause of child labour and all other causes such as marriage instability, orphanage, children personal needs, children not interested in schooling etc are subsidiary and related causes to the main cause.

4.4 Results of hypothesis test

The household annual incomes were first collapsed into categorical variable of high income (Tshs. 1 000 000.00 and more) and low income (below T.shs.1 000 000.00), and also the total number of child labour in the household was also put into categorical variables of many and few. After running the chi-square analysis of the SPSS computer software the results indicated that $p=0.0755$ (single-tailed test).

The null hypothesis is accepted since the results show that $p=0.0755$ which is greater than 0.05 i.e. $p > 0.05$. This means that household income is not significantly associated with having child labour in the household. In the study area both households with relatively high income and those with relatively low income have child labour although the households with low income have more child labour than those with high income as discussed in section 4.4.2 above.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This study paved a way to give light to people in the study area, researchers, politicians, government officers and the general public on the world wide pronounced big socio-economic problem of child labour in one of the rural areas of Tanzania. The study has dwelt on and revealed that the usual agricultural and non-agricultural household activities which are done in the rural villages have side effects on the high participation of the children of the same households as child labourers. It has shown that in most cases unknowingly the households are involving their children in these activities in excessive rate than normal socialisation of children. The main argument here is that even the activities which are socially accepted as they are for socialisation for children in households they can render the children into child labour if done by children say at night, during school hours, for too long time, for too little pay under hazardous conditions etc. However household chores though mentioned by many children especially girls, were not counted as activities employing child labour. The children are also employed by other people residing in the same area or coming into the area for trading and fishing whereby they are working for them as child labourers.

Poverty is a big problem facing many households in Tanzania and in the world in general. The problem is great in rural areas of the country and other developing countries where agriculture is a dominant economic activity. For instance this study has found that 100% of the households in the study area are poor in income poverty with an income of less than

USD 1 per adult equivalent per day. The fact that the study has adopted the null hypothesis that household income is not significantly associated with having child labour in the household can be supported by the argument that household income is just a single indicator among very many indicators of household poverty, some are easily quantified and some are not and have positive influence on households to strive to overcome poverty by even applying child labour. Poverty has been found by many studies including this one to be the most important cause of child labour in rural areas. Many other causes of child labour in rural areas discussed in this study such as child personal needs, orphanage of children, children migration and others have their roots in poverty phenomenon, which is multidimensional and with very many indicators. Since many households are tied up in poverty vicious cycle, it appears it is an illusion to think tackling the problem of child labour without first emancipation of households from poverty vicious cycle.

Most of the households of rural areas in Tanzania including the study area are poor and rely on agriculture as main activity for livelihood. Automatically many children in child labour are involved in agricultural activities, most of them belong to these households and some to other different households but also other agricultural activities are created by petty traders and businessmen and women who come to buy crops and crop products in the study area. Other activities found to employ many children in the study area are fishing and petty trading. But the study has shown that almost all households in the study area have low annual income, this means that even the contribution of these activities to household income is very little. This is because of the low level of technology applied in these activities and also the low level of education and technical skills on these activities which is also common to many Tanzanians in rural areas.

Child labour is also a global disgrace and its magnitude is very big especially in the developing world where the technological innovations to reduce labour are very low and also the high profit driven entrepreneurs like to use cheap labour especially the child labour, making it difficult for the governments and international organisations to reduce, prohibit and hence eliminate child labour. The problem is all over in both rural and urban areas whereby it is in work employment establishments and in households. In Tanzania, the national programmes to eliminate child labour do not cover big part of the country including this study area for the people to at least be sensitised on this plight of child labour. The government labour offices, trade unions and even NGOs which are concerned with the child labour are situated and always operate in towns. For instance not only that there are no tentacles of these organisations in rural areas of Kyela District, there is no labour office, trade union and even an NGO in Kyela town, to assist in the prohibition of child labour. But there is an NGO known as Mango Tree, which deals with orphan children especially those from HIV/AIDS dead parents. But the children are not cared for primary education requirements. The immediate reason to this situation is may be they are all incapacitated or they have very few resources to cover the district.

Many statutes and policies concerning children in Tanzania, have defined a child with different cut-off points of the age. The study restricted itself to children of the age 5 to 14 years old, the age range at which almost all Tanzanian children are expected to be at school especially nursery and primary schools during school hours. So the estimation of child labour in the study area was based on this age range, which also was applied by the ILFCLS 2000/2001 to estimate the ultimate number of children in child labour (URT

2002a:73); although the survey also estimated child labour in the whole range of 5 to 17 years of age.

There are several problems faced by children in child labour which are discussed. These problems make children work without an interest in work itself except for money or material gain. If children especially who are working for their households are not interested in their assigned work activities, there is little chance that the socialisation process through child work goes well. It can take longer time than socially needed time or otherwise the quality of work being always poor with low productivity.

The perception of household heads and other people in the study area on the issue of child labour is very low, while that on poverty is moderate. Most of the economic activities assigned to children by their parents are meant to make ends meet or augment household income without knowing that they are done without considering the factors which make the work to be termed as child labour and not child work for socialising the children. The issue here is many households strive to reduce the poverty by even using child labour but with little concern on moral, psychological, mental and formal educational development of their children.

5.2 Recommendations

- i) Households in the rural areas of the district or other parts of the country should use properly the children labour they have, to participate in economic activities in order to reduce the household poverty. By proper use of children in economic activities it means the whole issue of avoiding and preventing them to work at

night, during school hours, for duration of more than four hours a day, for little pay, as migrants, in hazardous conditions, without abuse or harassment. The households are urged to use work for socialising children not for exploiting them.

- ii) The government, financial organisations, NGOs, religious organisations are urged to help the rural households and others to reduce household poverty, by say introducing credit schemes in rural areas with soft or flexible collateral regulations. “Flexibility in loans disbursement and repayments is needed, so that finance is available when farmers need it, and repayments match income from produce sales” (Mkapa, 2005:15). The financial credits or other form of credits will help farmers in the expansion of economic activities and even hiring labour from adults for quality work, or machinery in case of labour shortage. By expanding their production activities and good quality of work rural households will produce more. This is one of the feasible means to reduce poverty in rural areas ultimately it will lead in elimination of child labour.
- iii) The government ministries which are concerned with children affairs and issues that is the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Youth Development and the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, trade unions and NGOs such as CHODAWU, TPAWU and KIWOHEDE concerned with children well being and development are urged to spread and intensify the knowledge related to the problem of child labour to people in rural areas for them to perceive that the problem is even existing within and among their

households. This will help in better socialisation of children and hence prohibit and eliminate child labour in rural areas. URT (1996:6) argues that violation of child rights has been due to the lack of community awareness concerning these rights and the lack of procedures and efforts to mobilise and educate the community about them.

- iv) The government also should facilitate the start of village or ward child labour committees in the study area as it is the case for orphan children in some wards of Kyela District (KDC 2004:7). The members of these committees should be really concerned with the problem of child labour.
- v) Another opinion put forward is for the labour officers and NGOs to sensitise and help the children to start their own cooperative societies. For instance the children who are fishing can have their own society and children who are employed in harvesting and collection of cocoa and palm tree nuts can have their own society. These will help to maintain the rules or say memorandum of understanding that children work but not to the extent of being in child labour.
- vi) The government in totality especially the law making machinery of the government should look into revising and amending some statutes especially the Employment Act and the Marriage Act to uplift the minimum age for a child to be employed and a girl to be married which is currently 15 (URT 1996:6). The people in this age still look and act as children because they are immature. The minimum age for both should be 18 years, which gives an allowance for a

child to at least attend a training course or be better apprenticed in social valued works for his/her future life.

- vii) The government should help people especially in rural areas access and adopt simple and improved production technologies for agriculture, fishing and other activities in order to reduce drudgery and labour for an activity hence reduce and ultimately eliminate child labour.
- viii) In future a similar research should be done to cover the whole Kyela District and more researches should be done in the study area especially on effects of child labour on school subjects' performance, on how indigenous knowledge (IK) and child apprentices on social valued skills or work help children in their future life. Also on the problems faced by families such as household food insecurity, incidences of HIV/AIDS etc especially children in families of fishermen from Ludewa District who make fishing camps in Kyela District and other people who migrate because of poverty stresses.
- ix) The community and the government have an obligation to improve the school environment and their standards of education provision. The government should continue to help the communities in the rural areas to start and run secondary schools and vocational training schools or centres. This is in line with MDG number 2 and also goal number 2 of the first target of quality livelihood of the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (URT 2000:5). Where possible also the food vendors and petty traders at school premises should be discouraged.

- x) The government in cooperation with the international organisations such as ILO, UNICEF, UNESCO and others is urged to intensify the programme on elimination of child labour and knowledge of children rights to reach in Kyela District rural areas and other areas not reached in the country.

- xi) The government should develop a national policy and strategy that can facilitate transformation of small-holder agriculture into modern agriculture in order to eradicate poverty in rural areas. This should include also development of the market for agricultural products particularly those produced in the Kyela District.

- xii) Lastly, the government should also, transform the fishing industry nationally and particularly in Lake Nyasa from traditional fishing to modern fishing. This should go hand in hand with the development of the good market for the fish and their products.

The recommendations are very important in terms of short and long term poverty reduction and child labour elimination strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1:Operational definitions of variables

Variable	Operational Definition
Age	Number of years since one was born.
Sex	Being male or female in a biological sense.
Marital status	The state of a person being married, single, divorced, separated, widow or widower.
Household size	Number of persons usually residing in a household and share household expenses ('common' kitchen).
Family size	Number of household members including children of the head of the household wherever they live.
Education	Number of years of schooling.
Health status	The state of a person being with or without physical or mental disability.
Household income	Money value of goods and services produced by a household.
Political variables	Adopted political issues generated by the government or imposed by the international organizations.
Household income generating activities	Number of household farm activities (intensive) and non-farm activities which increase income of the household.
Children working hours	Time in hours spent per day by children working.
Child Labour	Number of children aged 5-14 years old reported working over recommend time per day.
Adult equivalent units (AEU)	The number of household members adjusted for composition (by sex and age) and nutrients requirements so that all members are equivalent to adults (Kayunze, 2001:23).
Poverty line	The minimum income level required to purchase the socially determined essentials for living (Blackwood and Lynch 1994:568).
Household head	The person who is responsible for the day-to-day decisions regarding the activities of the household.
Human development index (HDI)	A measure of three basic dimensions of human development which are long and health life (life expectance at birth), knowledge (adult literacy rate) and descent standard of living (GDP per capita) (URT, 2002b: 110).

Appendix 2:A list of poverty and welfare indicators in Tanzania from the most to the least important in Tanzania.

Items	Indicators
1. Food security	♦ % of population who are unable to get 2 meals a day and 3 meals a day for children.
	♦ % of households with food insecurity
	♦ Food security at district level
	♦ % of villages /wards/districts with food storage
	♦ Average acreage of cultivated land per household
	♦ % of agricultural households using (i) hand hoe, (ii) oxen drawn implements, (iii) tractor
2. Income and production	♦ Employment rate (i) all (ii) youth (iii) women
	♦ % of population with access to financial facilities for savings and credit (by gender)
	♦ % of population below absolute poverty line
	♦ % of population below poverty line of US \$ 1 a day
	♦ Income distribution: % percent of share of income/consumption of the lowest 20% of the population, Gini coefficients
	♦ GDP per capita
	♦ Rate of inflation
	♦ % of household spending 50% or more of income on food by urban and rural
3. Education	♦ % of illiterate and literate population by gender
	♦ Primary school gross enrolment ratio (GER), by gender
	♦ Primary school dropout rates by cause and gender
	♦ Secondary school gross enrolment ratio, by type and gender
	♦ Mean years of schooling by gender
	♦ Mean age of enrolment for primary school, by gender
	♦ Pupil/teacher ratio (primary school)
	♦ Pupil/teacher ratio (secondary school)
	♦ % of household consumption expenditure for education
4. Health status	♦ Infant mortality rate (IMR)
	♦ Under 5 mortality rate (U5MR), by gender
	♦ % of deaths by causes by gender of (i) all age groups (ii) children under 5
	♦ Incidence of top 10 diseases by gender: (i) all age groups (ii) children under 5
	♦ Incidence of HIV/AIDS
	♦ Maternal mortality rate (MMR)
	♦ Life expectancy, by gender
	♦ Crude birth rate (CBR)
	♦ Crude death rate (CDR)
	♦ % of disabled people by type, gender and district
5. Water and sanitation	♦ % of households with access to an adequate amount of safe drinking water within 400 meters
	♦ % of households with access to adequate amount of water within 400 meters
	♦ % of urban people with (i) toilet facility, (ii) access to toilet facility
	♦ % of urban households with access to disposal facility
	♦ % of urban households with access to (i) sewage system, (ii) cesspool emptying
	♦ % of population contributing to water services
6. Health service	♦ % of population with access to health care
	♦ Population per (i) dispensary, (ii) health centre, (iii) doctor (iv) hospital beds
	♦ % of deliveries attended by trained attendants or other health personnel
	♦ % of population with access to reproductive health services, by gender
	♦ % of children under 1 year fully immunised, by gender
	♦ % of pregnant women immunised against tetanus
	♦ % of household consumption expenditure for health services

7. Nutrition status	◆ % of under five children with malnutrition, by gender and Weight-for-Age (WFA): (i) severe (ii) moderate
	◆ % of infants with low birth weights (LBW)
8. Transport and communication	◆ % of villages accessible to road, railway or boat throughout the year
	◆ % of population with access to transport: (i) bicycle, (ii) ox-driven carts, (iii) motor cycle. (iv) car, by gender
	◆ # number of people owning a radio per 1,000 population by gender
	◆ # of news paper circulation by 1,000 population
	◆ # of post offices per 100,000 population
	◆ # of telephones per 1,000 population
9. Housing	◆ % of households living in temporary houses, by male and female household headship
	◆ % urban population living in squatter areas, by gender
	◆ Average number of per sleeping room
10. Environment	◆ Deforestation rate
	◆ # of reported incidences of illegal fishing practices, including dynamite fishing in coastal regions
	◆ # of livestock per square km (stocking rate) in pastoral regions
11. Household and family relations	◆ Economic dependency: # of household members depending on one working household member by gender
	◆ Average household size, by gender in male- and female- headed households
	◆ Ratio of working hours between men and women
	◆ % of female- and male-headed households
	◆ % of population 15+ drinking alcohol, by gender
	◆ # of children in child labour
	◆ # of children in difficult circumstances, by type, e.g. orphans and street children
12. Energy	◆ % of households using (i) firewood (ii) charcoal, (iii) kerosene, (iv) gas (v) electricity
13. Empowerment and participation	◆ % of women participating in decision making at the household level
	◆ % of men and women participating in decision making organs at the village level
	◆ Participation of villages in decision making at local and central government
	◆ Participation of women in decision making positions and professional economic activities
	◆ % of men and women not participating in any social and economic group
14. Traditions and norms	◆ The extent to which traditional beliefs influence (i) food use, (ii) land utilisation, (iii) time use, (iv) investment, (v) gender discrimination in the district/division/ward by scoring 1-5, where by 1= None, 2= Partly, 3= Average, 4= Yes, 5= To a large extent

Source: URT (1999) cited by PSP (2003: 221-222)

- ii) Sowing.....2
 - iii) Weeding.....3
 - iv) Birds/wild animals scaring.....4
 - v) Harvesting.....5
 - vi) Other (specify).....6
- Non- Agriculture related.
- i) Petty trading.....1
 - ii) Cooked food vending.....2
 - iii) Fishing.....3
 - iv) Pots making..... 4
 - v) Bricks making.....5
 - vi) Local brew making and selling.....6
 - vii) Fire wood collection and selling.....7
 - viii) Shop keeping.....8
 - ix) Household chores.....9
 - x) Other (specify).....10
14. During which time of the day do you work?
- i) Before 7.00 am.....1
 - ii) Between 7.00 am and 12.00 noon.....2
 - iii) Between 1.00 pm and 6.00 pm.....3
 - iv) Between 7.00 pm and midnight.....4
 - v) Any time of the day.....5
15. For how long do you work in a day?
- i) 0 to 2 hours.....1
 - ii) More than 2 hours to 4 hours.....2
 - iii) More than 4 hours to 6 hours..... 3
 - iv) More than 6 hours to 8 hours.....4
 - v) More than 8 hours to 12 hours.....5
 - vi) More than 12 hours.....6
16. If attending school or training institution on a full-time or part-time, but also working, does your work affect your regular attendance or studies? Yes.....1
No.....2
17. Have you ever been injured at your workplace or suffered illness due to the work conditions or occupation/job at any time in the past, including previous work or occupation/job? Yes..... 1 No..... 2 Go to Q 22
18. What was/were the nature of your illnesses/injuries?
- General, such as fever, cold, etc..... 1
 - Eye infection..... 2
 - Ear infection.....3
 - Skin problem..... 4
 - Breathing problem.....5
 - Stiff neck.....6
 - Back problem..... 7
 - Anaemia..... 8
 - Other, please specify..... 9
19. Referring to the most serious injury/illness, how serious was the injury/illness?
- Did not need any medical treatment..... 1 Go To Q 22
 - Medically treated and released immediately..... 2

- Stopped work temporarily..... 3
 Hospitalised..... 4
 Prevented work permanently..... 5
 Other, please specify..... 6
20. Please give the number of days..... Days
21. Where did you consult a doctor? (More than one answer acceptable)
 At home.....1
 At work place.....2
 At hospital.....3
 At dispensary.....4
 At clinic.....5
 Other, please specify6
22. Are you required to operate any tools, equipment, machines, etc. at your workplace or on your job/occupation? Yes.....1 No.....2
23. Were you/are you aware of any likely health problems or possible accidents/ hazards, injuries or illnesses in connection with your work? Yes.....1, No.....2
24. Do you face any problems or difficulties with the present job? Yes.....1 No.....2
25. Do you use any of the following protective wear while working? (More than one answer acceptable). Glasses....1,Helmet2, Earplug...3, Special shoes ...4, Gloves 5. Life jacket...6
 None.....7, Other (please specify)....8
26. At what age did you start to work for the first time? Age (in completed years):
years of age
27. If given a choice, what would you like to do now and in the future?
 (a) Now:- Studying...(1), Petty trading...(2), Others (please specify)...(3)
 (b) In the future:- Studying...(1), Business...(2), To be a government employee...(3), To be a private sector employee...(4), Others (please specify)...(5).
28. If you are working for someone else other than your own parents or guardians, do you usually work overtime and get paid for it?
 Yes, with pay..... 1
 Yes, without pay..... 2
 No overtime work.....3
29. Do you receive wage payment prevalent in your locality? Yes.....1, No2, I don't know3
30. How is your relationship with your employer? Good1, Indifferent2, Bad.....3
31. Give the main reason:
 Wants too much work done.....1
 Wants work done for long hours.....2
 Pays poorly.....3
 Does not pay on time.....4
 Abuses physically.....5
 Abuses verbally.....6
 Other, please specify.....7
32. Referring to the latest/most recent payment, what is the approximate amount you were paid by your employer? Give amount and indicate the period for which this amount was paid:
 Amount received Tshs..... Period paid for..... (Days)

33. Do you give a part or all of your earnings to your parents/guardians or other relatives you usually reside with?
- Yes, all directly through the employer1
 - Yes, all by self.....2
 - Yes, part through the employer.....3
 - Yes, part by self.....4
 - No.....5
 - Other, please specify.....6
34. Do you save any part of your earnings?
- Yes, regularly1, Yes, occasionally.....2, No3
35. What is the main reason for saving?
- To start own business.....1
 - To go to school/training institution.....2
 - Other, please specify.....3
36. Are you satisfied with your present job?
- Yes.....1 Go to Q.38. No.....2
37. Why not?
- Wages too low.....1
 - Work too tiring/too hard.....2
 - Employer too hard/too demanding3
 - Earning from self-employment very low4
 - Other, (please specify).....5
38. If working for someone else other than your parents or guardians, for whom and which activity do you usually work for? Other household's chores...(1), Other household's business...(2)
39. If working for someone else other than your parents or guardians, where do you usually work? In this village/small town... (1), Away from this village/ small town... (2)
40. If working independently, please specify address or locality.
In this village/small town...(1), Away from this village/ small town...(2)
41. What is your income per day for the work you are doing or which you have been doing in the past? T.shs.
42. What do you do for fun, when not working?
- Playing with friends/sisters/brothers1
 - Studying.....2
 - Other, please specify3
43. What is your attitude towards this work or are you happy with your current work/job?
- Unhappy...(1), Happy...(2), Other (please specify)...(3)

INTERVIEW FOR THIS CHILD IS TERMINATED.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!!

Ownership: 1= Owned assets/cash capital, 2= Hired assets/cash capital

9. Shelter/house quality:

- (a) Walling materials: Mud bricks...(1), Burnt bricks...(2), Cement blocks...(3), Wood/bamboo poles with mud sealing/plastering...(4), Wood/bamboo poles...(5)
- (b) Roofing materials: Thatched...(1), Corrugated iron sheets...(2), Other (please specify)...(3).

10. What is the total average income per year do you earn?

Income category (TShs)	Farm activities products (TShs)		Non-farm activities products (TShs)		Total (TShs)
	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected	
Up to 50,000 (1)					
51,000-100,000 (2)					
101,000-150,000 (3)					
151,000- 200,000 (4)					
201,000- 250,000 (5)					
251,000- 300,000 (6)					
301,000- 350,000 (7)					
351,000 - 400,000 (8)					
401,000 -450,000 (9)					
451,000 - 500,000 (10)					
More than 500,000 (11)					
Total					

D: Information of migrating children

11. Is there any child (or children) of this household who does (do) not usually live or reside here. Yes.....1 No2 (END OF INTERVIEW).

12. Please give the name(s) of the child (children), sex, age and where he/she lives or resides now:

S/n	Name of the child	Sex		Age	Living where	
		Male	Female		Other place in the country	In the nearby country
1						
2						
3						

13. Does child number 1, 2 or 3 named above live with a person or institution?

S/n	Living with a person	Living with an institution
1		
2		
3		

14. What does (name) do where he/she is now?

- Working for someone.....1
- Working independently/as self-employed.....2
- Attending school/training institution.....3

- Other (specify)4
 Unknown.....5
15. Does (name) get in touch with this household ? Yes.....1, No.....2 (END OF INTERVIEW)
16. When was the last time he/she contacted this household (i.e., most recent contact)? Month/Year.....
17. Does (name) sometimes send money/goods, etc., to this household? Yes.....1
 No.....2
18. When was the last time he/she sent money/goods, etc.?
 (Give the month and year)
 Month/Year.....
19. If (name) is working for someone, how was his/her relationship with the employer?
 Good...1, Moderate ...2, Does not know...3, Bad...4
20. Which of the following benefits were provided by the employer? (More than one answer acceptable)
- | | |
|---|----|
| Paid holidays | 1 |
| Paid sick leave..... | 2 |
| Social security insurance (health, pension etc.)..... | 3 |
| Bonus (regularly)..... | 4 |
| Free uniform | 5 |
| Subsidised uniform | 6 |
| Free meals..... | 7 |
| Subsidised meals..... | 8 |
| Free transport | 9 |
| Subsidised transport..... | 10 |
| Free lodging | 11 |
| Subsidised lodging..... | 12 |
| Other, please specify | 13 |
| No benefit at all..... | 14 |
| Do not know..... | 15 |

END OF QUESTIONS TO BE ADDRESSED TO PARENTS OR GUARDIANS

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!!

Appendix 5: A check list of questions and issues to facilitate information and data collection.

Perception of poverty, child labour, vulnerability and well-being

- What is poverty?
- Are there rich or poor people in the village/area?
- Description of a poor person (man/woman).
- Description of rich person (man/woman).
- Description of a life of a poor household (male headed household (MHH), Female headed household (FHH).
- Do you know any proverb/story about poverty or child labour?
- What do normally rich people do to sustain their life?
- Do you know any thing about child labour?
- Are there children working in the household without going to school?
- Are there children employed in the households, shops, factories, markets etc?
- Are your children all going to school?
- What is the contribution of children work to your household livelihood?
- What do the standard seven leavers do if not selected to join secondary schools?
- Do children migrate to other places to be employed or come to be employed.

Household poverty reduction strategies and efforts to eliminate child labour

- What are the income generating activities (IGAs) done mostly by poor households or poor people?
- What are the income generating activities done mostly by rich household or rich people?
- What are the common activities done by both rich and poor people and households?
- Do poor people or their children work for the rich people?
- Are the rich people having many income generating activities than poor people or vice versa?
- What are the steps taken by the parents to emancipate child labourers (rescue children from child labour)
- Are there any institutions e.g. Churches, NGOs, CBOs or government agencies which help in emancipation of child labourers?
- Is there any law, legislative, by-law which prohibits children from child labour?