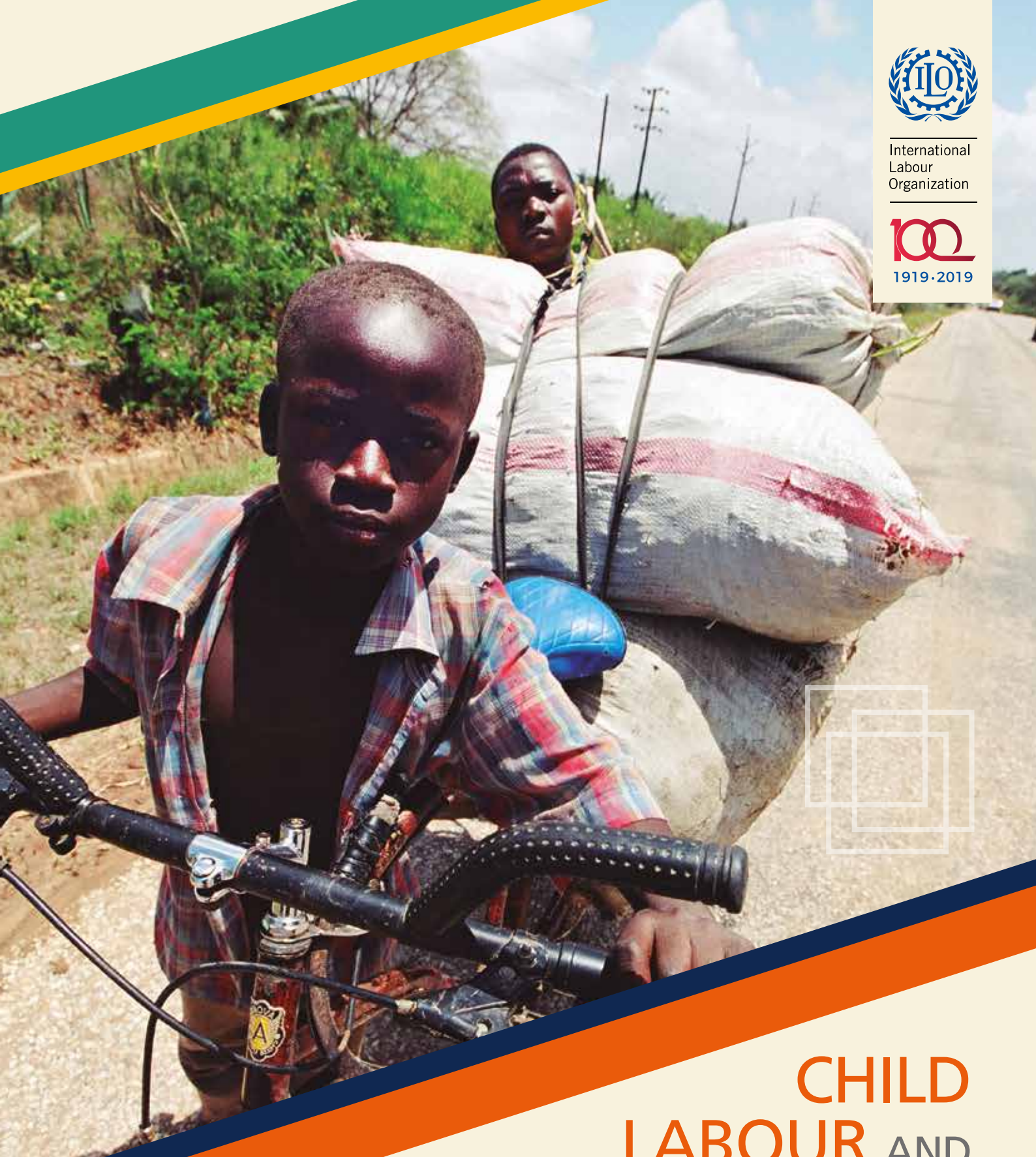

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CHILD LABOUR AND THE YOUTH DECENT WORK DEFICIT IN TANZANIA

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Executive summary

Overcoming the twin challenges of child labour and the youth decent work deficit will be critical to Tanzania's progress towards realizing its broader social development goals. Evidence presented in this report indicates that 4.2 million Tanzanian children remain trapped in child labour. At the same time, young persons aged 15 to 35 are concentrated overwhelmingly in low-skill jobs in the informal economy that offer little prospect for advancement or for escaping poverty. Beyond their adverse short-term consequences, both child labour and youth decent work deficits can permanently impair lifetime patterns of employment and pay.

This report examines the related issues of child labour and youth employment in the context of Tanzania. Guided by observed outcomes in terms of schooling, work activities and status in the labour market, the report considers the extent, nature, causes and consequences of child labour and youth decent work deficits in the country. The Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey 2014 (ILFS, 2014) is the primary data source for the report. The Report was developed within the framework of the National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour 2018-2022 and is aimed at helping to inform its implementation.

Child labour: The overall picture

Child labour in Tanzania continues to affect an estimated 4.2 million children aged 5–17 years, about 29 percent of this age group. This share is only one percentage point lower than that of a decade earlier, suggesting that progress against child labour has stalled in the country. It should be underscored in interpreting these numbers that they represent conservative estimates of child labour, because they exclude so-called "worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work." These forms of child labour include child trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and the involvement of children in illicit activities. In Tanzania, as in most countries, information on children involved in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous is limited due to both methodological difficulties and cultural sensitivity.

Table 1. Child labour estimates based on national legislation and global measurement standards

	Children in child labour (in employment) (5–11 years)		Children in child labour (in employment and not in light work[a]) (12–13 years)		Children in child labour (5–13 years)		Children in child labour[b] (14–17 years)		Total children in child labour (5–17 years)	
	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Male	22.6	1,008,074	37.6	458,884	25.8	1,466,958	39.8	745,380	29.3	2,212,338
Female	21.5	922,164	34.1	374,984	24.1	1,297,148	41.6	721,433	28.4	2,018,581
Urban	9.4	250,948	17.7	127,750	11.1	378,698	23.1	294,932	14.4	673,630
Rural	27.7	1,679,290	44.2	706,118	31.1	2,385,408	50.4	1,171,881	35.6	3,557,289
Total	22.1	1,930,238	36.0	833,868	25	2,764,106	40.7	1,466,813	28.8	4,230,919

Notes: *(a) "Light work" is operationally defined as non-hazardous economic activity performed for less than 14 hours per week. (b) Working children are considered to be in hazardous work if they are found to be in any one of the following categories: children working in designated hazardous industries (mining, quarrying and construction); children working in designated hazardous occupations (they refer to the list of hazardous work established by the national legislation); children working long hours (40 hours or more per week); children working under other hazardous conditions such as night work, carrying heavy loads, using hazardous tools and being in an unhealthy work environment.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

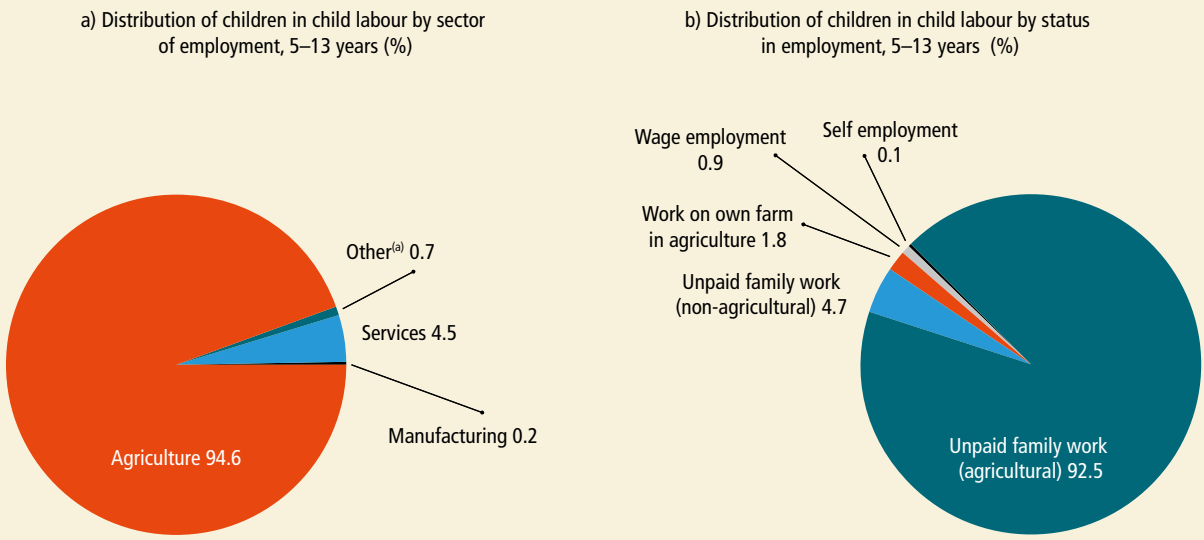
Children aged 5–13 years

Around one in four children aged 5–13 years (25 percent), almost 2.8 million in absolute terms, are in child labour. But these overall estimates mask important differences by individual and household background characteristics. In short, child labour increases with age and is much higher in rural areas than in cities and towns. There are large differences in child labour (and schooling) across regions, pointing to the importance of area-specific approaches to addressing it. The Geita and the Manyara regions stand out as having the highest level of child labour (respectively 56 percent and 53 percent). At the other end of the spectrum lie the Mbeya and Njombe regions, both with 7 percent of children involved in child labour, and the Dar es Salaam region, where child labour incidence is just 1 percent.

An econometric analysis undertaken for this report based on the ILFS 2014 dataset also points to a number of other important individual-, household- and community-level correlates of child labour in the country.[1] At the individual level, in addition to a child's age, residence and region, being a migrant is associated with a greater likelihood of involvement in child labour. At the household level, higher levels of household income and education are associated with lower levels of child labour. At the community level, access to basic services and proximity to schooling make it more likely that children are in school and less likely that they are in child labour.

1 A simple economic model of household behaviour was used to guide the empirical specification. For detailed information on the model, see Cigno, A. and Rosati, F.C. 2005. "The economics of child labour" (New York, NY, Oxford University Press).

Figure 1. Children in child labour are concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit



Note: *(a) Other includes mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water, and construction.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

The vast majority of children in child labour are found in family-based agriculture. Nearly 95 percent of children in child labour are in the agricultural sector and nearly 93 percent in unremunerated family work (Figure 1). Children in child labour aged 5–13 years log very long hours, increasing their exposure to workplace hazards and limiting their time for study and leisure. Weekly working hours average 20 hours for the 5–13 age group as a whole, rising to 25 hours for children over the age of 11 years. It should be noted that these figures are averages that mask alarming numbers of children who must endure much longer hours: some 445,600 children work for over 40 hours per week and 206,000 for over 50 hours per week. It should also be recalled that these estimates for working hours do not include the additional hours that most children spend each week performing chores within their own homes.

Children aged 14–17 years

In accordance with Tanzanian legislation and international legal standards, the term "child labour" among children aged 14–17 years is limited to work posing a danger to health, safety or morals (Law of the Child Act No. 21, 2009, Sec.82.2). This work includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; porterage of heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; work in places where machines are used; and work in places such as bars, hotels and places of entertainment (Sec.82.3).[2] It also includes "night work" taking place between 8 pm and 6 am and work for long hours. Child labour among children aged 14–17 years defined in these terms is very high in Tanzania.

2 For additional information on hazardous work estimates, see also: International Labour Office, Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FUNDAMENTALS) and Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics (2016), Tanzania national child labour survey 2014: Analytical Report.

Almost 41 percent of all children aged 14–17 years, 1,467,000 in absolute terms, are engaged in child labour (Table 2). Differences in involvement in child labour by sex are small for this age group. Females are two percentage points more likely to be in child labour than males, but the difference by sex is not significant when other background child and family variables are controlled for. As with younger children, child labour among children aged 14–17 years is in large part a rural phenomenon. The share of rural children in this age group in child labour (50 percent) is more than twice that of urban children (23 percent); in absolute terms, rural children in child labour outnumber their urban counterparts by 877,000 (1,172,000 to 295,000).

Table 2. Children in child labour, 14–17 years[(a)]

Percentage					
	Sex		Residence		
Age	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	Total
14 years	32.2	35.1	14.8	43.2	33.6
15 years	37.4	44.1	24.1	51.4	40.6
16 years	46.6	45.5	28.3	54.5	46.1
17 years	47.0	44.3	28.5	56.1	45.7
Total:14–17 years	**39.8**	**41.6**	**23.1**	**50.4**	**40.7**
Number					
	Sex		Residence		
Age	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	Total
14 years	191,976	191,958	57,183	326,751	383,934
15 years	178,234	199,029	88,151	289,113	377,263
16 years	211,676	200,480	81,082	331,074	412,156
17 years	163,494	129,966	68,516	224,944	293,460
Total: 14–17 years	**745,380**	**721,433**	**294,932**	**1,171,881**	**1,466,813**

Notes: *(a) Child labour constitutes (i) children working over 40 hours per week; (ii) children working during the evening or night; (iii) and children exposed to hazardous forms of work irrespective of working hours.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

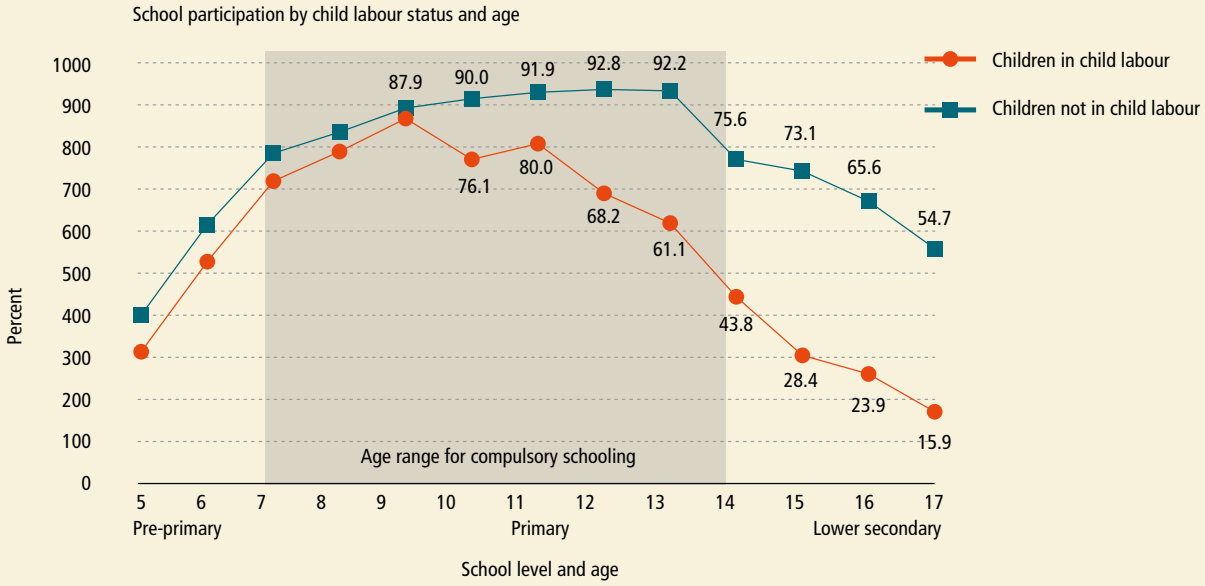
Other correlates of child labour are also similar to those discussed above for children in child labour in the 5–13 age group. The results of an econometric analysis indicate that migrants are much more likely to be exclusively in child labour and not in school than their non-immigrant peers. Household-head level of education has a strong negative correlation with child labour, i.e. children from households whose head is more educated are much less likely to be in child labour, even when household income and other possible confounding factors are controlled for. Proximity to secondary school reduces the probability of being exclusively in child labour and not in school.

Children's employment, child labour and education

The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour, on the one hand, and youth employment outcomes, on the other. Clearly, if the exigencies of work mean that children are denied schooling altogether or are less able to perform in the classroom, then these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for decent work upon entering adulthood.

Children in child labour are disadvantaged in terms of being able to attend school. The school attendance gap between children in child labour and other children widens with age and is particularly marked at the end of the 5–17 age group: at the age of 10 years the school attendance of children in child labour is 14 percentage points less than that of other children, while at the age of 17 years their attendance is 39 percentage points lower (Figure 2). Tanzanian children in child labour have significantly lower school life expectancy (SLE),[3] meaning that they can expect to remain in school for less time than their non-working peers. These figures underscore the importance of child labour as a constraint to raising school enrolment in the country.

Figure 2. Children in child labour are disadvantaged in terms of being able to attend school



Notes: *(a) Compulsory schooling in Tanzania begins at age seven and is seven years in duration. The school system is comprised of a two-year pre-primary cycle (non-compulsory), a seven-year compulsory primary cycle, a four-year secondary cycle (non-compulsory) and a two-year upper secondary cycle.*
Source: *UNESCO Institute of Statistics and calculations based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

There remains a significant share of Tanzanian children who are not in school at all compulsory schooling ages. In all, about 8 percent of children in the compulsory schooling age group of 7–13 years, 1,450,000 children in absolute terms, are out of school. What factors lead to children being left out of the school system? Feedback from children themselves points to the importance of both supply- and demand-side factors (almost 40 percent of children who have never attended school or have dropped out cite that school is either too far away (21 percent) or too expensive (17 percent). An additional 26 percent either refuse to go to school (22 percent) or are "satisfied" not attending school, suggesting that lack of interest in studying is also an important motive for having never

3 Relatively higher school life expectancy indicates greater probability of spending more years in education, although expected number of years does not necessarily coincide with the expected number of grades of education completed, because of grade repetition. SLE at an age a in year t is calculated as follows:

$$SLE_a^t = \sum_{i=a}^{i=n} \frac{A_i^t}{P_i^t}$$

where: A_a^t – attendance of the population of age i (i=a, a+1,...,n) in school year t; n – the theoretical upper age-limit of schooling; P_i^t – population of age i in school-year t.

attended school or having abandoned it, a response likely driven in important part by perceptions of school quality and relevance. On the demand-side of the schooling equation, only 2 percent are not attending school in order to work or look for work, 3 percent because of the need to care for sick relatives and children, and 17 percent indicate being too young to attend school, suggesting a lack of awareness of the starting age for compulsory schooling.[4] Reaching out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important in ensuring that they do not graduate into adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life.

Young people aged 15–35 years

Tanzanian young persons are primarily workers. For the overall 15–35 years age group, 85 percent are in the labour force while only 13 percent are continuing with their education (Table 11) (and less that 5 percent are in both simultaneously); 7 percent of young people are absent from both education and the labour force and 17 percent fall in the NEET category, i.e. they are not in education, employment or training.[5] These broad labour force statistics mask large variations by residence, sex and migration status, as reported in Table 11. The definition of youth in Tanzania, however, covers a wide age spectrum (15–35 years) and labour force statistics for Tanzanian youth should be interpreted with this mind. The youth labour force picture changes considerably if focus is restricted to the narrower 15–24 years age group used in most international statistics on youth employment. As also reported in Table 11, labour force participation is much lower for this age group, while education participation is much higher. Those in the 15–24 years age group are more likely to be unemployed than their older counterparts.

Table 3. Aggregate labour market indicators by residence, sex, migration status and age, 15–35 years

Population category		% of population					% of active pop.
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET[a]	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate[b]
Total		84.5	13.4	7.1	16.6	74.6	11.7
Residence	Urban	77.8	16.8	8.4	21.6	64.3	17.4
	Rural	89.3	10.9	6.1	13	81.9	8.2
Sex	Male	86.3	14.9	4.2	11.5	78.6	8.9
	Female	82.8	12.0	9.7	21.4	70.9	14.5
Age	15–24 years	76.8	24.2	8.0	17.9	66.2	13.7
	25–35 years	93.4	1.0	6	15.2	84.2	9.8
Migration status	Migrant	82.5	10.3	9.2	20.9	70.6	14.5
	Non-migrant	84.8	13.8	6.8	16	75.1	11.4

Notes: *a) NEET refers to youth who are not in education, employment or training. It is a measure that therefore reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed. b) The relaxed definition of unemployment is used: an individual is defined as unemployed if they do not have a job, and are currently available for work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment, people who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are included in unemployment (See Box 2).*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

4 Compulsory schooling in Tanzania begins at the age of seven and is seven years in duration.
5 The NEET indicator encompasses those who are absent from education and the labour force as well as those who are in the labour force but unemployed.

The youth unemployment rate stands at 12 percent, about four percentage points higher than that for adult workers, pointing to the existence of particular barriers to youth employment in the country. About 41 percent of unemployed youth are long-term unemployed, i.e. have been seeking work for at least one year. Of this group of long-term unemployed, about half are seeking work for the first time, suggesting a difficult transition from education to working life. Unemployment is higher for females (15 percent) than for males (9 percent) and is much more common in urban areas (17 percent) than in rural ones (8 percent), despite the lower levels of labour force participation in the former. Securing jobs appears to be particularly difficult for urban females in the labour force, of whom almost one in four (23 percent) is unemployed. The unemployment rate is also higher than the national average among migrant young persons (15 percent), and is dramatically higher among youth from the Dar es Salaam region (29 percent). In terms of age, unemployment peaks in the 20–24 age group at 16 percent, declining thereafter to 9 percent for the 30–35 age group.

Indicators pertaining to job quality suggest that decent work deficits are significant among employed young people. Twelve per cent of all Tanzanian youth with jobs are underemployed, meaning that they are working fewer hours than they would like to.[6] Youth underemployment, sometimes referred to as "hidden unemployment", is higher in rural areas (14 percent) compared to urban ones (9 percent), the opposite of the pattern seen for unemployment and NEET. Rural youth, it follows, have an easier time securing work, but this work is more likely to be only part-time in nature. Almost all youth jobs (95 percent) are in the informal economy, another important indicator of the size of the decent work deficit faced by young people. Although it is difficult to generalize about the quality of informal economy work arrangements, they often mean insecure tenure, limited or no workplace safety provisions and no basic job benefits.[7] All informal economy jobs are by definition also outside the formal social security system.[8]

Levels of working poverty are extremely high among Tanzanian youth. Two of every three employed youth belong to households with total income below 300,000 Tanzanian shillings (TZS) per month, corresponding to approximately US$140, despite having a job. These high levels of working poverty are perhaps the most revealing indicator of the low quality of youth jobs – for too many Tanzanian youth, employment does not offer a route out of poverty. Levels of working poor are especially high among young people working in agriculture, either on the family farm or on their own *shamba*. Over three-fourths of youth working in agriculture (78 percent) are poor, compared to 49 percent in industry and 46 percent in services.

National responses to children and youth employment concerns

The national development framework

The **Tanzania Development Vision 2025** is aimed at achieving middle income status by 2025, meaning high levels of industrialization, competitiveness, quality livelihood, rule of law and having in place educated and pro learning society. Specifically, the Vision outlined the country's social, economic and political aspirations for the first quarter of the 21st century. It consists of five principal components: (a) high quality livelihood; (b) peace, stability and unity; (c) good governance; (d) a well-educated and

6 The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed people in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total people in employment. Peopleare considered in a situation of underemployment if they work less than 40 hours a week and are available to work for more hours.

7 ILO, Informal economy information page. See www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang--en/index.htm.

8 Informal employment is defined as including paid employees and the self-employed who hold jobs that are not subject to income tax and not subject/entitled to contributions to social security as well as unpaid family helpers.

learning society; and (e) a strong and competitive economy. A series of five-year national development plans serve as a principal vehicle for translating the Vision into action.[9]

The **National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty**[10] is the second national organizing framework for national development efforts. Informed by Tanzania's Development Vision, the National Strategy has three major clusters of desired outcomes, namely (a) growth and reduction of income poverty; (b) improved quality of life and social wellbeing; and (c) good governance and accountability.

Tanzania lacks a comprehensive **social protection programme** that would provide social protection services in times of economic or social crisis. Although a range of social protection schemes and programmes are in place (see discussion below), the outreach and impact of such initiatives are very limited, with coverage of less than 1 percent of the entire population and about 6.5 percent of the formal working population. Many of the programmes in place cover only specific locations or populations, or are time-bound and externally funded. Very few of those participating in the informal economy are covered by social security schemes.

In 2003, the **National Social Security Policy** was enacted to expand the coverage of social security under the then Ministry of Labour and Employment, to harmonize the existing funds and to reduce fragmentation. The policy deals with three major areas in the development of a social security system, namely mandatory schemes, social assistance to the vulnerable, and voluntary market-based schemes. The policy also established the Social Security Regulatory Authority, which sets the agenda and implements the Social Security Reform Programme with a focus on extension of coverage, including informal workers.

As far as children in child labour, their parents and guardians are concerned, the most relevant schemes are non-contributory social assistance to the vulnerable and voluntary market-based schemes, including:[11]

- The Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children provides emergency aid and social assistance with a focus on, among others, the vulnerable children;
- The National Food Reserve Agency is used in Tanzania Mainland to distribute free food or at a highly subsidized price in food insecure districts. It reaches about 1.2 million people, including children, annually;
- School feeding covers about 600,000 primary school students (8 percent of the total). The programme is largely funded by the World Food Programme (WFP) and targets food insecure districts;
- Community-based cash transfers under the Tanzania Social Action Fund, one of the initiatives of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty. During the period 2012-2017, it reached 7.5 million direct beneficiaries.

9 The first ran from 2011/2012 to 2015/2016. Two more plans are envisaged: the Second (2015/16-2020/21), or FYDP II; and the Third (2020/21-2025/26), or FYDP III.

10 Popularly known as Mpango wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kuondoa Umaskini Tanzania (MKUKUTA) in Swahili.

11 UN Tanzania Delivery as One: Social Protection in Tanzania: Establishing a National System through Consolidation, Coordination and Reform of Using Existing Measures. www.unicef.org/tanzania/Fact_sheet.pdf.

Policies focusing on children and youth

Alongside these national development frameworks and sectoral policies are a number of specific policies and plans with a focus on children and youth.

The **Child Development Policy (CDP)** of 2008 highlights the need to protect children living in difficult circumstances such as orphans, children with disabilities, street children, and children affected by natural disasters. The policy also makes a distinction between rural and urban children and emphasizes the need to consider them as categories requiring different kinds of interventions. The policy strongly prohibits every form of child labour particularly children employed as domestic workers, those employed in bars, mines, plantations, fishery, prostitution; and those employed as business hawkers in the streets. It goes further to state that child labour is detrimental to the child's well-being and development and it denies them their rights to acquire education.

Tanzania was one of the first countries in the world to implement a nationally-owned Time Bound Programme to eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labour. The first Time Bound Programme was launched by Tanzania Mainland in 2001 and a revised National Action Plan on the Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labour was released in 2009. A new **National Strategy on Elimination of Child labour (2018-2022)** has been launched to guide national efforts against child labour over the next four years.[12] The Strategy is framed within an overall vision of a Tanzania in which children live free from child labour and its worst forms while enjoying their rights in a safe environment. The National Strategy identifies seven strategies to eliminate child labour:

- Enhancing compliance with labour standards;
- Strengthening multi-sectoral coordination and collaboration;
- Strengthening household income by empowering men, women and child headed households;
- Integrating comprehensive social protection systems.;
- Improving access to alternative forms of education to all vulnerable children;
- Institutionalized mechanisms on rehabilitation and social integration for children withdrawn from child labour and its worst forms;
- Enhancing public awareness on impact of child labour and its worst forms. In the discussion that follows, some of these strategies will be articulated further.

The vision of Tanzanian children free from child labour is also supported by the **National Costed Plan of Action for Most Vulnerable Children, which** contains number of intervention strategies designed to positively impact the lives and welfare of the country's most vulnerable children.

The national **Youth Development Policy** of 2008 is aimed at empowering and guiding youth and other stakeholders in addressing youth development issues. The Policy recognizes the problem of youth unemployment among young people completing primary and secondary schools as well as those in higher learning institutions. It further acknowledges that most of these young people are unable to be self-employed because they lack capital, work facilities, security and work premises. One of the principal objectives of the Policy is the creation of human resources development opportunities for the acquisition of demand driven skills and competencies for wage and self-employment. This entails preparation of youths for work by ensuring quality basic education for all young women and men, and developing a demand driven vocational and technical education system. The **Technical Education**

12 *National Strategy on the Elimination of Child Labour 2018-2022*, Prime Minister's Office Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disability December, 2017.

and Training Policy of 1996 guides and addresses all issues pertaining to the provision of the required technical education and training knowledge to Tanzanians.

The way forward: Accelerating action against child labour and youth decent work deficits

Child labour

The results of the 2014 Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey discussed above underscore the distance that the country must still travel to achieve child labour elimination, and highlights the need for accelerated action to reach this goal in the nearest possible future. The National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour is an important step in this direction. Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring a policy response that is integrated and cross-sectoral in nature. Evidence from Tanzania and elsewhere points to a set of policy pillars that are particularly relevant in this regard – basic education, social protection, public awareness, social mobilisation and advocacy – building on the foundation provided by comprehensive child labour legislation and a solid evidence base.

- *Education access and quality.* There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school-aged children into work is to extend and improve schooling. This starts with extending access to early childhood education (ECD) to promote learning readiness and help children keep away from work in their early years. By law, all public primary schools in Tanzania must have at least one pre-primary classroom which children may attend free of charge. However, severe shortages of pre-primary classrooms and fees levied hamper universal pre-primary enrollment. Continued efforts are also needed to remove access and quality barriers to compulsory schooling for all children. Increasing school access is a particular challenge at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum; 19 percent of all children are out of school by age 13, rising thereafter. Foremost among the factors for being out of school are distance and cost, together cited by over 40 percent of out of school children, and a lack of interest, cited by a further 26 percent of out-of-school children.[13] School quality also remains an important challenge. Overcrowding, inadequate water and sanitation facilities, poorly trained teachers and limited textbook supplies are among the issues affecting the quality of the education received by Tanzanian students; teaching methods are also reported to often be gender-biased.[14] These quality challenges are reflected in students' results: around half of pupils passed the primary school leavers' examination in 2010, with significant discrepancies across regions.

- *Social protection*. Social protection instruments serve to prevent vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks. Unconditional and conditional cash transfer programmes, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs based social assistance and social pensions, and public works schemes are all relevant to ensuring household livelihoods, supplementing the incomes of the poor and reducing household dependence on child labour. The Government of Tanzania has implemented a number of measures to enhance the social protection system, and is developing a framework for national coordination and investment in social protection. Foremost among social protection programmes targeting vulnerable households is the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF). TASAF provides both social assistance (conditional and unconditional cash

13 Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.
14 UNICEF – Tanzania: Education Equity and Quality.

transfers) and public work (cash for work and training), through an innovative community-driven approach. These and other efforts, taken together, provide key protection for vulnerable families but do not yet constitute a complete basic social protection floor. Further investment is needed to evaluate their impact, and, on this basis, to extend the most effective approaches to reach all vulnerable households.[15]

- *Enhancing public awareness*. Strategic communication is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information on the costs and dangers of child labour and on the benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. But factors which influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics or work conditions. Cultural attitudes and perceptions can also direct household decisions on children's schooling and child labour, and therefore should also be targeted in strategic communication efforts. Communication efforts are needed at both national and local levels. A mix of conventional (e.g. radio, television and print media) as well as non-conventional communication channels (e.g. religious leaders, school teachers, health care workers) is important in order to achieve maximum outreach. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns against child labour abuses. Baseline information on local knowledge and cultural attitudes towards child labour is needed to tailor communication messages, and to evaluate changes in awareness and attitudes following communication activities.

- *Social mobilization and advocacy*. Achieving sustainable reduction in child labour requires social consensus well beyond the level of the household. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Similarly, laws to protect children from child labour are unlikely to be effective if they are not backed by broad social consensus. Social mobilization is therefore critical to engaging a broad range of social actors in efforts against child labour. Various social actors, including, for example, NGOs, faith-based organizations, teachers' organizations, the mass media, trade unions, and employers' organizations, have important roles to play in a broader societal effort against child labour. The National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour 2018 – 2022 represents a significant progress towards coordination of these stakeholders and has a particularly important potential role to play in social mobilization efforts. It depicts an institutional arrangement ensuring implementation and coordination at different levels through i) a National Child Labour Consultative Forum, ii) a Stakeholder's Consultative Forum and, iii) Technical Committees.

- *Child labour legislation, inspections and monitoring*. Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive legislative environment that is in line with international standards. Despite these important legal commitments, several key legislative gaps persist. For instance, there have been concerns about the lack of a stronger framework for articulating the scope of permissible versus non-permissible work among children across various sectors of the economy.

15 The ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation (No. 202) of 2012 provides a key framework for efforts in this regard. The Recommendation sets out that SPFs should contain basic social security guarantees that ensure that all in need can afford and have access to essential health care and have income security at least at a nationally defined minimum level over the life cycle. See ILO, 2011. Resolution and conclusions concerning the recurrent discussion on social protection (social security), International Labour Conference, 100th Session, Geneva, 2011, in Record of Proceedings (Geneva, 2011), No. 24: Report of the Committee for the Recurrent Discussion on Social Protection. 2011b, paras. 4 and 5. Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_152819.pdf.

In particular, there is a need to harmonize the list of hazardous works of the Law of Child Act (LCA 2009) with the one in the Employment and Labour Relation Act (ELRA 2004). In addition, the definition of light work in the legislation is ambiguous and the distinction between light work and child labour is unclear, in turn complicating efforts to measure and target child labour. Monitoring the implementation of legislation is also a major challenge, owing to limited resources for inspection. According to the latest annual report of the Labour Department of 2012/2013, there were only 77 Labour Officers countrywide, and more than one third of the Regional/District Labour Offices have only one Labour Officer. Given the extent of child labour and resource constraints, it will likely continue to be difficult for the formal inspection system alone to be effective in protecting children from workplace violations. This highlights the importance of establishing effective community-based child labour monitoring systems as a mechanism for identifying children who are involved or at risk of engaging in child labour, referring them to appropriate social services, and tracking them to ensure positive outcomes.

- *Improving the evidence base*. Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many children in child labour there are, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Better data is especially needed on programme impact, in order to identify good practices from the large number of child labour initiatives undertaken in the country, and following from this, approaches with most potential for broader scale implementation. More evidence is also needed, inter alia, on the worst forms of child labour, recognizing that "the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action",[16] and on child migration (in-country and cross-border).

Addressing child labour among children aged 14-17 years

Even though 14 to 17 year-olds are over the minimum working age, they are still considered "children in child labour" under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation if the work they do is hazardous. As we saw above, child labour among 14 to 17 year-olds is very high in Tanzania, affecting almost 41 percent of all children in this age group, or 1,467,000 children in absolute terms. Such harmful work in adolescence can create huge barriers – educational, physical, psychological and social – that impede a young person from competing successfully for good jobs in the future. At the same time, around 70 percent of all 14 to 17 year-olds employment are in child labour. A key goal for policy efforts in both the child labour and youth employment fields, therefore, should be to remove and prevent children from jobs that threaten health, safety or morals. While the policies articulated above for younger children are also largely relevant for combatting child labour in the 14 to17 age group, there is also a need for additional policy measures tailored specifically to the unique challenges posed by child labour in this age group.

- *Removing youth from hazardous work.* In instances in which 14 to 17 year-olds are working in sectors or occupations that are designated as hazardous or where there is no scope for improving working conditions, the policy requirement is clear – they must be removed from the hazardous job. It is therefore imperative that there is an effective inspection and monitoring system for identifying the children concerned and a strategy in place for providing children withdrawn from child labour with adequate support services, and opportunities for social

16 Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

reintegration and second chance education. Community-based mechanisms close to where the children in child labour are located are particularly relevant in this regard.

- *Mitigating risk in order to ensure that youths are not exposed to hazards in their workplace.* Risk mitigation is a strategic option in instances where children are exposed to hazards in sectors or occupations that are not designated as hazardous in national hazardous work lists and where there is scope for changing work conditions. Such a strategy involves measures to remove the hazard, to separate the child sufficiently from the hazard so as not to be exposed, or minimize the risk associated with that hazard. The ILO speaks of this as "identifying hazards and reducing risks". Strategies aimed at improving the working conditions of child workers include various types of protective measures: hours of work can be reduced; work at night, or travel to and from work at night, can be prohibited; workplace policies against harassment can be established and enforced; children can be barred from using dangerous substances, tools or equipment; and adequate rest periods can be provided. Especially important in the context of risk mitigation is training and awareness-raising on occupational safety and health for employers and their young workers, including on adequate and consistent supervision. Another priority is the implementation of adequate monitoring mechanisms. Trade unions, business associations, chambers of commerce, community organizations, social protection agencies – when properly trained and linked with the labour inspectorate – can monitor minimum age guidelines, the safety of the workplace and its child workers.[17]

Addressing the decent work deficit among young people aged 15–35 years

The results presented in this Report highlight a number of challenges facing Tanzanian young people entering the labour market. Levels of human capital remain low for many Tanzanian young people, compromising their future prospects. Seventeen per cent of all youth are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and therefore at risk of social marginalisation. Youth employment is dominated by low-skill, unremunerated jobs in the informal economy offering fewer chances for upward mobility. Underemployment, or "hidden unemployment", affects 12 percent of employed youth. These results point to the need for active labour market policies[18] aimed at improving youth labour market outcomes, building on the knowledge foundation acquired during childhood through improved basic education and preventing child labour.

- *Skills development and second chance education*. A variety of TVET programmes are in place in the country. Notable among them are the Skills Development Programme to Improve Employment Prospects for Tanzanian Youth. Besides the formal TVET system, non-formal TVET programmes are offered through different means, as lifelong learning education programmes and adult education programmes. However, no information is available on informal TVET systems.[19] These efforts have led to progress in terms of increasing access to training for young people, but both the quality and coverage of training nonetheless remain limited. Ensuring training opportunities extend to vulnerable youth with limited levels of formal education

17 It is important to note that while we are focusing here on children, neither is hazardous work acceptable for adult workers. The ILO Conventions on occupational safety and health (OSH) and on labour inspection offer protection for all workers. In fact, nearly half of all ILO instruments deal directly or indirectly with OSH issues. It has long been recognized in this context that action against child labour can also be action for decent work for adults. In the case of hazardous work, where economic necessity or deeply ingrained tradition blocks attempts to improve conditions for adult workers, it is sometimes the call to stop child labour that can be the entry point to change. Eliminating hazardous work of children can help improve safety and health of all workers – the ultimate goal.

18 Active labour market policies are designed to improve labour market outcomes for young people within existing institutional and macro-economic constraints; the broader structural economic reforms needed to reduce youth unemployment in the long run are beyond the scope of this Report.

19 UNESCO (2016). World TVET Data base - Tanzania.

remains a particularly important challenge facing the TVET system. This group of vulnerable youths includes those whose education was compromised by involvement in child labour. Access is also especially limited for female youth and for the rural poor.

- *Job search support.* The high levels of skills mismatch among Tanzanian youth (see Section 7.5) is suggestive of a need for further investment in job search skills and in formal mechanisms linking young job seekers with appropriate job openings. It will again be especially important to ensure that at-risk youth are able to access these employment services programmes. This can be difficult because most at-risk youth live in either marginal urban or rural areas, while most employment services are offered in more central locations. One criticism of employment services programmes elsewhere has been that those who benefit from the programmes are typically more qualified and connected to begin with and therefore more likely to become employed. This points to the importance of targeting job search support to disadvantaged young people most in need.

- *Public works programmes.* The high percentage of youth who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and who are underemployed points to the need for demand-side measures aimed at improving employment opportunities for young people. Labour-intensive public works programmes targeting young people represent one important policy option in this context. Such programmes can provide both qualified and unqualified young people with an entry point into the labour market within broader efforts to reduce poverty and develop rural services infrastructure. Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) includes public work among its components, aiming at providing cash income for targeted poor beneficiaries through employment in the approved sub-projects, which include infrastructure, construction, rehabilitation and maintenance. However, it does not explicitly target youth and opportunities for youth participation in employment creation programmes are limited. This discussion underscores the need to effectively "mainstream" vulnerable youth into public works programmes as part of broader strategy promoting youth employment. Experience from public works programmes targeting youth outside Tanzania indicate that adding mandatory technical and behavioural skills, financial literacy, or job search training to the public works initiatives can further increase their impact in terms of improving youth employment outcomes.

- *Youth entrepreneurship.* Promoting youth entrepreneurship represents another important demand-side strategy for expanding youth employment opportunities and improving employment outcomes for the large proportion of Tanzanian youth currently underemployed or outside of employment and education. A wide array of efforts promoting youth entrepreneurship are currently underway in the country. However, there remains a number of outstanding priorities for expanding youth entrepreneurship opportunities, particularly for vulnerable youth. Priorities in this context include supporting an entrepreneurial culture by including entrepreneurship education and training in school. Easing access to finance, including by guaranteeing loans and supporting micro-credit initiatives, is also critical, as a major stumbling block for young entrepreneurs is the lack of access to credit and seed funding. Expanding access to effective business advisory and support services, and the capacity to deliver them, is another key element in promoting youth entrepreneurship, as isolation and lack of support prevent many potential young entrepreneurs experience from gaining a foothold in the business world. The formation of self-help groups, including cooperatives, by young people would also allow for better access to supplies, credit and market information.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Overcoming the twin challenges of child labour and the youth decent work deficit will be critical to Tanzania's progress towards realizing its broader social development goals. Evidence presented in this report indicates that 4.2 million Tanzanian children remain trapped in child labour. At the same time, young persons aged 15 to 35 are concentrated overwhelmingly in low-skill jobs in the informal economy that offer little prospect for advancement or for escaping poverty. Beyond their adverse short-term consequences, both child labour and youth decent work deficits can permanently impair lifetime patterns of employment and pay.

This report examines the related issues of child labour and youth employment in the context of Tanzania. Guided by observed outcomes in terms of schooling, work activities and status in the labour market, the report considers the extent, nature, causes and consequences of child labour and youth decent work deficits in the country. The Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey 2014 (ILFS, 2014) is the primary data source for the report. Data from this survey allows a comprehensive and nationally representative picture of the situation of child labour and youth employment. The previous two rounds of the Integrated Labour Force Survey, 2000-01 and 2006 are used to discuss the trends of child labour and youth employment.

Three related objectives are served by the report: (1) improving the information base on child labour and youth employment, in order to inform policy and programmatic responses; (2) promoting policy dialogue on child labour and the lack of opportunities for decent and productive work for youth; and (3) analysing the relationship between early school leaving, child labour and future status in the labour market. The Report was developed within the framework of the National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour 2018 -2022 and is aimed at helping to inform its implementation.

The remainder of the report is structured as follows: Chapter 2 reviews the national economic and social context. Chapter 3 provides an overall picture of child labour in Tanzania. Chapters 4 and 5 then look in more detail at child labour among children in the 5 to 13 and 14 to 17 age groups, respectively. Chapter 6 examines the interplay between child labour and schooling. Chapter 7 then turns to youth employment among those aged 15 to 35, covering issues such as job access, job quality, human capital and skills mismatches. Chapter 8 reviews current national responses to child labour and youth employment. Chapter 9 provides a concluding discussion of policy priorities and recommendations for accelerating action in the areas of child labour and youth employment.

Box 1. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme

The inter-agency research programme, Understanding Children's Work (UCW), was initiated by the International Labour Organization (ILO), UNICEF and the World Bank to help inform efforts towards eliminating child labour.

The Programme is guided by the Roadmap adopted at the Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010, which lays out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour.

The Roadmap calls for effective partnership across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks. The Roadmap also calls for improved knowledge sharing and for further research aimed at guiding policy responses to child labour.

Research on the work and the vulnerability of children and youth constitutes the main component of the UCW Programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, the Programme produces research allowing a better understanding of child labour and youth employment in their various dimensions and the linkages between them.

The results of this research support the development of intervention strategies designed to remove children from the world of work, prevent others from entering it and to promote decent work for youth. As UCW research is conducted within an inter-agency framework, it promotes a shared understanding of child labour and youth employment challenges and provides a common platform for addressing them.

CHAPTER 2

Country context

The United Republic of Tanzania, the union of mainland Tanganyika and Zanzibar Island, lies in East Africa along the Indian Ocean. It shares land borders with eight countries (Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia). The country's population stood at an estimated 53.5 million in 2015, and is growing at over 3 percent per annum.[20] The population structure is "young", characteristic of a country experiencing rapid demographic growth: 45 percent are below the age of 15. The population is still predominantly rural (68 percent live in rural areas) but annual urban population growth (5.4 percent) is 2.5 times that of annual population growth in rural areas (2.1 percent).

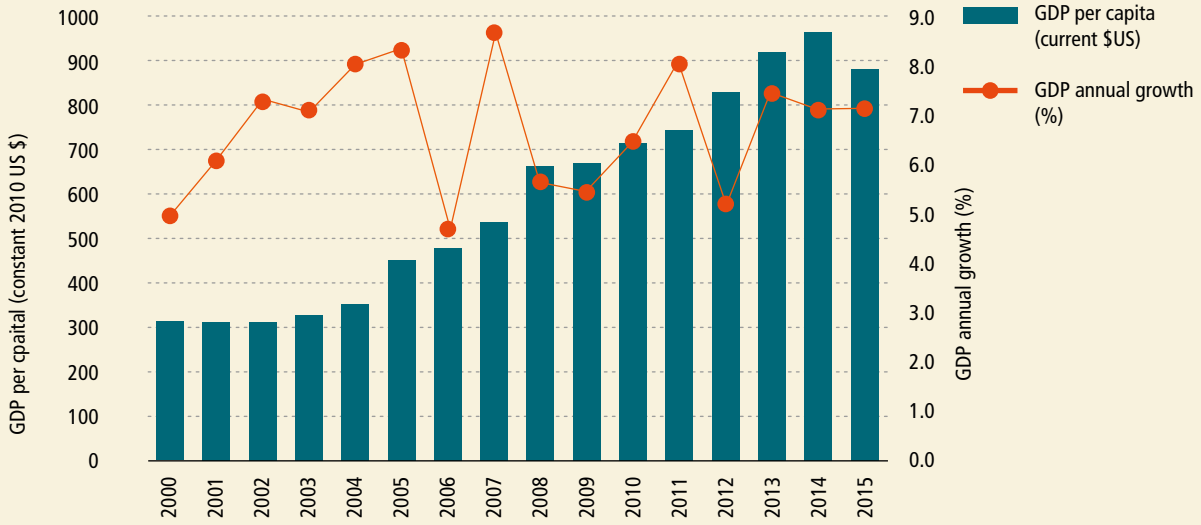
Tanzania's land surface area of 885,800 square kilometres is made up of three main topographic features: plains along the coast, a central plateau and highlands in the north and south. Arable land makes up 15 percent of the total land area while forests account for 52 percent of land area. Climate varies from tropical along the coast to temperate in the highlands. Soil degradation, deforestation, desertification, drought and flooding, all exacerbated by climate change, pose threats to agricultural output and to development progress generally. These threats are particularly significant in light of the continuing economic importance of agriculture: the sector accounts for one-third of GDP and absorbs two-thirds of the labour force.

Long considered an island of stability in the region, Tanzania hosts large numbers of refugees fleeing from conflicts in neighbouring countries. The country saw its refugee population double to 212,000 in 2015 as a result of a large influx of people escaping the political instability and violence in Burundi. Controlling the spread of HIV (which affects 4.7 percent of the population aged 15–49 years) and creating better living conditions for the rural poor are other key challenges facing the country.

Tanzania has managed solid macroeconomic performance over the last decade despite a difficult global economic climate; annual GDP growth averaged almost 7 percent for the 10 years beginning in 2005 (Figure 3). Recent data also suggest progress against poverty but that poverty nonetheless remains widespread. The poverty rate fell from affecting 53 percent of the population in 2007 to 47 percent in 2011, based on the US$1.90 per day global poverty line. Those in extreme poverty, defined as living on less than US$0.60 per day, made up about half of all poor. Not included in these statistics but also a concern is the many Tanzanians hovering just over the poverty line and at risk of falling back into poverty in the event of socio-economic setbacks.

20 All statistics in this chapter unless otherwise stated are from the World Development Indicators database (http://databank.worldbank.org) (accessed in May 2017).

Figure 3. Macroeconomic performance, 2000–2015



Source: *World Bank World Development Indicators database (accessed May 2017).*

Clearer signs of progress have been recorded in terms of non-monetary poverty – particularly in the area of health. Infant mortality dropped from 80 to 32 per 1,000 live births between 2000 and 2015, while under-five mortality dropped from 131 to 49 per 1,000 live births over the same period. The fraction of stunted children under the age of five declined from 44 percent in 2004 to 35 percent in 2004. Finally, the lifetime risk of maternal death fell by more than half from 4.6 percent in 2000 to 2.2 percent in 2015.

Tanzania has also seen progress in responding to HIV, but the country nonetheless remains hard-hit by the pandemic, undermining overall development efforts. The prevalence among those aged 15 to 49 fell from 6.5 percent in 2005 to 4.7 percent a decade later, but there are still 1.3 million people aged 15 or over and 91,000 children below this age living with HIV/AIDS-related illnesses, which continues to place enormous pressure on health care services; children orphaned by AIDS number 790,000[21] while many others are forced to assume household responsibilities beyond their years in order to care for ailing parents. Many children orphaned or with sick parents must also perform some form of work outside the home to support themselves and/or their families, interfering with or precluding schooling. The worst off are forced onto the street, where they are especially vulnerable to harmful and exploitative forms of work.

Achieving progress in the area of education is another major development challenge. Thanks in large part to the lifting of fees and to the construction of hundreds of new schools, the adjusted net primary school enrolment rate[22] increased from 53 percent in 2000 to 96 percent in 2008, with girls benefiting as much as boys. But efforts to expand access have subsequently failed to keep pace with

21 UNAIDS (www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/unitedrepublicoftanzania).
22 Adjusted net enrolment is the number of pupils of the school-age group for primary education, enrolled either in primary or secondary education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

population growth, resulting in a steady decrease in enrolment at the primary level since this date, to an adjusted net primary school enrolment rate of just 78 percent in 2014. Expanding access at the secondary level is an even greater challenge – the gross secondary enrolment rate stood at only 32 percent in 2013. The education system also faces significant quality concerns, including congested classrooms, limited facilities and shortages and misallocations of qualified teachers. A 2014 appraisal indicated that learning outcomes were low and declining at the primary and secondary levels[23] and there are other worrying reports of a significant rise in youth illiteracy.[24]

23 Uwezo, *2012–2013 Annual Assessment Report for Tanzania*, as cited by the World Bank, 2016. Available at www.worldbank.org/en/results/2016/12/21/tanzania-focusing-on-results-leads-to-better-learning.

24 "Special Report: Worrying trends of education in Tanzania as illiteracy expands", *The Citizen*, Sunday, January 2017. Available at www.thecitizen.co.tz/News/Worrying-trends-of-education-in-Tanzania-as-illiteracy-expands/1840340-3509766-axdh34z/index.html.

CHAPTER 3

Child labour: The overall picture

Child labour in Tanzania continues to affect an estimated 4.2 million children aged 5–17 years, about 29 percent of this age group, a share that has changed little over the last decade. These numbers indicate clearly that the battle against child labour is far from finished in the country, and that efforts need to be intensified and accelerated so that the goal of child labour elimination is reached in the nearest possible future.

The case against child labour, set forth in the 2013 ILO Global Child Labour Estimates report, is as relevant in Tanzania as elsewhere.[25] Children who grow up free from child labour have the opportunity to fully realize their rights to education, leisure and healthy development, which in turn helps them make a successful transition into decent work upon completing their education and become contributing members of society as adults. The costs of inaction are equally clear. Child labour can seriously endanger children's immediate health and safety, as well as their health status later in life. This is particularly the case for the children engaged in the worst forms of child labour. Child labour also compromises children's ability to enrol and stay in school, and to benefit from the time they do spend in the classroom. Turning a blind eye to child labour can erode the fabric of societies and can impoverish and even destroy the human capital needed for economic growth and poverty reduction. In purely economic terms, a separate ILO global study indicates clearly that the benefits of eliminating child labour vastly outweigh its costs.[26]

The legal framework for child labour in Tanzania is contained in the Law of the Child Act (Act No. 21, 2009). The Act sets the minimum age for admission of a child to employment at 14 (Sec. 77.2). It also contains a provision permitting light work for children who are at least 12, where light work is defined as work that is not likely to be harmful to the health or development of the child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from schoolwork (Sec.77.3). The Act prohibits the engagement of children and children below 18 in hazardous work, posing a danger to health, safety or morals and in "night work" taking place between 8 pm and 6 am (Sec. 82.2). The Law of the Child (Child Employment) Regulations (G.N. No. 196, 2012), which is used to implement the Law of the Child Act (Act No. 21, 2009), contains list of all hazardous activities in which a child shall not be allowed to work, even on a voluntary basis.

25 ILO-IPEC. Marking progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000–2012/International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013.

26 Investing in Every Child, An Economic Study of the Costs and Benefits of Eliminating Child Labour, ILO Geneva, December 2003.

Following national legislation and global measurement standards (in the measurement of light work), children are classified as being in child labour on the basis of the following criteria:

a) For children aged 5–11 years: those in employment;
b) For children aged 12–13 years: those in employment except those in light work;[27]
c) For children aged 14–17 years: those in work posing a danger to health, safety or morals and in "night work".

Children in employment, in turn, are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period. Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use, excluding water and firewood collection). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economies; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay).[28]

Child labour measured on this basis is very common in Tanzania. Some 1,930,200 children aged 5–11 years, 833,800 aged 12–13 years and 1,466,800 aged 14–17 years are in child labour. The sum of these three groups yields a total of almost 4.2 million children aged 5–17 years involved in child labour, or about 29 percent of all children in this age group (Table 1).

These overall estimates mask important differences by sex, residence and region. Patterns by sex vary by age group. In the 5–11 years age group, differences are small, with boys slightly more likely to be involved in child labour than girls. In the 12–13 years age group, boys are three percentage points more likely to be in child labour than girls. In the 14–17 years age group, the pattern reverses and girls are 2 percentage points more likely to be in child labour than boys. The difference in child labour involvement between rural and urban children is starker. For the 5–17 years age group as a whole, the rate of child labour in rural areas (36 percent) is more than twice that in urban areas (14 percent). Child labour also varies widely by region from peaks of 59 percent in the Manyara region and 55 percent in the Geita region to a low of 4 percent in Dar es Salaam (see Figure A1 in the Annex). Differences in child labour by sex, residence and region are discussed in more detail in the subsequent chapters of this report.

It should be underscored in interpreting these numbers that they represent conservative estimates of child labour, because they exclude so-called "worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work." These forms of child labour include child trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and the involvement of children in illicit activities. In Tanzania, as in most countries, information on children involved in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous is limited due to both methodological difficulties and cultural sensitivity. The Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey and other similar surveys are not designed to generate information on children involved in worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work. However, fragmentary evidence from qualitative studies and other sources suggests that many Tanzania children are trapped in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work, posing an extreme threat to their health, safety and well-being, as summarized in Box 2.

27 Light work is defined as work that is not likely to be harmful to the health or development of the child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from schoolwork. In this report, "light work" is operationally defined as non-hazardous economic activity performed for less than 14 hours per week. This cut-off point is supported by ILO Convention No. 33, as well as research looking at the link between economic activity and schooling, and is consistent with the approach used by ILO/IPEC in its global child labour estimates.

28 The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013). The resolution is available at: www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS_230304/lang--en/index.htm.

Box 2. Hazardous child labour in tobacco growing communities in Tabora, Tanzania

Working children in tobacco growing perform many different activities depending on a production cycle that lasts approximately nine months from August/September to May/June in Tanzania. While many children participate in most activities such as raising and transplanting, weeding and applying fertilizer, there are other tasks that are largely undertaken by older children of 15 years old or more. These include field preparation and stamping, construction of sheds and barns, cutting of trees for firewood, packaging, curing and spraying.

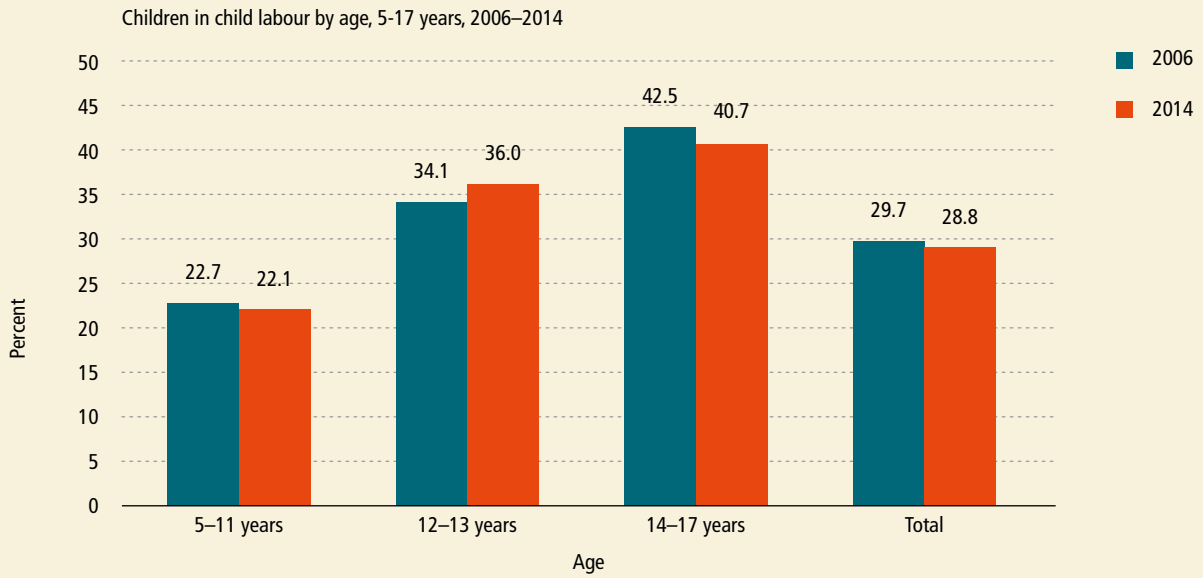
While children work in open tobacco fields, they have to endure intense heat from sunlight. Children also spend many hours stringing and grading tobacco in unsanitary makeshift sheds with little ventilation. Children work without protective gear such as special clothes, gloves and respiratory masks when handling fertilizers, pesticides and tobacco leaves. The bulk of work is undertaken manually using tools such as hoes, shovels, machetes, axes, knives and watering cans, which is tiring and may cause injury to children. Farmers do not have first aid kits that could be of assistance in the event of injury. School-going children often have to walk from home to the tobacco fields and back home to prepare for school.

Data on the hazards and their effects on the health of working children were obtained by a rapid assessment by ILO and ARISE. Working hours for working children depended on their activity, regardless of their age or of whether or not they attended school. Half (50 percent) of the interviewed working children were working between 5–8 hours a day. Few (12 percent) estimated that they were working between 2–4 hours a day. More than one-third (37 percent) estimated that they were working for more than 8 hours per day, which is beyond the standard working hours limit for adults. However, it was observed by key informants that children attending school were restricted to working longer hours compared with those not in school except during weekends, public holidays and during school vacation. Informants indicated that it is obvious that young children under 12 work less than older children over 15 years.

The existence of hazards and risks facing working children resulted from poor housing and sanitary conditions, the tools used, and the lack of gear to protect them from the hazardous aspects of the tasks they were performing. First, tiredness and exhaustion affected almost all working children, because the work in tobacco farming and production is physically demanding given that there is no mechanization at all on small family farms. The effects of tiredness and exhaustion were very evident. Second, there were chemically based hazards, especially in tobacco production through the effects of fumigants, fertilizers, green tobacco sickness and tobacco dust. Although some tobacco farmers and key informants were aware of some of the hazards of children's involvement in tobacco-related activities, most of the working children were unaware of the risks.

Source: *ILO/ARISE Rapid Assessment on Child Labour in Tobacco Growing Communities in Tabora, Tanzania. Published by ILO/IPEC in Geneva in 2016.*

Figure 4. Tanzania saw only very limited progress against child labour over the period 2006–2014



Source: *World Bank World Development Indicators database (accessed May 2017).*

How is child labour changing over time? To assess trends in child labour, the 2006 and 2014 rounds of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey were used.[29] As reported in Figure 4, progress was very limited over the 2006–2014 period. For the 5–17 years age group as a whole, child labour incidence fell by only one percentage point. Furthermore, disaggregating trends by age group shows that overall progress was driven almost entirely by the older, children aged 14–17 years. Child labour incidence fell by only one half of one percentage point among children aged 5–11 years and actually increased by two percentage points among children aged 12–13 years.

29 Data restrictions unfortunately prevent the estimation of child labour for the 2000–2001 round of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS).

CHAPTER 4

Children aged 5–13 years

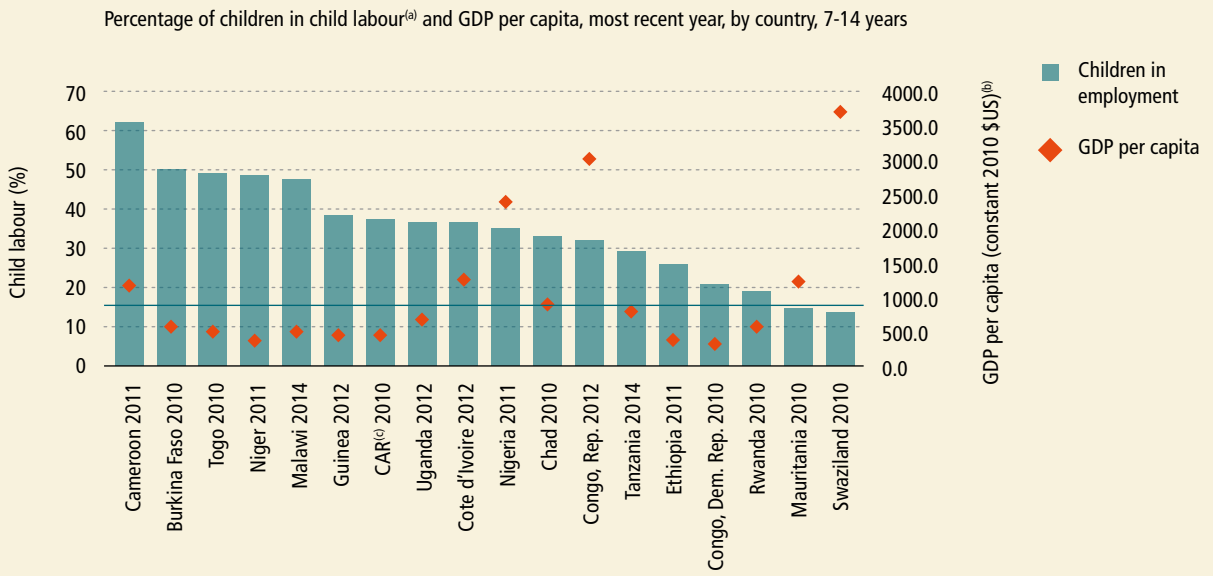
This chapter analyses the extent and nature of child labour among children aged 5–13 years in more detail, relying on the 2000–2001, 2006 and 2014 rounds of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS) and on the measurement concepts outlined in the previous chapter.

4.1 Involvement in child labour

Around one in four children aged 5–13 years (25 percent), almost 2.8 million in absolute terms, are in child labour according to the ILFS 2014 (Table 4). This rate of child labour places Tanzania in the mid-range of the child labour spectrum in the sub-Saharan Africa region, as shown in Figure 5.[30] Tanzania performs slightly better than a number of countries with similar or higher incomes, including Cameroon, Chad, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire and Nigeria. Some countries, however, perform better despite *lower* incomes, i.e. the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia and Rwanda, suggesting that there is substantial scope for progress even within existing resource ceilings.

30 To allow cross-country comparisons, children's employment is used as an approximation of child labour and estimates relate to the 7–14 year rather than 5–13 year age group.

Figure 5. Tanzania is in the mid-range of the child labour spectrum in the sub-Saharan Africa region



Notes: *(a) Children's employment is used as an approximation of chid labour. Cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments. (b) Reference years for GDP per capita estimates correspond to reference years for the child labour surveys; and (c) CAR refers to Central African Republic.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014, UCW Country Statistics database and World Bank Development Indicators.*

The descriptive results presented in Table 4 indicate that overall estimates of child labour mask important differences by age and residence. In short, child labour increases with age and is much higher in rural areas than in cities and towns. Differences in terms of involvement between boys and girls, however, are small. More detailed analysis follows below of how child labour (and schooling) varies in accordance with these and other background variables. This discussion draws on results of the econometric analysis presented in the Annex (Table A3 and Table A4).[31]

Table 4. Involvement in child labour by age, sex and residence, 5–13 years

Percentage					
	Sex		Residence		
Age	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	Total
5–11 years	22.6	21.5	9.4	27.7	22.1
12–13 years	37.6	34.1	17.7	44.2	36
Total	**25.8**	**24.1**	**11.1**	**31.1**	**25**
Number					
	Sex		Residence		
Age	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	Total
5–11 years	1,008,074	922,164	250,948	1,679,290	1,930,238
12–13 years	458,884	374,984	127,750	706,118	833,868
Total	**1,466,958**	**1,297,148**	**378,698**	**2,385,408**	**2,764,106**

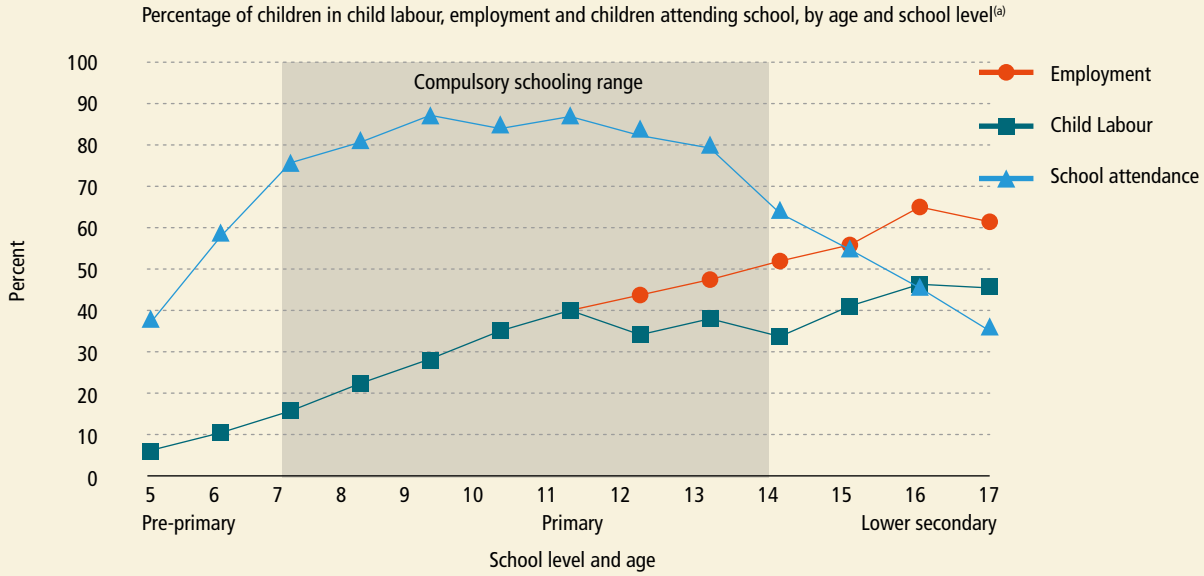
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

31 A simple economic model of household behaviour is used to guide the empirical specification. For detailed information on the model, see Cigno, A. and Rosati, F.C. 2005. "The economics of child labour" (New York, NY, Oxford University Press).

- **Age:** Involvement in child labour increases with age (Figure 6). This pattern is largely due to the fact that the productivity of children increases as they grow older, meaning that the opportunity cost of keeping children in school as opposed to the workplace also goes up. This pattern notwithstanding, the numbers of very young, children aged 5–7 years in child labour are by no means negligible. In all, more than 407,700 children in this age group are already engaged in child labour. These very young children are especially susceptible to workplace hazards and abuses, and they therefore constitute a particular policy priority.

  It should be noted that the definitions of child labour and children's employment diverge from the age of 12. As was discussed in the previous chapter, while child labour includes *all* children in employment in the 5–11 years age group, child labour *excludes* children in light employment in the 12–13 years age group.[32] This narrower definition of child labour explains why child labour figures fall from the age of 11 to 12 years.

Figure 6. Children's employment increases significantly across the 5–13 years age group while school attendance moves in the opposite direction



Notes: *(a) Compulsory schooling in Tanzania begins at age seven and is seven years in duration. The school system is comprised of a two-year pre-primary cycle (non-compulsory), a seven-year compulsory primary cycle, a four-year secondary cycle (non-compulsory) and a two-year upper secondary cycle.*
Source: *UNESCO Institute of Statistics and calculations based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

32 Recall also that children in employment are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period. Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economies; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay).The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013). The resolution is available at: www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS_230304/lang--en/index.htm.

- **Gender**. Child labour does not appear to have a very strong gender dimension; incidence of child labour among boys is less than two percentage points higher than that for girls, a result that is not significant when other background child and household controls are introduced. But it is worth recalling when interpreting this result that it does not include involvement in household chores, a form of work where girls typically predominate. For this reason, our estimates may understate girls' involvement in child labour relative to that of boys.

- **Residence.** Child labour among rural children (31) is almost three times that of urban children (11 percent). The econometric results confirm this pattern, indicating that children living in rural areas are significantly more likely to be in child labour and less likely to attend school (Table A4 in the Annex).

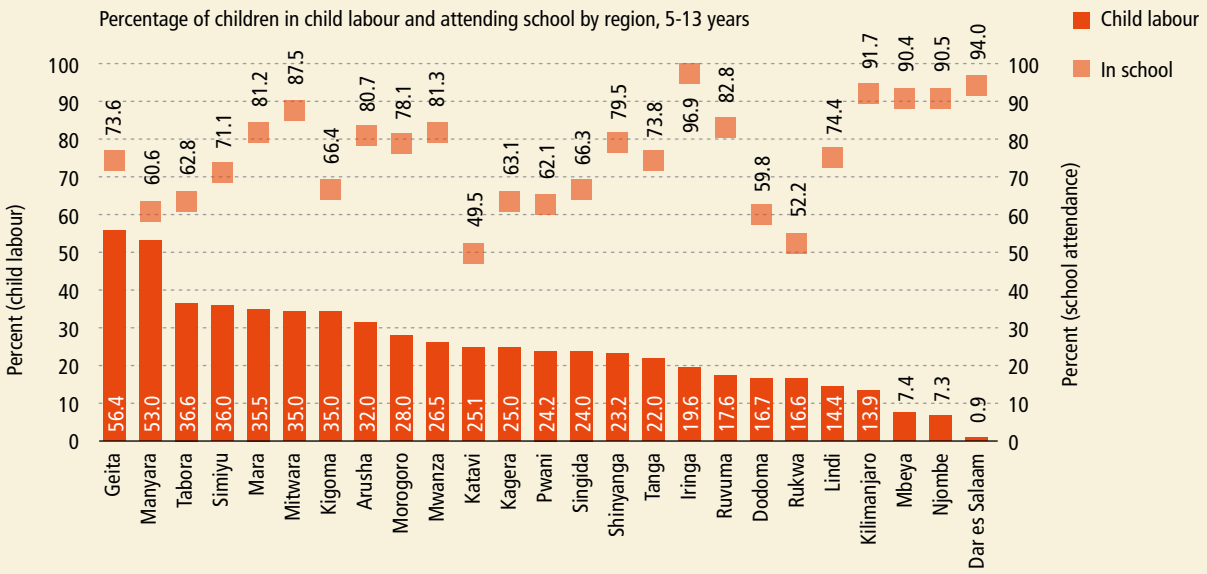
- **Immigration status.** Children who are immigrants appear at considerably greater risk of child labour and educational marginalization, indicating that they constitute a particularly at-risk group. The econometric results indicate that children from migrant households are about five percentage points more likely to be in child labour and at the same time about six percentage points more likely to be out of school (Table A4 in the Annex). These children are also much more likely to be neither in school nor in child labour, a group that includes children performing household chores in their homes and, more worryingly, perhaps including children working in the hidden economy not captured by the ILFS 2014 survey.

- **Access to basic services**. Access to electricity networks is also very relevant. According to the regression results, children from households with electricity are about six percentage points less likely to be in child labour compared to children without this service (Table A4 in the Annex). Basic services are important determinants in large part because they influence the value of children's time outside of the classroom. In contexts where access to basic services is limited, children must often shoulder a greater burden for tasks such as carrying water and fetching fuel wood.

- **School proximity**. School accessibility, measured by school proximity (30-minute walk, equivalent to two kilometres from the household) is another factor that appears relevant in terms of child labour and schooling decisions. The econometric results indicate that children belonging to households living within two kilometres from school are slightly less likely to be in child labour (1.6 percentage points) and much more likely to attend school (7.2 percentage points) (Annex: Table A4).

- **Region.** There are large differences in child labour (and schooling) across regions (Figure 7), pointing to the importance of area-specific approaches to addressing it. The Geita and the Manyara regions stand out as having the highest level of child labour (respectively 56 percent and 53 percent). At the other end of the spectrum lie the Mbeya and Njombe regions, both with 7 percent of children involved in child labour, and the Dar es Salaam region, where child labour incidence is just 1 percent. The Katavi region has the lowest level of school attendance (50 percent), while the Dar es Salaam region has the highest (94 percent).

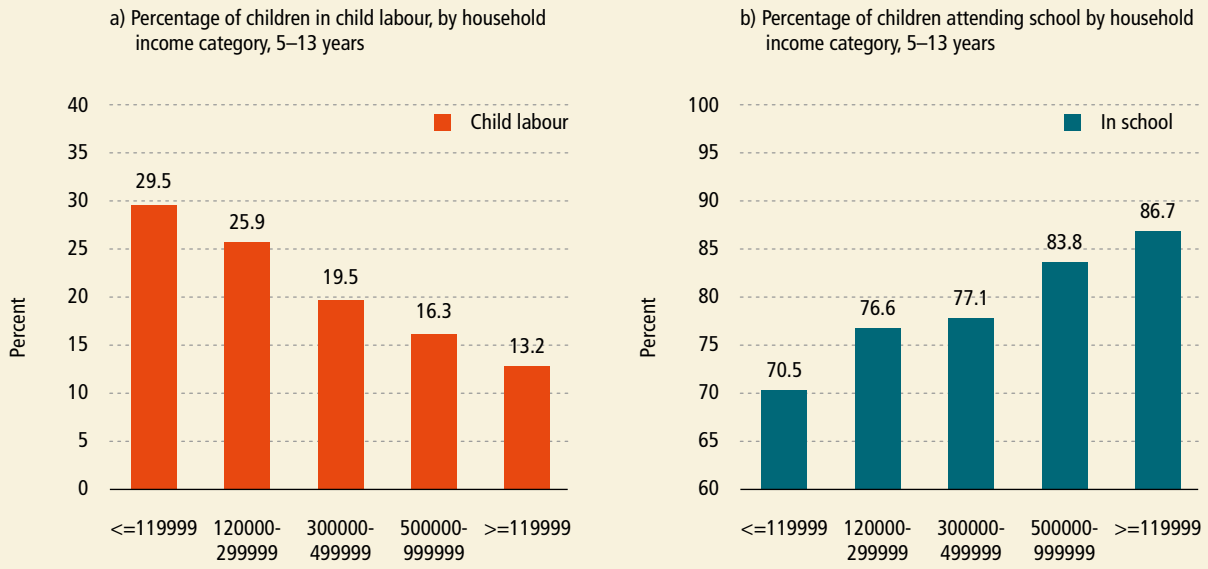
Figure 7. There are large differences across regions in terms of child labour and school attendance



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014*

- **Household income.** Child labour is higher and school attendance is lower among children from households in the lowest income categories (Figure 8a and 5b). The econometric results, in turn, confirm this pattern, indicating that children belonging to households with lower income are more likely to be in child labour and less likely to attend school (Annex: Table A4). The magnitude of the income effect, however, is not large once controlled for other relevant background variables, underscoring the importance of factors *associated* with poverty in driving the observed correlation between household income and poverty. In policy terms, this result suggests that a strategic response based on poverty reduction alone is unlikely to be effective in eliminating child labour.

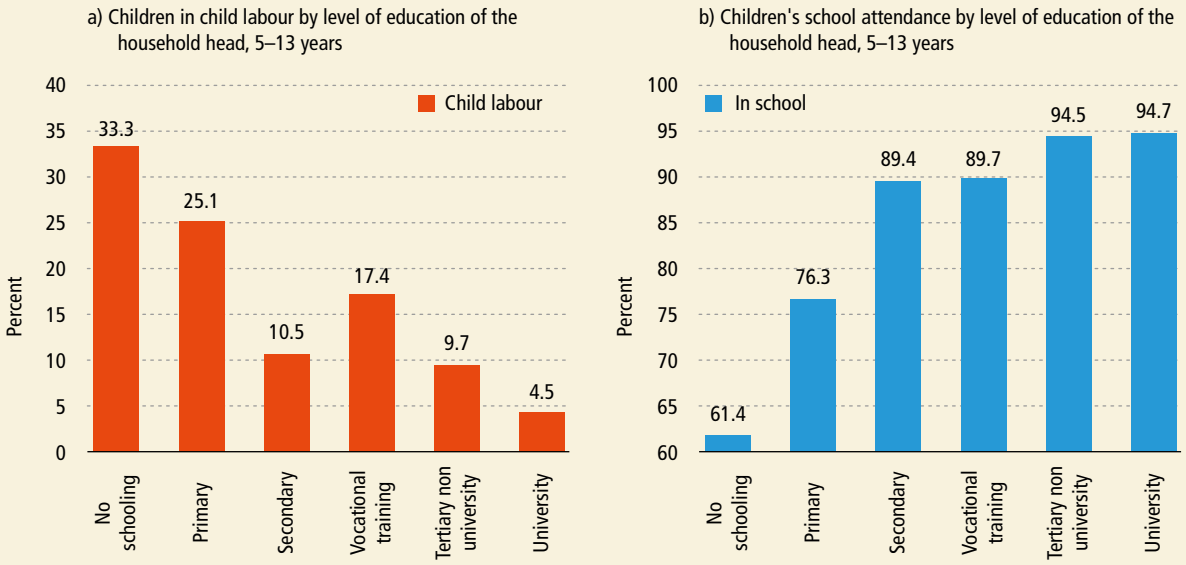
Figure 8. Children from poor households are more vulnerable to child labour and educational marginalization



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

- **Education level of the household head**. The effect of the level of education of the household head in reducing child labour and increasing school attendance is important. A higher educational level of the household head makes it more likely that a child attends school and less likely that a child is engaged in child labour (Figure 9). This relationship is also confirmed by the econometric results controlling for income and other variables, indicating that it is not merely a disguised income effect (Table A4 in the Annex). One possible explanation is that parents that are more educated might have a better understanding of the economic returns to education, and/or are in a better position to help their children realize these returns.

Figure 9. Child labour is higher and school enrolment is lower among children from households with an uneducated household head



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

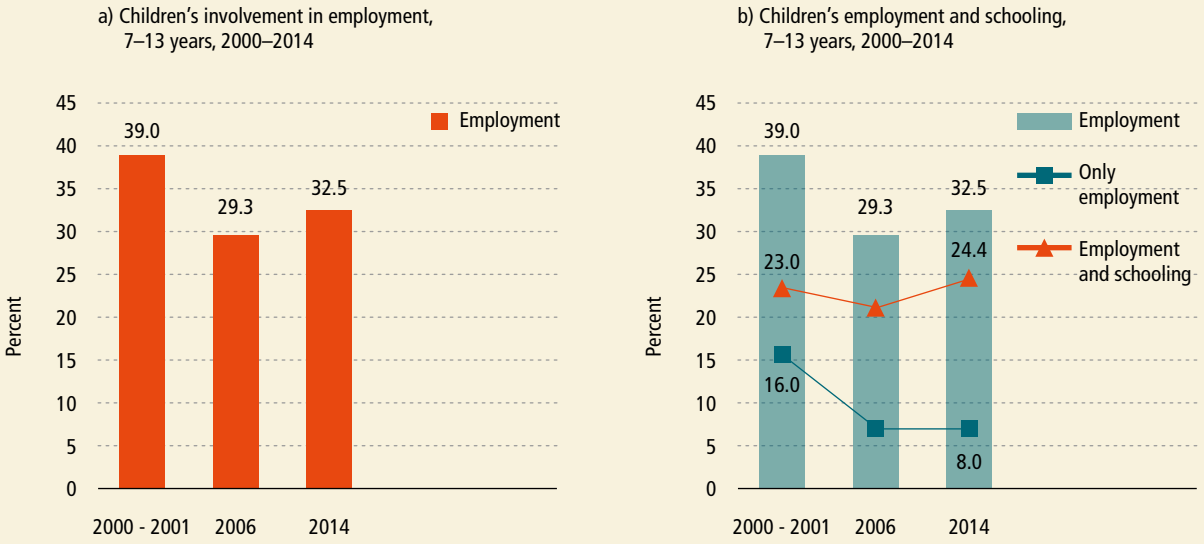
4.2 Trends

Data restrictions unfortunately prevent the estimation of child labour for the 2000–2001 round of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS). It is possible, however, to compare the estimates of children's *employment* for the 7–13 years age group for all three rounds of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey. While children's employment is a slightly broader concept than child labour, it nonetheless provides a useful proxy for assessing changes in child labour.

The comparison of the results from the 2001, 2006 and 2014 survey rounds paints a picture of very uneven progress. Children's employment fell sharply from 2000–2001 to 2006, from 39 percent to 29 percent, but *rose* in the 2006 to 2014 period, from 29 percent to 33 percent (Figure 10a).[33] The decrease in children's employment from 2000–2001 to 2006 occurred prevalently in the sub-group of children only in employment, while the increase during the period 2006–2014 involved exclusively the sub-group of children combining school and employment (Figure 10b). The net result of these changes for the overall 2001–2014 period is a significant decline in the share of children in employment but little change in the share of children combining employment and schooling.

33 Disaggregating these results by age and sex, the decrease from 2000–2001 to 2006 occurred for both boys and girls and across the entire 7–13 years age spectrum, while the increase from 2006 to 2014 involved almost exclusively girls in the 10–13 age group.

Figure 10. Changes in children's involvement in employment, 2000–2014



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

4.3 Characteristics of child labour

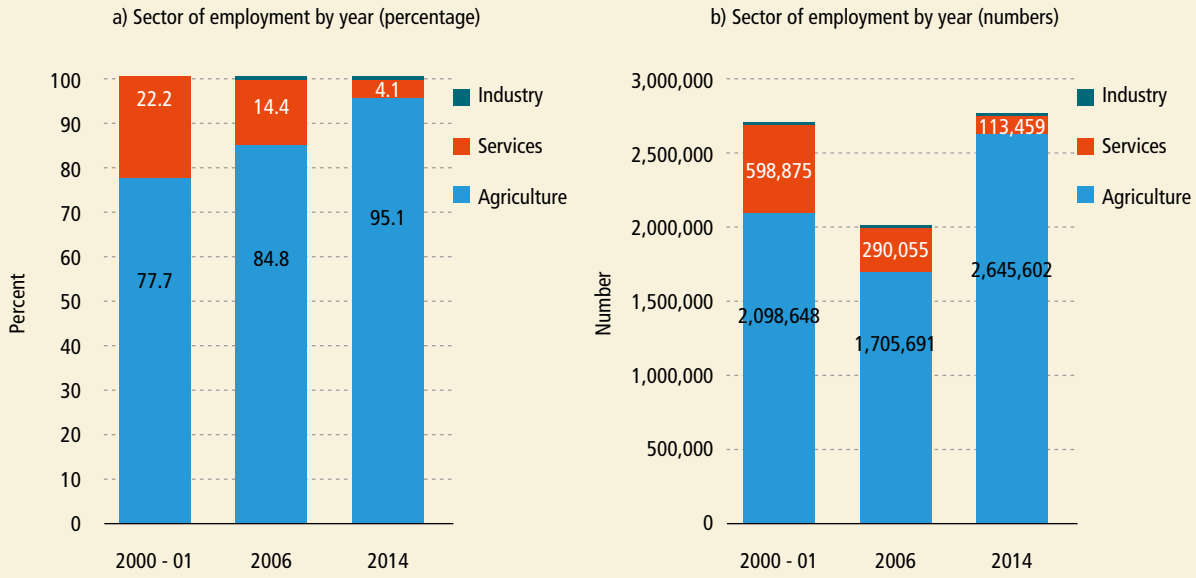
Information on the various characteristics of child labour is necessary for understanding the nature of children's work and children's role in the labour force. This section presents data on broad work characteristics that are useful in this context. A breakdown of children in child labour by industry is reported in order to provide a standardized picture of where children are concentrated in the measured economy. A breakdown of children in child labour by status in employment is reported to provide additional insight into how child labour is carried out. Average working hours is looked at as an indirect indicator of the possible health and educational consequences of child labour.

The vast majority of children in child labour are found in family-based agriculture. Nearly 95 percent of children in child labour are in the agricultural sector, while the services sector accounts for only 5 percent of children in child labour, and the share of children in child labour in manufacturing is negligible (Figure 11a).The predominance of agriculture is a particular concern in light of the fact that this sector is one of the three most dangerous in which to work at any age, along with construction and mining, in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.[34] In terms of status in employment, children are found overwhelmingly in unpaid family work on the farm (93 percent) and only marginally in non-agricultural unpaid family work (5 percent) (Figure 11b). There is slight variation by sex in terms of the composition of child labour, but family-based agriculture accounts for the overwhelming majority of both male and female children in child labour (Figure A2 in the Annex).

34 For further details, please visit the "Child labour in agriculture" section of the ILO-IPEC website: www.ilo.org/ipec/areas/Agriculture/lang--en/index.htm.

The composition of children's work changed in important ways over the period from 2000 to 2014. As reported in Figure 12a, this period saw a large increase in the relative importance of agricultural work accompanied by a decrease in the relative importance of work in the service sector. Agriculture as a share of total child labour rose from 78 percent in 2000–2001 to 95 percent in 2014, while services as a share of child labour fell from 22 percent to 4 percent over the same period. These figures, it should be emphasized, reflect *relative* shares: in *absolute* terms, while the period from 2000-01 to 2006 saw a decrease in the numbers of working children in *all sectors* (Figure 12b), the period 2006–2014 was characterized by a significant increase in the number of children working in the agriculture sector and a further decline in the number working in services.

Figure 11. The composition of child labour changed in important ways over the 2000–2014 period



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2000–2001, 2006, 2014.*

Box 3. Relative importance of children's production

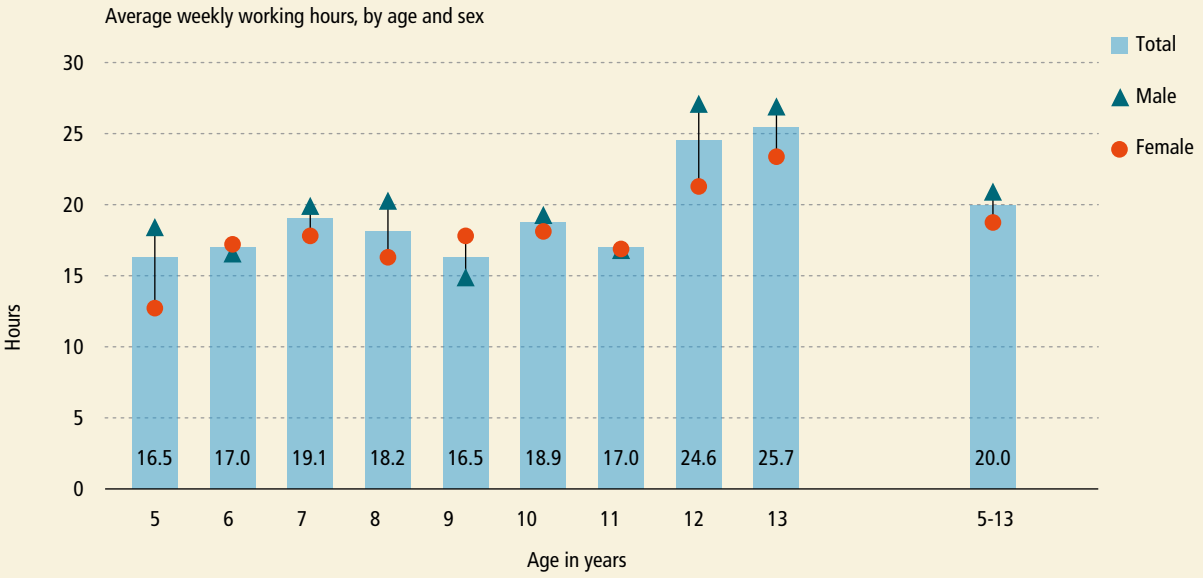
Not addressed in the main body of this report is the question of the relative importance of children's labour in the overall economy. Table 6, which reports the labour force composition by age group, indicates that children play a very important economic role. Children aged 5–13 years account for 13 percent of overall employment. Children's labour is relatively most important in the agriculture sector, where children account for 17 percent of the total employment.

Table A. Relative importance of children in overall employment, by sector

	% of overall employed			
	Children (5–13 years)	Youth (14–35 years)	Adults (36–64 years)	Total
Agriculture	17.2	49.3	33.5	100
Manufacturing	1.9	58.4	39.7	100
Services*	2.4	56.8	40.9	100
Total	12.8	51.6	35.6	100

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure 12. Children in child labour log 20 hours each week, with obvious consequences for their rights to education and leisure



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014*

Children in child labour aged 5–13 years log very long hours, increasing their exposure to workplace hazards and limiting their time for study and leisure. Not only do a very large share of Tanzanian children work, in other words, but those working also spend long hours doing so.

Weekly working hours average 20 hours for the 5–13 years age group as a whole, rising to 25 hours for children over the age of 11 (Figure 13). Working hours are very high even for children as young as 5 and 6 years, who must put in about 17 hours per week. It should be noted that these figures are averages that mask alarming numbers of children who must endure much longer hours: some 445,600 children work for over 40 hours per week and 206,000 for over 50 hours per week. It should also be recalled that these estimates for working hours do not include the additional hours that most children spend each week performing chores within their own homes.

CHAPTER 5

Children aged 14–17 years

Children aged 14–17 years are relevant to efforts relating to both child labour and youth employment. Even though this group is over the minimum working age, they are still children in legal terms and still considered "children in child labour" under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation, if the work they do is likely to jeopardize their health, safety or morals. In other words, children are legally permitted to work but only if this work is not harmful in nature. Hazardous work in this age group can create huge barriers – educational, physical, psychological and social – that impede a young person from competing successfully for good jobs in the future. A key goal for policy efforts in both the child labour and youth employment fields, therefore, should be to remove and prevent children from jobs that threaten health, safety or morals. In this chapter, we address the extent and nature of child labour among children aged 14–17 years.

5.1 Involvement in child labour

As discussed in Chapter 3, and in accordance with Tanzanian legislation and international legal standards, child labour among children aged 14–17 years is limited to work posing a danger to health, safety or morals (Law of the Child Act No. 21, 2009, Sec.82.2). This includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; porterage of heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; work in places where machines are used; and work in places such as bars, hotels and places of entertainment (Sec.82.3).[35] It also includes "night work" taking place between 8 pm and 6 am and work for long hours.

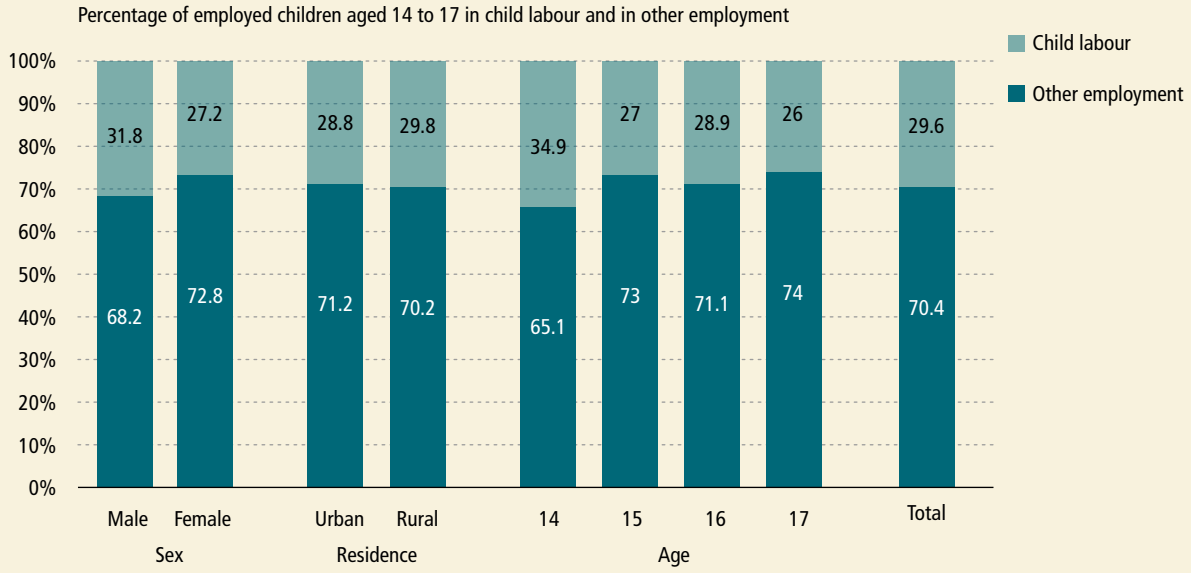
Child labour among children aged 14–17 years defined in these terms is very high in Tanzania. As reported in Table 2, almost 41 percent of all children in this age group, 1,467,000 in absolute terms, are engaged in child labour. Differences in involvement in child labour by sex are small for this age group. Females are two percentage points more likely to be in child labour than males, but the difference by sex is not significant when other background child and family variables are controlled for (Table A6 in the Annex). As with younger children, child labour among children aged 14–17 years is in large part a rural phenomenon. The share of rural children in this age group in child labour (50 percent) is more than twice that of urban children (23 percent); in absolute terms, rural children in child labour outnumber their urban counterparts by 877,000 (1,172,000 to 295,000).

35 For additional information on hazardous work estimates, see also: International Labour Office, Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FUNDAMENTALS) and Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics (2016), Tanzania national child labour survey 2014: Analytical Report.

Other correlates of child labour are also similar to those discussed above for children in child labour aged 5–13 years. The results of an econometric analysis (reported in Tables A5 and A6)[36] indicate that immigrants are much more likely to be exclusively in child labour and not in school than their non-immigrant peers. Household-head level of education has a strong negative correlation with child labour, i.e. children from households whose head is more educated are much less likely to be in child labour, even when household income and other possible confounding factors are controlled for. Proximity to secondary school reduces the probability of being exclusively in child labour and not in school.

Another way of viewing the issue of child labour for the 14–17 years age group is its importance relative to overall employment for this age group, in other words, the share of *employed* children in this age group that are in child labour. Globally, children in hazardous work account for 40 percent of total employed children.[37] In Tanzania, the figure for children aged 14–17 years is much higher – around 70 percent of those with jobs are in child labour (Figure 14). The share of jobs that are hazardous is even higher among female children (73 percent). The high incidence of hazardous work among employed children aged 14–17 years is one indication of the size of the "decent work deficit" facing this group.[38]

Figure 13. Children in child labour constitute the majority of employed children in the 14-17 age group in Tanzania



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

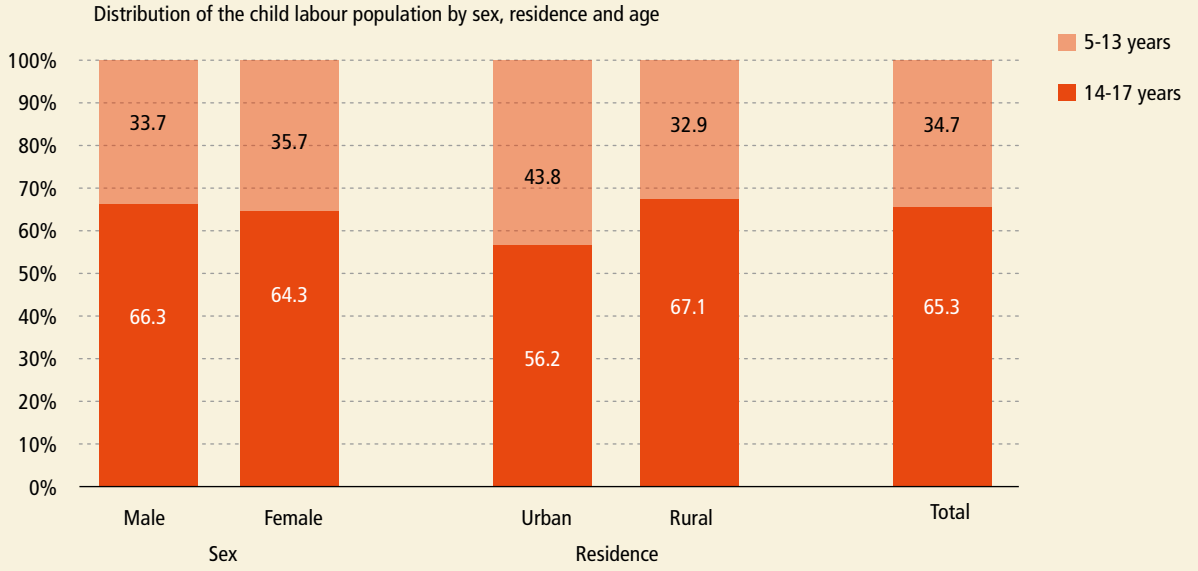
36 A simple economic model of household behaviour is used to guide the empirical specification. For detailed information on the model, see Cigno, A. and Rosati, F.C. 2005. "The economics of child labour" (New York, NY, Oxford University Press).

37 IPEC, *Global child labour trends 2008 to 2012*, International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013.

38 The concept of decent work is addressed in more detail in Chapter 7.

Children in child labour in the 14–17 age group account for more than one-third of total children in child labour of all ages in Tanzania (Figure 15). This statistic, more than any other, illustrates how the broad policy goals of eliminating child labour and improving youth employment outcomes intersect for the 14–17 age group. The fact that children constitute such a large component of the overall child labour population means that it will not be possible to achieve the elimination of child labour without addressing the employment outcomes of this group.

Figure 14. Children in child labour aged 14–17 years account for more than one-third of total children in child labour of all ages in Tanzania



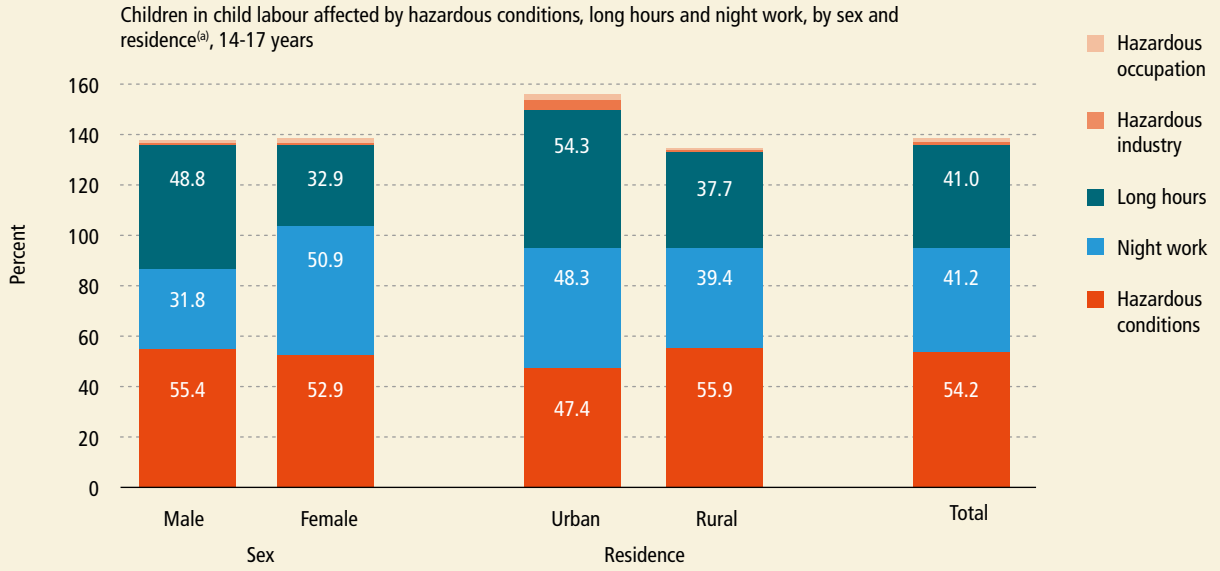
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

5.2 Characteristics of child labour

Most children in child labour are working in hazardous conditions, for long hours or in night work (Figure 16).[39] Hazardous conditions are experienced by 54 percent of all those in child labour, while long hours and night work by 41 percent each. This combination of long hours and hazardous conditions is a particular concern because the greater the length of time a child is exposed to hazardous conditions, the more likely he or she is to be harmed by them. There are noteworthy differences by sex and residence in the type of hazards faced by children in child labour. Long hours and night work are more common for children in child labour in urban areas than in rural ones, while hazardous conditions are more common in rural areas. Female children in child labour are much more likely to be in night work than their male counterparts (51 percent vs. 32 percent) and less likely to be working long hours (33 percent vs. 49 percent).

39 Recall that in Chapter 3 a number of criteria were considered in estimating hazardous work – hazardous conditions, hazardous occupations or industries, night work and long hours. Children are considered to be in hazardous work if they are found to be in any one of the following categories: children working in designated hazardous industries (mining, quarrying and construction); children working in designated hazardous occupations (they refer to the list of hazardous work established by the national legislation); children working long hours (40 hours or more per week); children working under other hazardous conditions such as night work, carrying heavy loads, using hazardous tools and being in an unhealthy work environment.

Figure 15. Hazardous conditions are the most important criteria for child labour in the 14–17 age group

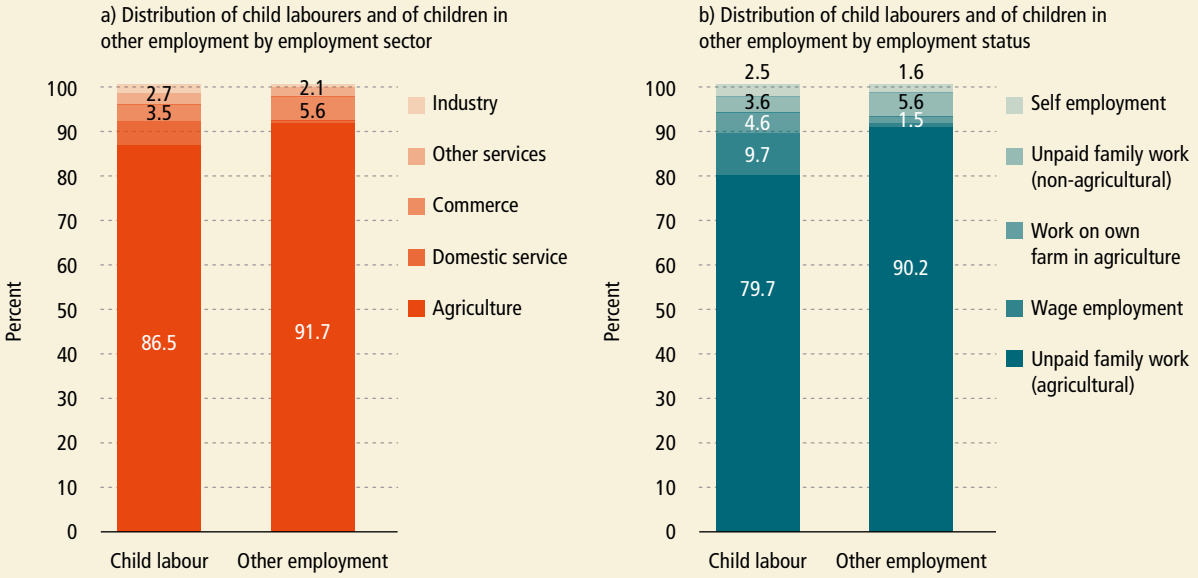


Note: *(a) Percentages for each sub-group add up to more than 100 because some children in child labour meet more than one of the child labour criteria.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

About 87 percent of children in child labour are found in the agricultural sector (Figure 17a). A distant second in importance is domestic service, accounting for 6 percent of children in child labour, followed by commerce (4 percent). This sectoral composition differs slightly from that of employment *not* constituting child labour for the 14–17 age group. As also reported in Figure 17a, children not in child labour are more likely to be found in agriculture and less likely to be found in services. Figure 17b reports the distribution of children in child labour and other employed children by status in employment. Important differences are again evident: those in child labour are more likely to be in wage work and less likely to be in family agriculture compared to their peers not in child labour, although family agriculture accounts for the overwhelming majority of both groups.

Figure 16. Children in child labour are concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit

Distribution of children in child labour by sector and status of employment, 14–17 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

CHAPTER 6

Children's employment, child labour and education

The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour, on the one hand, and youth employment outcomes, on the other. Clearly, if the exigencies of work mean that children are denied schooling altogether or are less able to perform in the classroom, then these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for decent work upon entering adulthood. This section looks at evidence of the impact of children's work on their education. Links between child labour, human capital levels and youth employment outcomes in Tanzania are explored in more detail in Chapter 7.

One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by disaggregating the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children in employment only, children attending school only, children combining school and employment, and children doing neither.

Table 5. Children's activity status by sex and residence, 5–13 years

Characteristics		Activity						
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school	(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out-of-school
Percentage								
Sex	Boys	7.9	54.8	19.8	17.5	27.6	74.6	25.4
	Girls	6.6	56.4	19.7	17.4	26.3	76.1	23.9
Residence	Urban	2.3	80	9.9	7.8	12.2	89.9	10.1
	Rural	9.4	44.8	24.1	21.7	33.5	68.9	31.1
Total		**7.2**	**55.6**	**19.7**	**17.4**	**27.0**	**75.3**	**24.7**
Number (in thousand)								
Sex	Boys	448	3,114	1,122	996	1,570	4,236	1,444
	Girls	353	3,033	1,061	934	1,414	4,094	1,287
Residence	Urban	77	2,716	337	266	414	3,053	344
	Rural	723	3,431	1,846	1,663	2,569	5,276	2,387
Total		**801**	**6,147**	**2,183**	**1,930**	**2,984**	**8,330**	**2,730**

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

This breakdown for children aged 5 to 13 shows that 56 percent attend school only, while 20 percent combine employment and school; 7 percent of children aged 5 to 13 are exclusively in employment, while the remaining 17 percent are neither studying nor working (although likely to be engaged in other productive activities)[40] (Table 5). These overall estimates, however, mask very different patterns by place of residence. One-quarter of rural students also work, while the share of urban students who also work is only one-tenth. Rural children, in other words, face a double disadvantage in terms of schooling: a much smaller proportion attends school (69 percent vs 90 percent), and those that do attend school are more likely to have to shoulder the burden of work at the same time.

The interaction between work and school differs considerably for children in the 14–17 age group: compared to younger children, a much smaller percentage (32 percent) of 14-17 year olds study only and a much higher percentage (37 percent) is in employment exclusively; 21 percent combine both activities and 10 percent neither study nor work (Table 6).

These differences between the 5–13 age group and the 14–17 age group are not surprising as the latter corresponds with the end of compulsory schooling and the beginning for many of the transition from school to working life. The difference in activity status between rural and urban children is also noteworthy for the 14–17 age group. Again, rural children are less likely to be in school and, among those that are in school, more likely to have to work at the same time.

Table 6. Children's activity status by sex and residence, 14–17 years

Characteristics		Activity						
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school	(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out-of-school
Percentage								
Sex	Boys	39	32.5	19.3	9.3	58.3	51.7	48.3
	Girls	34.7	31.4	22.5	11.4	57.2	53.9	46.1
Residence	Urban	21.4	54	11	13.6	32.4	65	35
	Rural	45.5	19.9	26.2	8.4	71.7	46.1	53.9
Total		**37**	**32**	**20.8**	**10.3**	**57.8**	**52.8**	**47.2**
Number (in thousand)								
Sex	Boys	731	608	361	173	1092	970	905
	Girls	602	545	389	197	991	934	798
Residence	Urban	273	690	141	174	414	831	448
	Rural	1059	463	610	196	1669	1072	1255
Total		**1333**	**1153**	**751**	**370**	**2083**	**1904**	**1703**

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Children in child labour are disadvantaged in terms of being able to attend school. The school attendance gap between children in child labour and other children widens with age and is particularly marked at the end of the 5–17 age group: at the age of 10 the school attendance of children in child labour is 14 percentage points less than that of other children, while at the age of 17 their attendance is 39 percentage points lower (Figure 2). These figures underscore the importance of child labour as a constraint to raising school enrolment in the country. Data is not available in Tanzania on

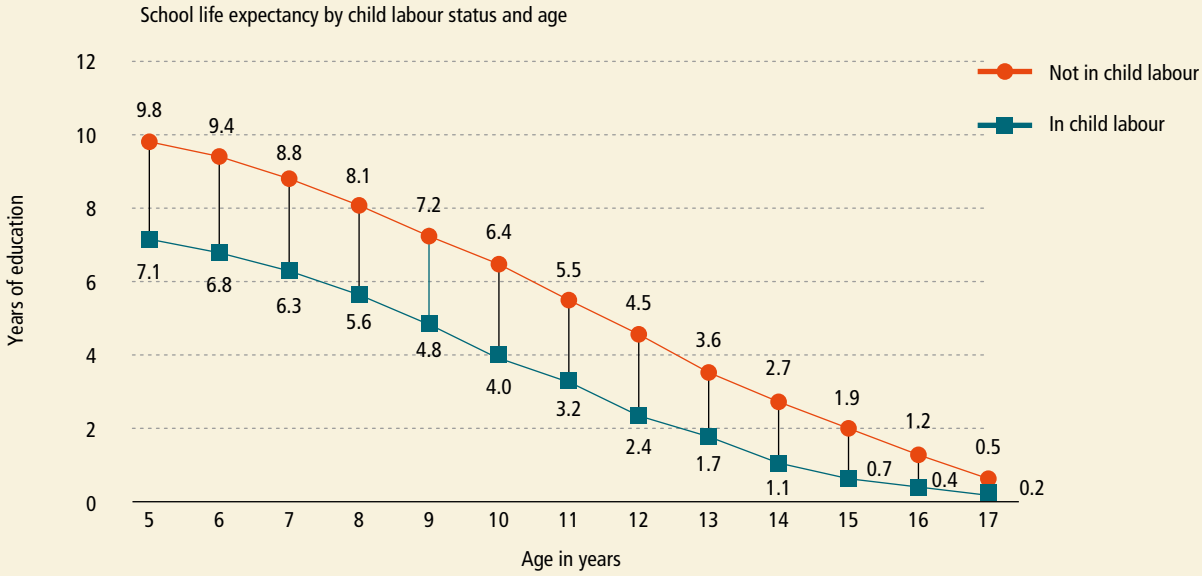
40 There is also a possibility that some of these children are in hidden or otherwise unreported forms of employment.

the regularity of school attendance, i.e. the frequency with which children are absent from or late for class, but attendance regularity is also likely to be adversely affected by involvement in employment.

School life expectancy (SLE), a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can be expected to complete,[41] also serves to illustrate the substantially reduced educational prospects associated with child labour. Tanzanian children in child labour have significantly lower school life expectancy (SLE), meaning that they can expect to remain in school for less time than their non-working peers.

As reported in Figure 18, the difference in school life expectancy is almost three years at age five and more than one year at age 13. Differences in school life expectancy diminish after this age, but nonetheless continue to favour children not in child labour. These results point to the different paths taken by working children attending school compared to their non-working peers. The former are more likely to drop out prematurely and transition into full-time work at an earlier age.

Figure 17. Child labour is associated with lower school life expectancy at every age



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

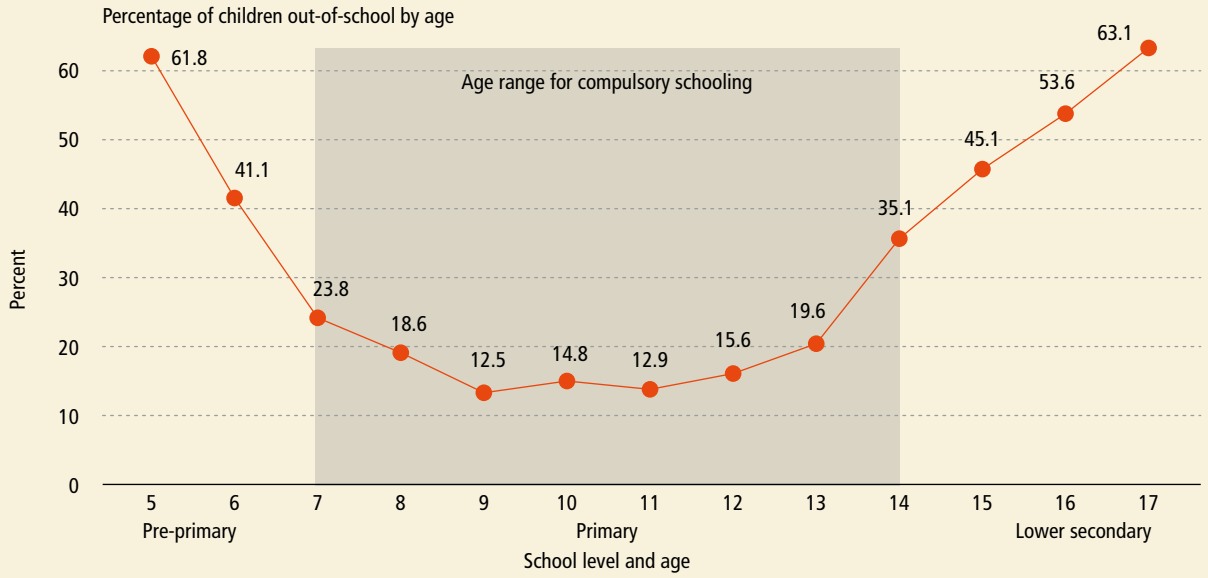
There remains a significant share of Tanzanian children who are not in school at all compulsory schooling ages. In all, about 8 percent of children in the compulsory schooling age group of 7–13, 1,450,000 children in absolute terms, are out of school. The share of out-of-school children falls from 24 percent at age 7 to a low of 13 percent in the age group 9 to 11 and then rises rapidly from age 12 onwards (Figure 19).

41 Relatively higher school life expectancy indicates greater probability of spending more years in education, although expected number of years does not necessarily coincide with the expected number of grades of education completed, because of grade repetition. SLE at an age a in year t is calculated as follows:

$$SLE_a^t = \sum_{i=a}^{i=n} \frac{A_i^t}{P_i^t}$$

where: A_a^t – attendance of the population of age i $(i=a, a+1,\ldots,n)$ in school year t; n – the theoretical upper age limit of schooling; P_i^t – population of age i in school-year t.

Figure 18. In Tanzania, a significant share of children are not in school, particularly at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum



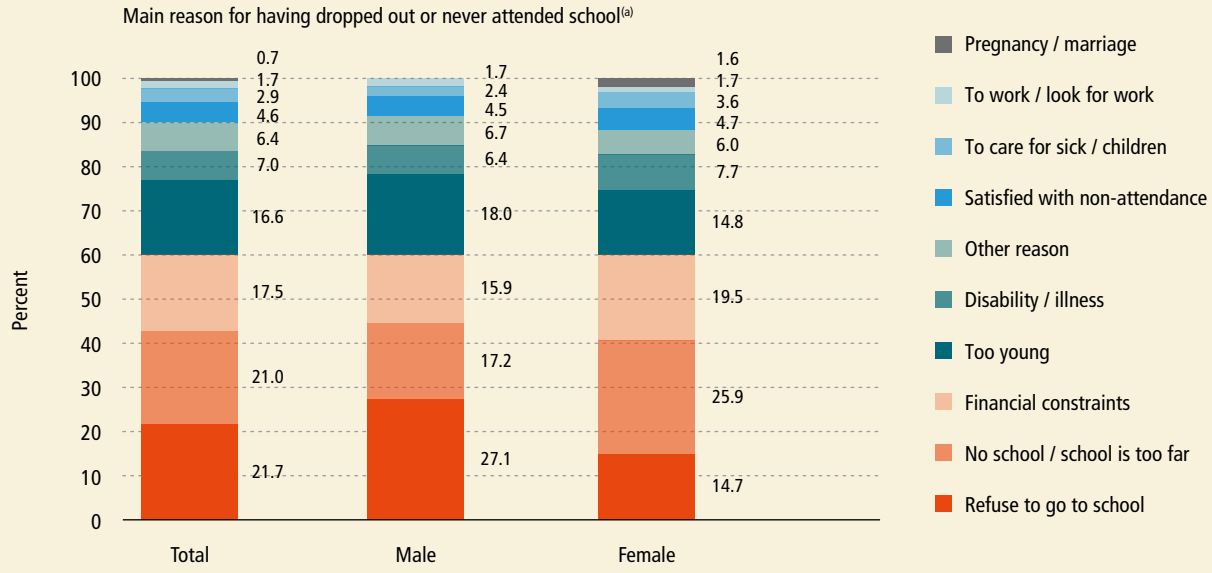
Notes: *Compulsory schooling in Tanzania begins at age seven and is seven years in duration. The school system is comprised of a two-year pre-primary cycle (non-compulsory), a seven-year compulsory primary cycle, a four-year secondary cycle (non-compulsory) and a two-year upper secondary cycle.*
Source: *UNESCO Institute of Statistics and calculations based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

This pattern suggests that late entry is a key driver of school non-attendance in the first years of the primary cycle,[42] while dropout gains in importance in the later years.

What factors leave children outside the school system? Feedback from children themselves points to the importance of both supply- and demand-side factors (Figure 20). Almost 40 percent of children who have never attended or dropped out of school cite that school is either too far away (21 percent) or too expensive (17 percent). An additional 26 percent either refuse to go to school (22 percent) or are "satisfied" not attending school, suggesting that lack of interest in studying is also an important motive for having never attended school or having abandoned it, a response likely driven in important part by perceptions of school quality and relevance. On the demand-side of the schooling equation, only 2 percent are not attending school in order to work or look for work, 3 percent because of the need to care for sick and children, and 17 percent indicate being too young to attend school, suggesting a lack of awareness of the starting age for compulsory schooling.[43]

42 The declining percentage of children out of school in the first years of the primary cycle indicates that more children are entering the system late than are dropping out prematurely.
43 Compulsory schooling in Tanzania begins at the age of seven and is seven years in duration.

Figure 19. Push and pull factors are both important in explaining out of school children



Notes: *(a) Respondents were aged 7–17 years.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

The reasons for having never attended school or having dropped out of school appear to be influenced by gender. As reported in Figure 20, girls' school attendance is relatively more likely to be constrained by school distance, financial constraints and by the need to care for the sick and children. For boys, lack of interest plays a relatively larger role in explaining school non-attendance.

Table 7. Out-of-school children with less than 2 and 4 years of education, 10–17 years

	Extreme education poverty (out-of-school children with <2 years of completed education)		Education poverty (out-of-school children with <4 years of completed education)		
Age	No.	% of total of out-of-school children	No.	% of total of out-of-school children	Total out-of-school children
10	137,903	72.9	185,593	98.2	189,039
11	111,785	74.8	133,189	89.2	149,360
12	105,157	55.8	134,502	71.4	188,420
13	73,423	33.8	111,371	51.2	217,376
14	86,539	21.6	114,579	28.6	400,308
15	57,523	13.8	97,398	23.3	418,327
16	74,838	15.6	104,494	21.8	479,480
17	39,045	9.7	51,830	12.8	404,544
Total	**686,212**	**28.1**	**932,954**	**38.1**	**2,446,854**

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Reaching out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important in ensuring that they do not graduate into adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life. Table 7, which looks in detail at the second chance learning needs of out-of-school children, suggests that these needs are significant. Limiting our focus to out-of-school children aged 10 to 17,[44] some 933,000, or 38 percent of the total out-of-school children in this age group, suffer what UNESCO calls "education poverty", i.e. possessing less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Of this group, 686,200, or 28 percent of total out-of-school children aged 10 to 17, suffer "extreme education poverty", i.e. they possess less than two years of schooling. Furthermore, it is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates second chance learning needs as basic literacy skills alone are less and less adequate as a "skills floor" for successful entry into the Tanzanian labour market.

44 A minimum age of 10, rather than 7, is used in light of the fact that many out-of-school children aged 7-9 are late-entrants, i.e. not currently in school but likely to enter school in the future.

CHAPTER 7

Young people aged 15–35 years

This chapter focuses on the labour market situation of Tanzanian young people. In accordance with a country-specific definition frequently used by stakeholders and policymakers,[45] young people are those aged 15 to 35 years. Using data from the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey undertaken in 2014 (ILFS 2014), the chapter first provides an overview of the activity status of Tanzanian young people and then looks in more detail at job access and job quality and at how human capital levels influence both. The definitions of the key labour market indicators used in this chapter are presented in Box 4.

Box 4. Youth employment definitions

Labour force participation: A person is considered in the labour force if they were in employment or unemployment (see below) during the week prior to the survey. The labour force, therefore, is the sum persons employed and persons unemployed. The labour force participation rate is defined as the labour force expressed as a percentage of the working age population.

Employment: A person is considered employed if they worked during the week prior to the survey for at least one hour for pay (or without pay), for profit, for in-kind payment or for a family business. A person is also considered to be in employment if they were not working but had a job to go back to. In accordance with the national definition of employment,[46] all persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are excluded from the definition of employment (self-employed in agriculture, temporarily absent from their work or underemployed during the reference period due to economic reasons such as no suitable land for cultivation, off-season and lack of capital or those who stated that their work was not reliable).

Unemployment: A person is considered unemployed if they were not working during the week prior to the survey but were available for work, even if they did not take active steps to find work (i.e. "relaxed" definition of unemployment). In accordance with the national definition of unemployment,[47] it includes people who are marginally attached to self-employment activities (self-employed in agriculture, temporarily absent from their work or underemployed during the reference period due to economic reasons such as no suitable land for cultivation, off-season and lack of capital or those who stated that their work was not reliable).

Underemployment: A person is considered underemployed if they are working less than 40 hours, but are available to work more hours. The underemployment rate is the underemployed expressed as a percentage of the total employed population.

Inactivity: A person is considered inactive if they are not in the labour force. The inactivity rate and labour force participation rate sum to 100.

NEET: A person is categorized as NEET if they are not in education, employment or training. NEET is therefore a measure that reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed.

45 National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2014, "Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey 2014", Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
46 Ibid.
47 Ibid.

7.1 Youth labour force status: The overall picture

Tanzanian young persons are primarily workers. For the overall 15–35 age group, 85 percent are in the labour force while only 13 percent are continuing with their education (Table 8) (and less that 5 percent are in both simultaneously) (See Annex: Table A7); 7 percent of youth are absent from both education and the labour force and 17 percent fall in the NEET category, i.e. they are not in education, employment or training. These broad labour force statistics mask large variations by residence, sex and migration status, as reported in Table 8 and discussed in more detail in the remaining sections of this chapter.

Table 8. Aggregate labour market indicators by residence, sex, migration status and age, 15-35 years

Population category		% of population					% of active pop.
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET(a)	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate(b)
Total		**84.5**	**13.4**	**7.1**	**16.6**	**74.6**	**11.7**
Residence	Urban	77.8	16.8	8.4	21.6	64.3	17.4
	Rural	89.3	10.9	6.1	13	81.9	8.2
Sex	Male	86.3	14.9	4.2	11.5	78.6	8.9
	Female	82.8	12.0	9.7	21.4	70.9	14.5
Migration status	Migrant	82.5	10.3	9.2	20.9	70.6	14.5
	Non-migrant	84.8	13.8	6.8	16	75.1	11.4
Region	Dodoma	84.4	9.1	9.3	13	80.6	4.5
	Arusha	74.7	20.4	10.3	17.3	67.4	9.8
	Kilimanjaro	81.2	22.6	5.6	15.7	70.5	13.1
	Tanga	81.7	11.6	11.5	15.5	76.9	5.8
	Morogoro	85.7	12.6	4.7	13.5	76.9	10.3
	Pwani	88.6	7.5	8.1	12.2	84.4	4.6
	Dar es Salaam	71	17.3	12.5	32.7	50.6	28.8
	Lindi	89.7	8.3	2.3	6.5	85.4	4.7
	Mtwara	92.1	8.6	4.7	13.7	82.8	10.1
	Ruvuma	93	5.8	4.5	17.6	79.9	14.1
	Iringa	86.9	14.6	5.3	8.5	83.7	3.8
	Mbeya	85.0	14.8	3.6	17.9	70.2	17.4
	Singida	87.9	12.6	1	6.2	82.6	6
	Tabora	91.5	10.3	4.9	12.5	83.5	8.7
	Rukwa	91.6	5.1	3.5	11.4	83.7	8.6
	Kigoma	91.2	13.4	3.7	7.4	87.5	4.1
	Shinyanga	82.7	11.7	13.0	24.3	71.4	13.7
	Kagera	93.5	6.0	2.2	6.3	89.1	4.7
	Mwanza	84.8	18.8	4.2	17.3	71.2	16.1
	Mara	82.3	20.9	10.7	13.7	79.3	3.7
	Manyara	93.6	15.9	3.5	13.2	83.2	11.1
	Njombe	88.0	11.7	3.8	5.8	83.8	4.7

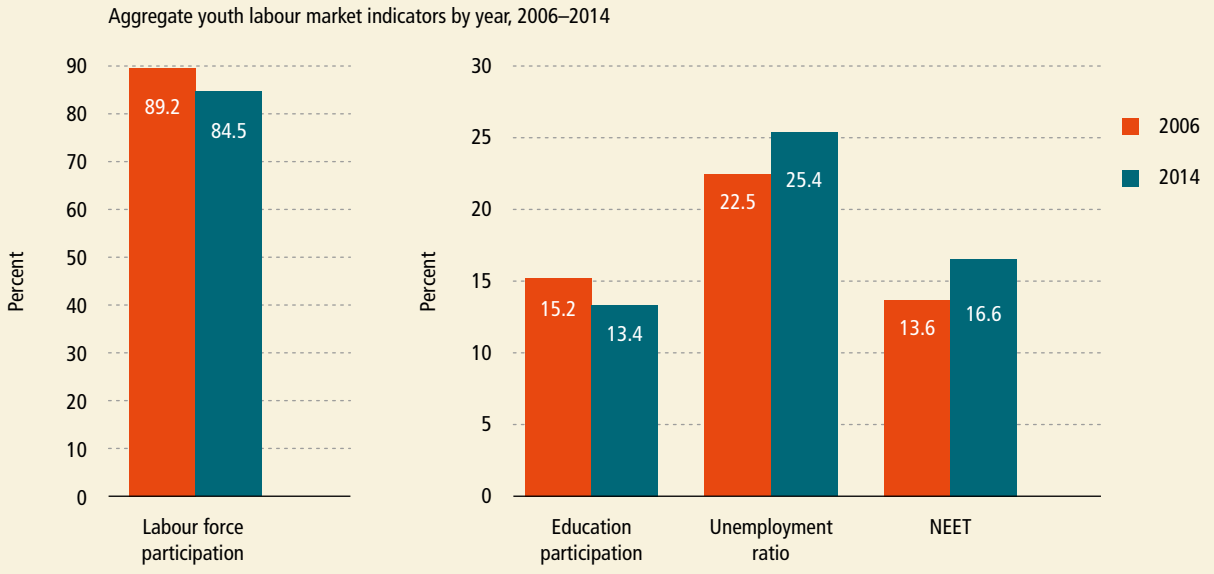
Table 8. (cont.)

Population category		% of population					% of active pop.
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET(a)	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate(b)
Region	Katavi	76.4	2.6	21.0	28.9	68.5	10.3
	Simiyu	88	7.9	10.0	26.5	70.0	20.5
	Geita	90.0	16.1	3.2	12.4	79.3	11.9

Notes: *a) NEET refers to youth who are not in education, employment or training. It is a measure that therefore reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed. b) The relaxed definition of unemployment is used: an individual is defined as unemployed if they do not have a job, and are currently available for work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment, persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are included in unemployment (See Box 2).*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

The definition of youth in Tanzania, however, covers a wide age spectrum (15 to 35 years) and labour force statistics for Tanzanian youth should be interpreted with this mind. The youth labour force picture changes considerably if focus is restricted to the narrower 15–24 age group used in most international statistics on youth employment. As also reported in Table 8, labour force participation is much lower for this group (77 percent vs. 93 percent). All youth appear to have transitioned from education to the labour force by the age of 25, as only 1 percent of young people aged 25–35 years are still in education vs. 24 percent of the group aged 15-24 years. The rate of unemployment (14 percent) is also higher among youth in the 15–24 age group.

Figure 20. The youth employment situation appears to have deteriorated slightly over the last eight years



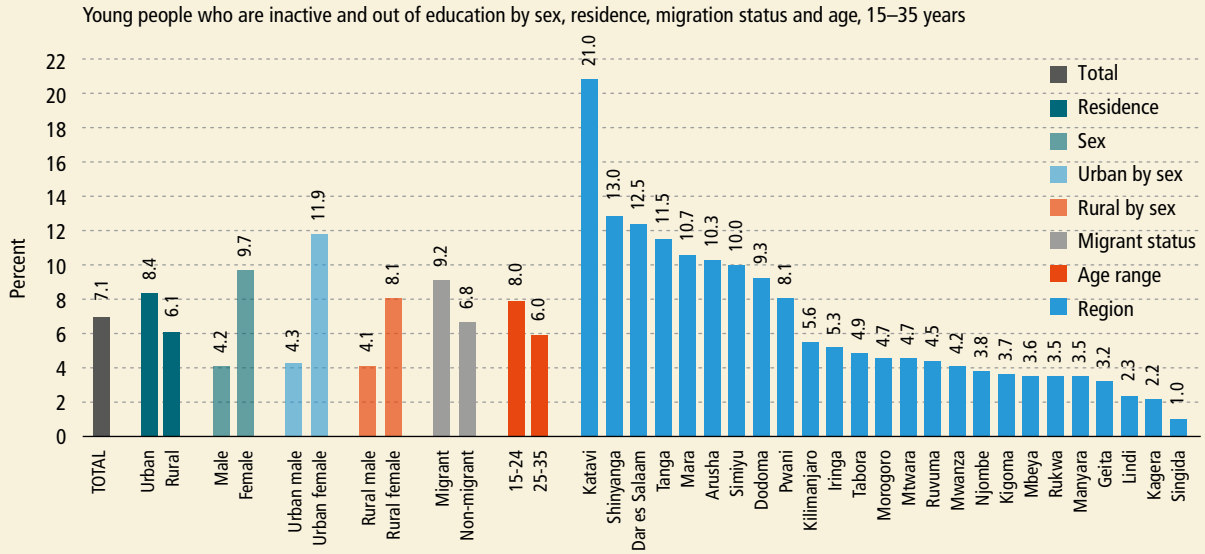
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2000-01, 2006, 2014.*

Comparable labour force statistics for the 2006 round of the Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey provide some insight into how the youth employment situation has changed over the last eight years. This period saw a decline in both labour force and education participation and a rise in the share of youth who were unemployed, together translating into a rise in the share of youth in the NEET category. These changes, while not large, nonetheless make clear that there has not been recent progress in improving the situation of youth in the labour force. A larger share of youth were out of work and out of education at the end of the eight-year period than at the beginning of it.

7.2 Youth access to jobs

This section focuses on current youth labour market challenges as reflected by lack of access to jobs. Two main groups of young people are considered in this context: youth not in education and not in the labour force, and unemployed youth. Young people who are neither attaining marketable skills in school nor in the labour force, and particularly male youth in this group, frequently find themselves at the margins of society and more vulnerable to risky and violent behaviour. Other risks borne by unemployed youth are also well-documented: unemployment can permanently impair their productive potential and therefore influence lifetime patterns of employment, pay and job tenure.

Figure 21. Female youth are most likely to be inactive and out of education



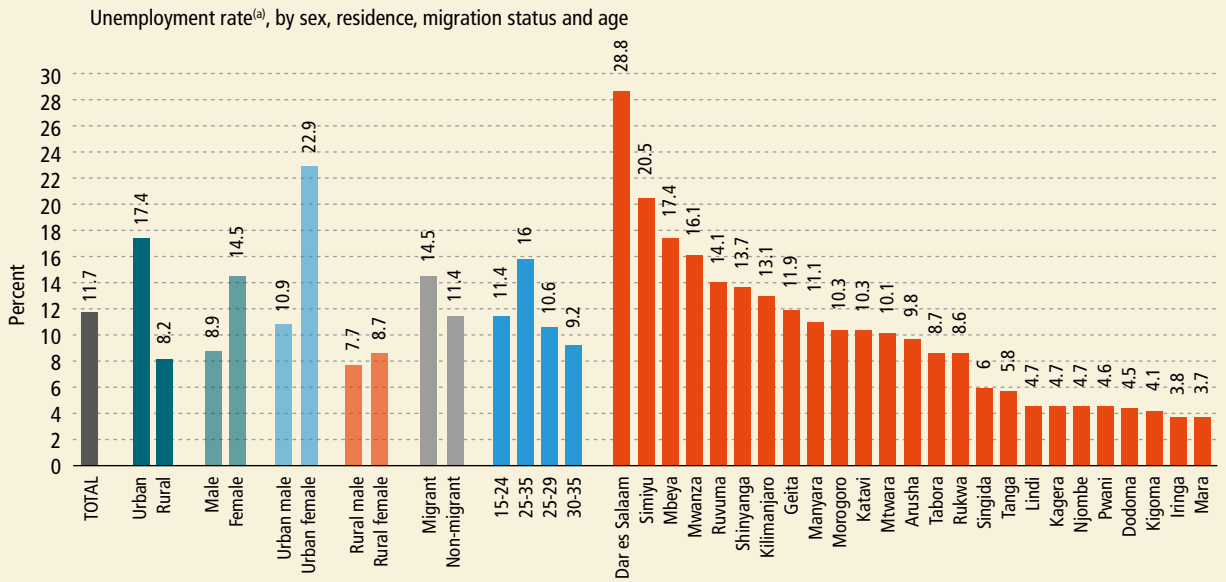
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Around 7 percent of all youth are neither in education nor in the labour force (Figure 22). This figure is driven primarily by female youth, who are more than twice as likely to be inactive and out of school than male youth (10 percent vs. 4 percent). The gender gap is in turn the result of both a lower level of labour force participation (83 percent vs. 86 percent) and lower education participation (12 percent vs 15 percent) among female youth. Urban youth, migrant youth and youth in the standard 15–24 age group also have higher shares of being inactive and out of education than the national average.

Geographically, the Katavi region stands out as having by far the highest share of youth who are inactive and out of school, 21 percent, or three times the national average.

Of young people in the labour force, 12 percent are unable to secure jobs (Figure 23). The youth unemployment rate is four percentage points higher than that of Tanzanian adults (Box 7), pointing to the existence of particular barriers to youth employment in the country. Again, however, aggregate estimates mask substantial variation among difference categories of young persons. Unemployment is higher for females (15 percent) than for males (9 percent) and is much more common in urban areas (17 percent) than in rural ones (8 percent), despite the lower levels of labour force participation in the former. Securing jobs appears to be particularly difficult for urban females in the labour force, of whom almost one in four (23 percent) are unemployed. The unemployment rate is also higher than the national average among migrant young persons (15 percent), and is dramatically higher among youth from the Dar es Salaam region (29 percent). In terms of age, unemployment peaks in the 20–24 years age group at 16 percent, declining thereafter to 9 percent for the 30–35 years age group.

Figure 22. A substantial share of youth wanting to work are unable to secure jobs

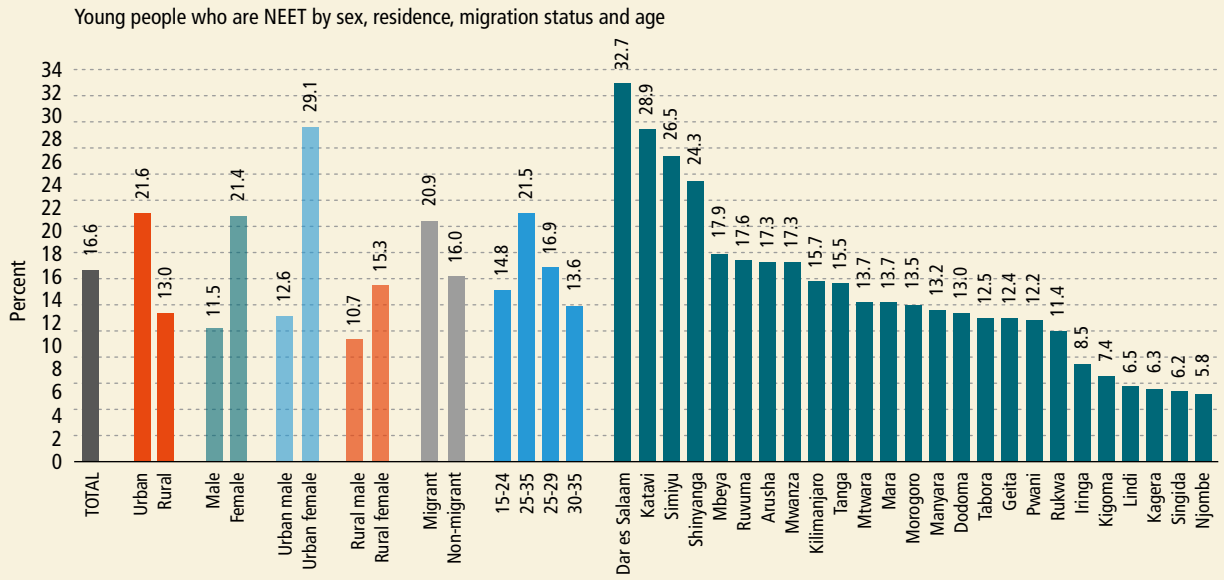


Notes: *The report uses a relaxed definition of unemployment which includes all those persons who were not working during the week prior to the survey but were available for work, even if they did not take active steps to find work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment, it includes persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

About 41 percent of unemployed youth are long-term unemployed, i.e. have been seeking work for at least one year. Of this group, about half are seeking work for the first time, suggesting a difficult transition from education to working life. This information on the dynamics of unemployment is important in interpreting unemployment rates. High outflows and short spell durations may merely reflect the active search by youth for their "preferred" work, and therefore may be less a cause for concern. Prolonged (and/or repeated) spells of unemployment, on the other hand, are much more likely to be associated with the impairment of productive potential and reduced prospects for decent work over the course of a person's working life.

Of Tanzanian young people, 17 percent fall into the NEET category. The group of NEET youth consists of both youths who are unemployed and youth who are inactive and out of education, and therefore NEET is a more comprehensive measure for assessing youth labour market difficulties. Patterns by sex, age, residence and migration status are similar to those for unemployment. The incidence of youth in the NEET category is much higher for urban youth (22 percent), for female youth (21 percent), especially in urban areas (29 percent), and for youth in the 20–24 age group (22 percent). It is also much higher than the national average in Dar es Salaam (33 percent), Katavi (29 percent), Simiyu (27 percent) and Shinyanga (24 percent) (Figure 24).

Figure 23. Female youth in urban areas are most likely to fall into the NEET category



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

7.3 Youth job characteristics

Obtaining a job is of course an insufficient condition for successful labour market outcomes. This is because in countries such as Tanzania where poverty is widespread, many young people simply cannot afford to remain without work altogether and must accept jobs regardless of the conditions and pay associated with them. The concern for policy makers is not limited to whether young people are working but also extends to whether the jobs constitute decent work and offer a path for advancement and route out of poverty. Securing *decent work*, in other words, rather than work *per se*, is the desired goal of the transition to working life, and therefore assessment is needed of youth jobs against basic decent work criteria for a more complete picture of labour market success.

Effectively measuring decent work is critical to assessing the employment outcomes of young persons. Yet, the multifaceted nature of the decent work concept – it combines access to full and productive employment with rights at work, social protection and the promotion of social dialogue (see Box 5) – means that measurement is a complex task. This is especially the case for the current report, because the data utilized only contains limited information on current job characteristics. This section reports

Box 5. ILO and Decent Work

Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that are productive and deliver a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

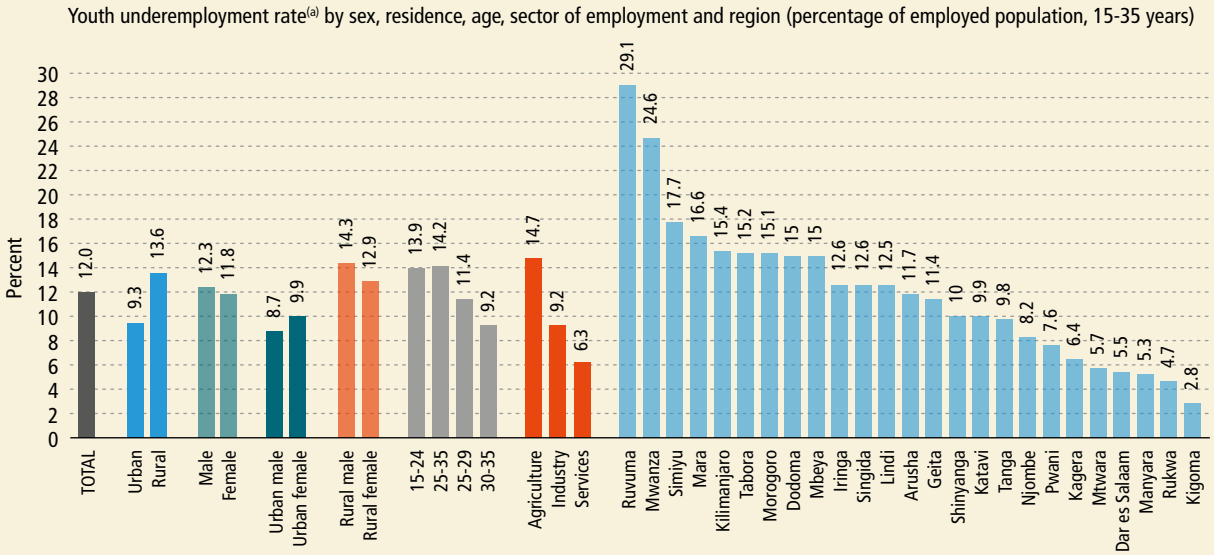
The Decent Work concept was formulated by ILO's constituents – governments, employers and workers – as a means to identify the organization's major priorities. It is based on the understanding that work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people, and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development.

Source: *ILO. See www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm.*

the few available indicators of job characteristics in order to provide a partial picture of the extent to which youth jobs constitute decent work.

A first important indicator in this regard is underemployment, i.e. situations in which people are working fewer hours than they would like to be working.[48] Youth underemployment, sometimes referred to as "hidden unemployment", affects 12 percent of all Tanzanian youth with jobs (Figure 25). It is interesting to note that underemployment is higher in rural areas (14 percent) compared to urban ones (9 percent), the opposite of the pattern seen for unemployment and NEET. Rural youth, it follows, have an easier time securing work, but this work is more likely to be only part-time in nature.

Figure 24. Underemployment is also an issue for employed youth, especially in rural areas and in some regions



Note: *(a) The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment. A person is considered in a situation of underemployment if they work less than 40 hours a week and are available to work for more hours.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

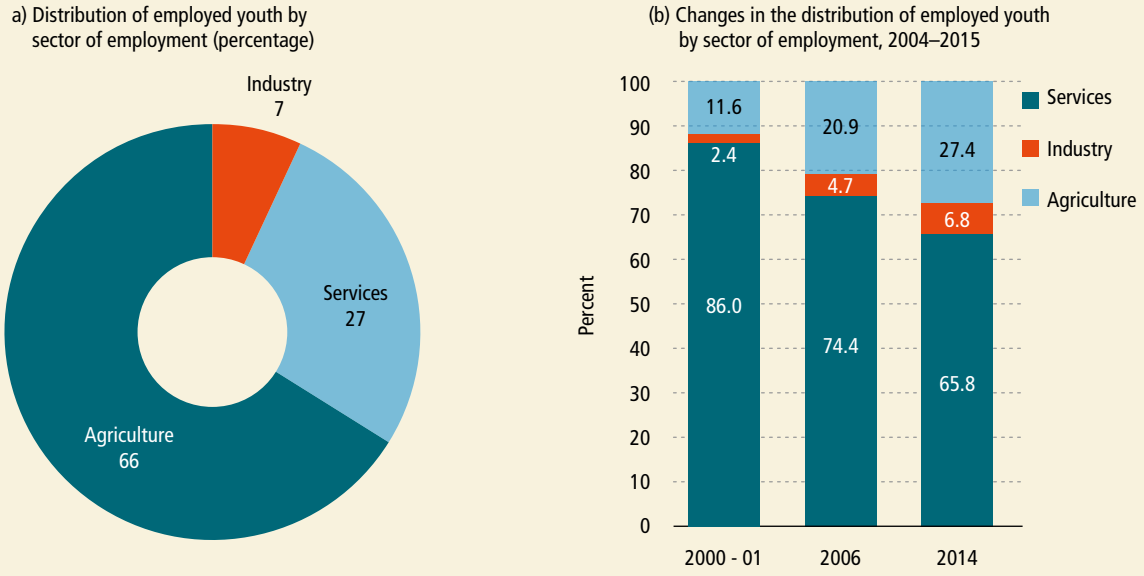
48 The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment. A person is considered in a situation of underemployment if they work less than 40 hours a week and are available to work for more hours.

The youth underemployment rate in the agriculture sector, where much of rural youth employment is concentrated, stands at 15 percent. In regional terms, underemployment is most common for employed youth residing in the Ruvuma (29 percent) and the Mwanza region (25 percent) (Figure 25), again the opposite of the pattern seen for unemployment.

Box 6. Where are youth jobs concentrated in the labour market?

The agriculture sector is by far the most important employer of young persons in Tanzania. Agriculture accounts for two-thirds of employed youth, while about 27 percent of the employed youth population are in the service sector and the remaining 7 percent are in industry (including manufacturing and construction) (Figure A below). Changes in the sectoral composition of youth employment over time, reported in Figure A, suggest that the service sector is gaining in importance relative to the agriculture sector as a source of youth jobs. The share of employed youth in services more than doubled between 2000 and 2014 while the share of employed youth in agriculture fell by about one-quarter.

Figure A. The agriculture sector is by far the most important employer of young persons in Tanzania



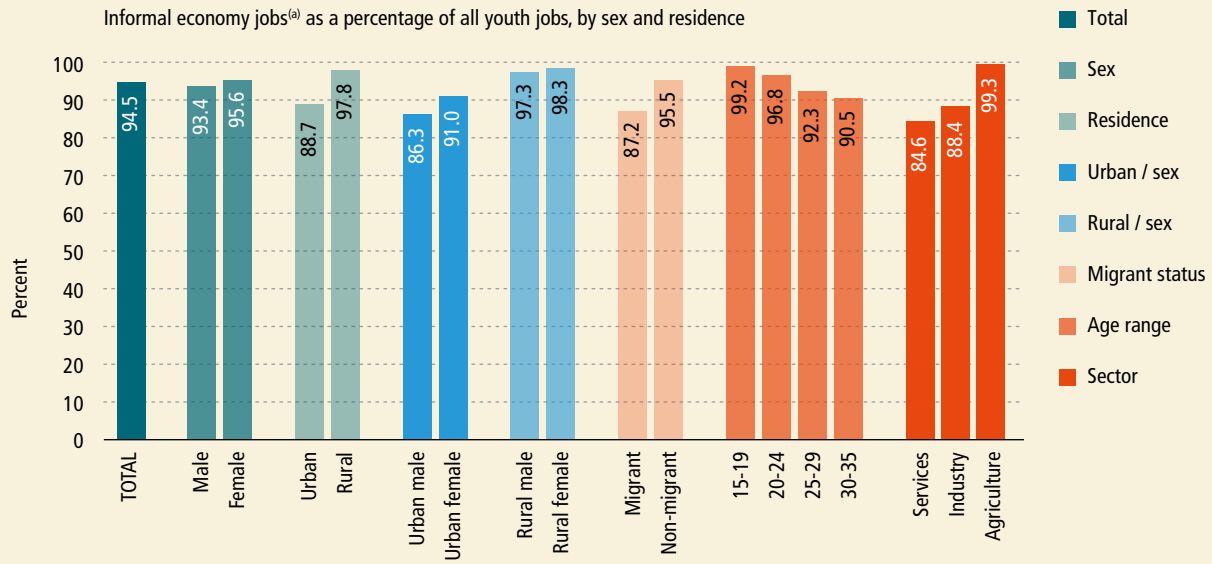
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2000–2001, 2006, 2014.*

Almost all youth jobs (95 percent) are in the informal economy, another important indicator of the size of the decent work deficit faced by young people. Although it is hard to generalize concerning the quality of informal economy arrangements, they often mean insecure tenure, limited or no workplace safety provisions and no basic job benefits.[49] All informal economy jobs are by definition also outside the formal social security system.[50] While work in the informal economy predominates

49 ILO, Informal economy information page. See: www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang--en/index.htm.
50 Informal employment is defined as including paid employees and the self-employed who hold jobs that are not subject to income tax and not subject/entitled to contributions to social security as well as unpaid family helpers.

across all categories of employed youth, it is especially common for rural residents (98 percent) and among those working in the agriculture sector (99 percent). Informal economy jobs are also more common among those in the 15–19 age group (99 percent); prospects for securing work in the *formal* economy improve for each subsequent age group, but less than 1 in 10 workers even in the 30–35 age group have formal economy jobs.

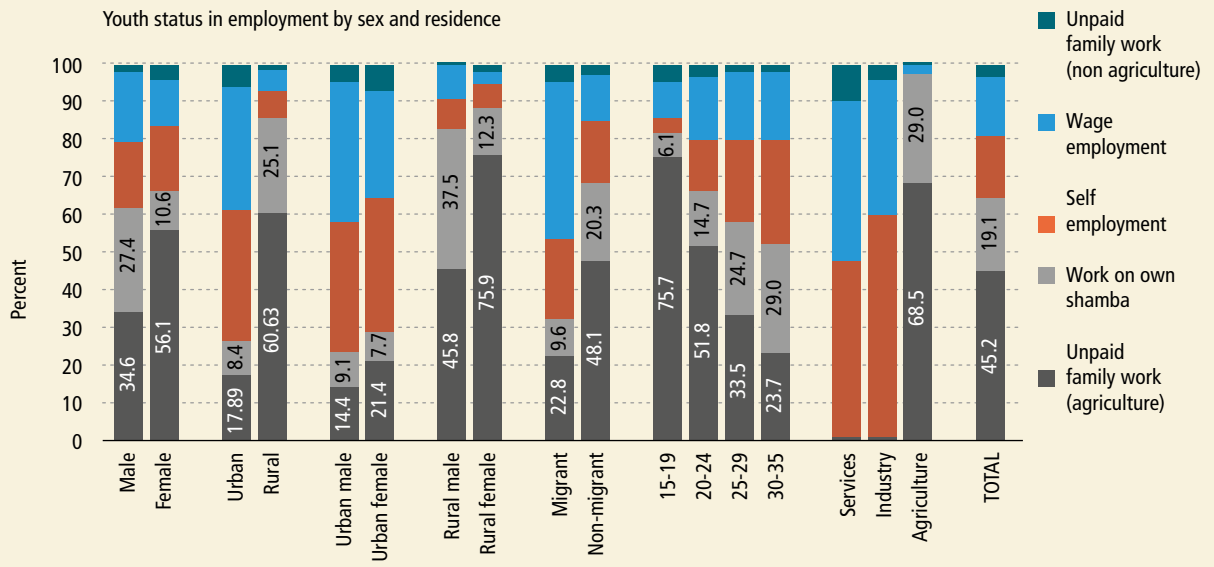
Figure 25. Almost all youth jobs are in the informal economy



Note: *(a) Informal employment includes paid employees and the self-employed who hold jobs that are not subject to income tax and not subject/entitled to contributions to social security and unpaid family helpers.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Most young persons must also settle for non-remunerated jobs. Figure 27, which reports on the status in employment of working youth, indicates that only about one in every six youth jobs (17 percent) is paid employment. Moreover, of these paid jobs, most (four-fifths) are either temporary or involve casual or verbal agreements as opposed to written contracts (see Annex: Figure A12).The largest shares of youth instead work without remuneration on the family farm (45 percent), work on their own agricultural small-holding (i.e. *shamba)* (19 percent) or work in self-employment arrangements off the farm (17 percent). Work on the family farm or *shamba* is most common for rural youth, female youth, non-migrant youth and youth at the lower end of the 15–35 age group.

Figure 26. Employed youth are concentrated in non-remunerated jobs in agriculture

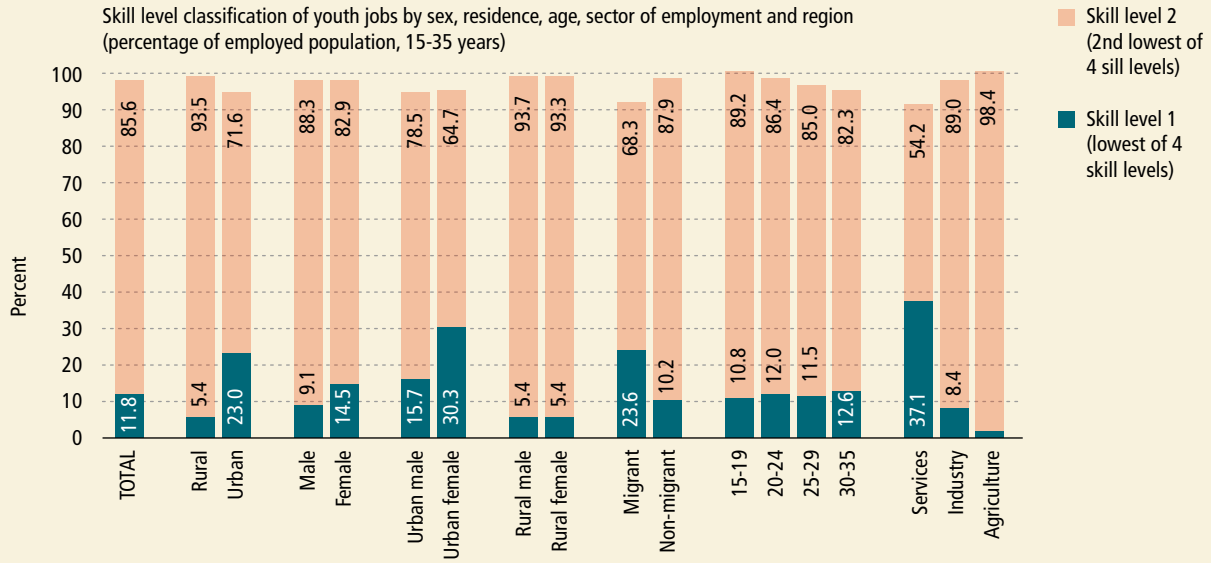


Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Youth jobs are primarily low-skill in nature. Figure 28 reports the decomposition of youth jobs by skills requirements based on the four standardized International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) skills (see Annex: Table A8). It shows that 98 percent of all youth jobs fall into either the lowest skills category (12 percent)[51] or the second-lowest skill category (86 percent).[52] It is interesting to note that *lowest*-skill jobs, i.e. jobs requiring only the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks, are much more common in urban areas and in the services sector. Jobs in the lowest skill category level are also much more common for female youth and migrant youth. Rural farm jobs are instead concentrated in the second skill category, i.e. typically requiring the performance of tasks including operating machinery and vehicles.[53]

51 Skill level 1 requires only the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks.
52 Skill level 2 requires the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment.
53 Other skill level 2 tasks include operating electronic equipment; maintenance and repair of electrical and mechanical equipment; and manipulation, ordering and storage of information.

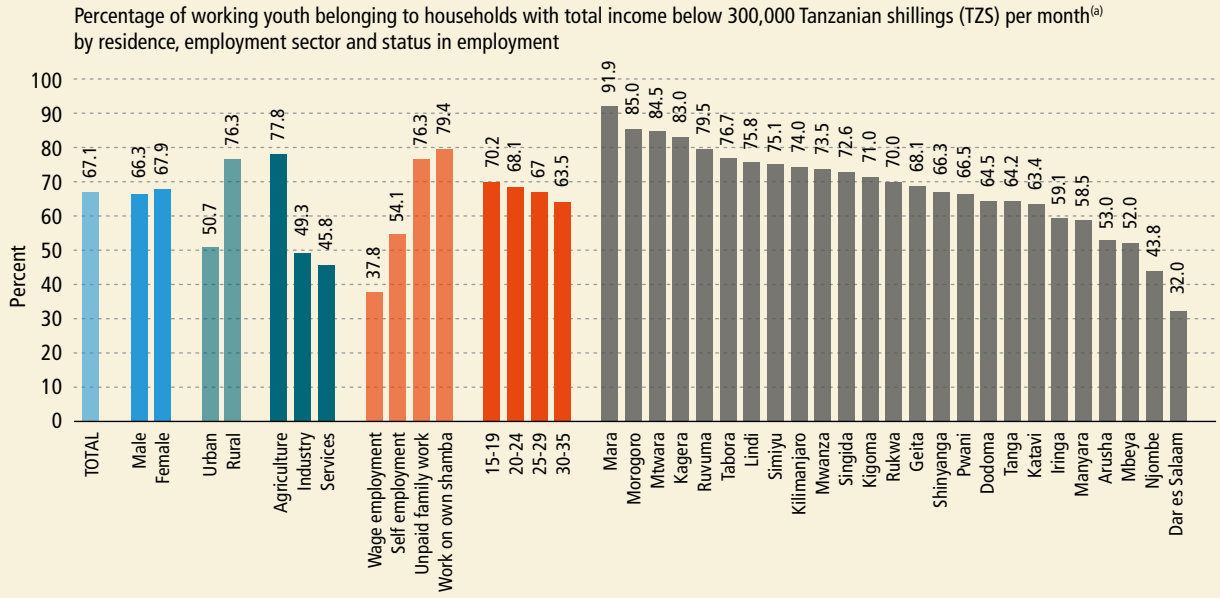
Figure 27. Youth are concentrated in low skill jobs



Notes: *Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are provided in Table A8.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Levels of working poverty are extremely high among Tanzanian youth (Figure 29). Two of every three employed youth belong to households with total income below 300,000 Tanzanian shillings (TZS) per month, corresponding to approximately US$140, despite having a job. These high levels of working poverty are perhaps the most revealing indicator of the low quality of youth jobs – for too many Tanzanian youth, employment does not offer a route out of poverty. Levels of working poor are especially high among young people working in agriculture, either on the family farm or on their own *shamba*. Over three-fourths of youth working in agriculture (78 percent) are poor, compared to 49 percent in industry and 46 percent in services. Employed youth at the lower end of the age group are also more likely to be poor, and prospects in escaping working poverty improve with age. By region, the prevalence of working poor ranges from 92 percent in Mara to 32 percent in Dar es Salaam.

Figure 28. Many youth are poor despite holding jobs



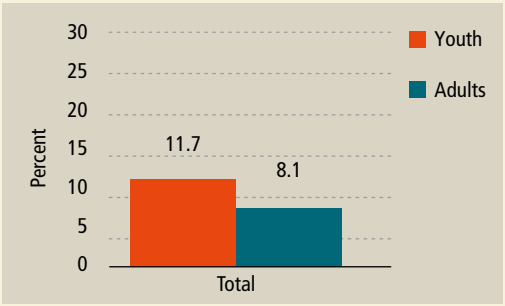
Notes: *(a) Employed youth belonging to household with total income below 300,000 Tanzanian shillings (TZS) per month (approximately US$140).*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Box 7. Relative position of youth in the labour market

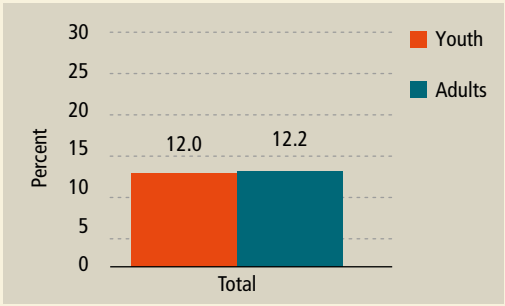
Young workers appear disadvantaged vis-à-vis their adult counterparts in terms of both job access and quality. The youth unemployment rate is about one-third higher than the adult rate Figure A pointing to the existence of particular barriers to youth employment in Tanzania. Differences between youth and adult workers in terms of employment security are also large (Figure Ae). Only 21 percent of youth in paid work enjoy a permanent work arrangement compared with 53 percent of their adult counterparts. Wage levels for young workers are considerably lower than for their adult counterparts. Youth on average earn about one-fifth less than adults (Figure Af). Differences between youth and adult workers, however, are smaller or non-existent in terms of underemployment (Figure Ab), involvement in the informal economy jobs (Figure Ac) and low skill work (Figure Ad), and suggesting that these are broader labour market challenges affecting all workers.

Figure A. Young workers appear disadvantaged vis-à-vis their adult counterparts in terms of both job access and quality

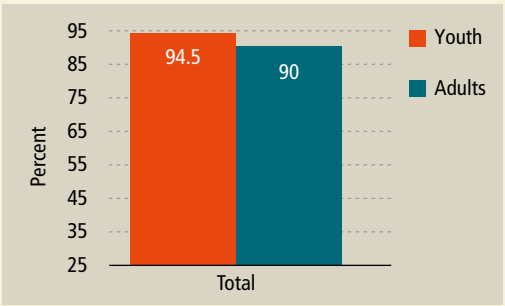
a) Unemployment rate, youth and adult workers



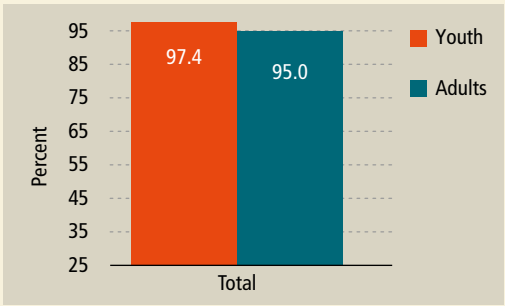
b) Underemployment, youth and adult workers



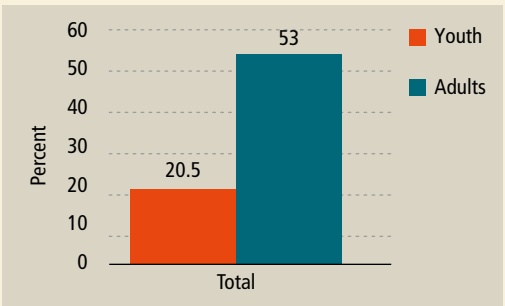
c) Informal economy employment, youth and adult workers



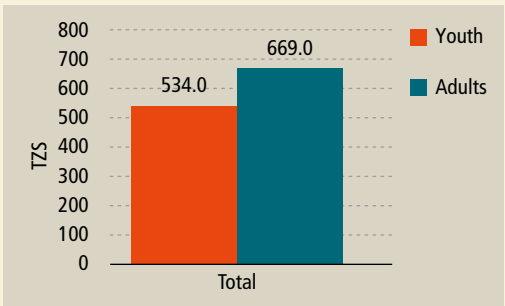
d) Low skill work (percentage of workers in jobs in the lowest two skill levels), youth and adult workers



e) Job security (percentage of workers in paid employment with permanent jobs), youth and adult workers



f) Weekly average wages (Tanzanian shillings TZS, hundreds), youth and adult paid workers



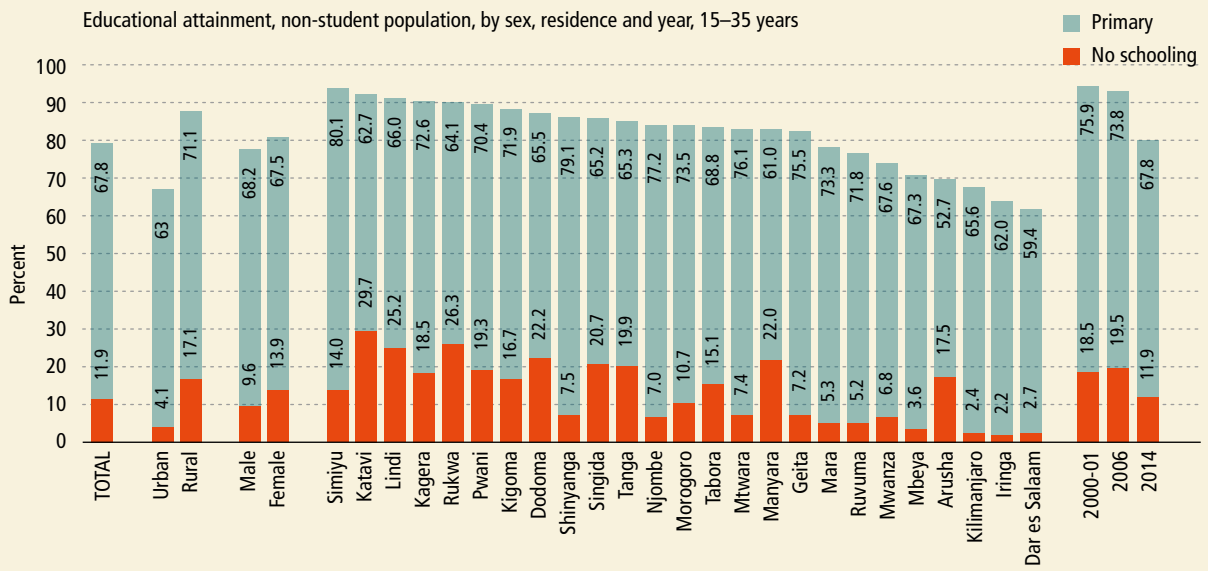
Notes: *(a) Informal employment includes paid employees and the self-employed who hold jobs that are not subject to income tax andnot subject/entitled to contributions to social security and unpaid family helpers. (b) Average labour income is calculated for employed population of youth and adults with non-zero wage.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

7.4 Human capital and youth employment outcomes

The most obvious connection between child labour and poor youth labour market outcomes is through compromised education. In Chapter 6, evidence was presented that child labour is associated with compromised education. This section, in turn, looks at the role of education in youth labour market outcomes.

Despite recent progress, levels of education remain low for the vast majority of Tanzanian young people, compromising their future prospects; 80 percent of young people who are not in school have either no education (12 percent) or only primary education (68 percent) (Figure 30). Low education is especially pronounced in rural areas, where 88 percent have education levels of primary or less. A number of regions also lag behind national averages in this regard – the share of youth with primary education or less is greatest in the Simiyu (94 percent), Katavi (93 percent), Lindi (91 percent), Kagera (91 percent), Rukwa (90 percent), Pwani (90 percent) and Kigoma (89 percent) regions. The Dar es Salaam region is the best-performing region in this regard, but even there, 62 percent of youth have primary education or less.

Figure 29. Educational levels remain low for the vast majority of Tanzanian young people



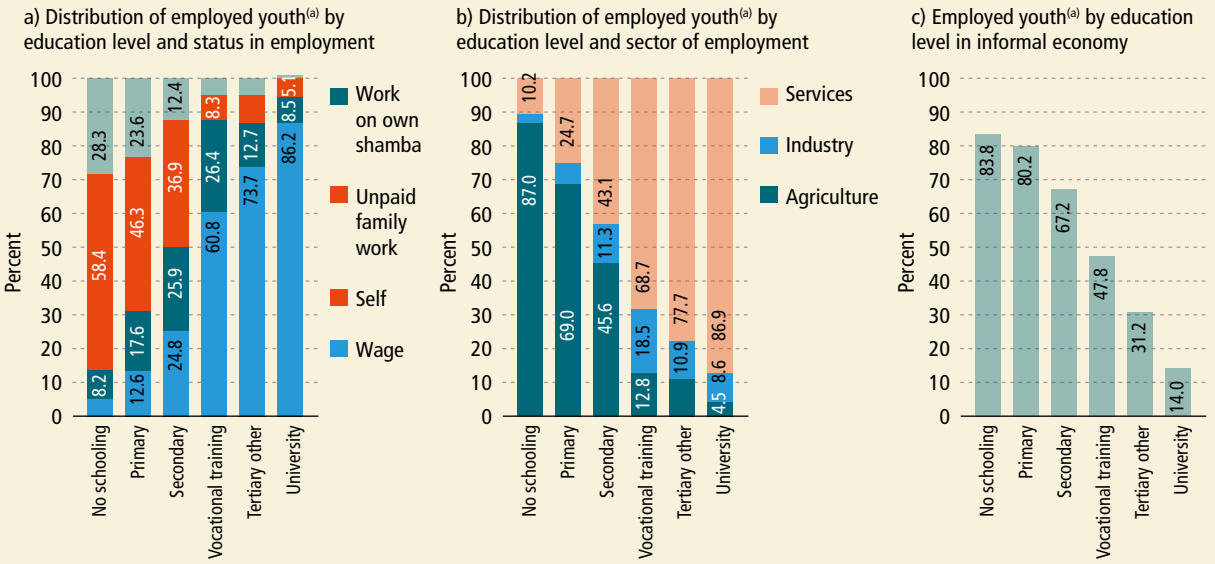
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Level of education is clearly correlated with job quality. Figure 34 reports the composition of youth employment by level of education. It shows that the likelihood of wage work and of work in the services sector both rise consistently with more education, while work in the informal economy and in agriculture move in the opposite direction.

It is interesting to note that young persons with vocational education are much more likely than their peers with only secondary education to secure wage employment, work in the service sector and work in the formal economy, suggesting that taking up technical and vocational education may also

represent an effective way of escaping low-quality jobs. As discussed in the next section, educated youth are, not surprisingly, also likely to be found in jobs requiring higher skills, although a large share of even the most educated youth must settle for low-skill jobs.

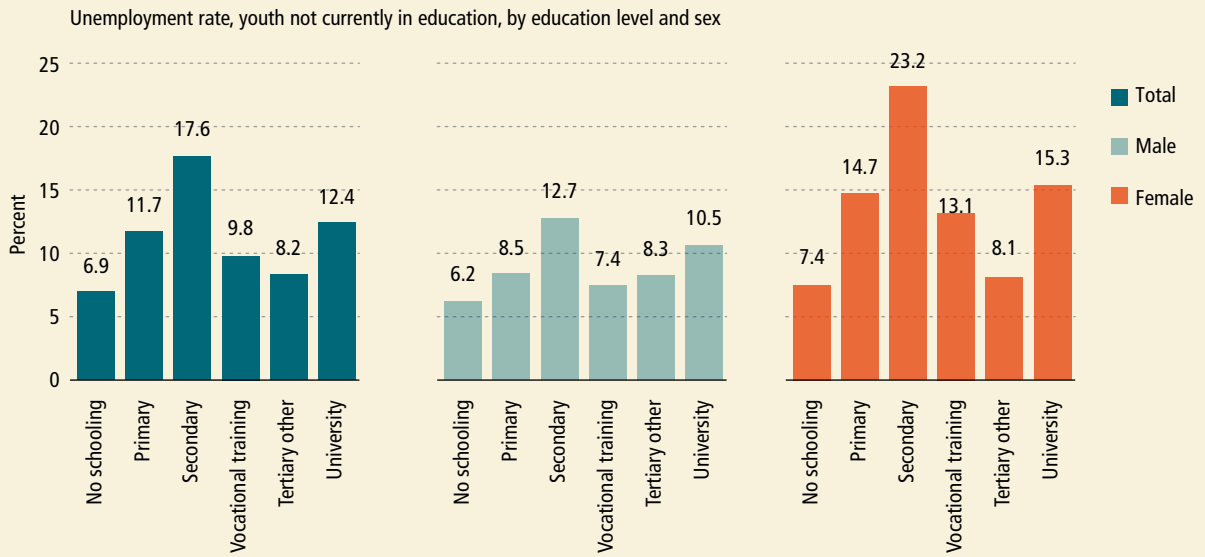
Figure 30. Better-educated youth are much more likely to enjoy wage and tertiary sector employment in the formal economy



Notes: *(a) Young persons still in education are excluded from consideration.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Unemployment is relatively high among youth with the most education. This is partly because less-educated young people, by definition, begin their transition to work at an earlier age, and therefore have had a greater length of exposure to the labour market and more time to secure employment. In addition, as the reservation wage is likely to rise with skill level, search time might increase with the level of human capital of the individual. This finding *per se*, therefore, says little about links between human capital levels and success in the labour market. Unemployment is highest, however, among youth who stop their education at the secondary level. Again, the contrast between this group and those that opt for additional technical and vocation education is stark – unemployment is much lower for the latter group for male and female youth alike.

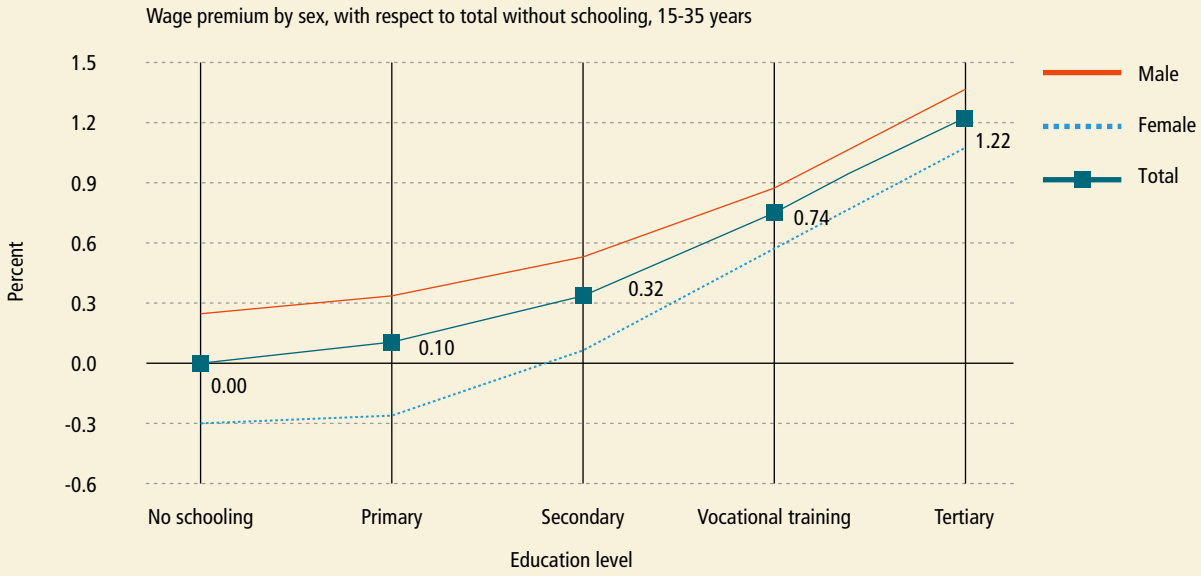
Figure 31. The correlation between education levels and unemployment rates is less clear



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

More education is associated with a substantial earnings premium. A wage equation was estimated in order to assess the importance of education and other individual and household characteristics on earnings. The results relating to education, reported in Figure 33, indicate that the size of the wage premium increases with each subsequent level of education. Moving from no education to primary education raises earnings prospects by 10 percent, from primary to secondary by a further 22 percent, from secondary to vocational by an additional 43 percent, and from vocational to tertiary by an additional 44 percent. Figure 33 also indicates important gender differences in wages and wage premiums associated with each level of education. Wages are much lower for female youth at the lower end of the education spectrum but female youth enjoy relatively higher wage premiums for each education level. As a result, the gender wage gap lessens moving across the education spectrum, although the gap between female and male wages remains substantial even at the tertiary education level. Other determinants of youth wages are discussed in Box 8.

Figure 32. Wage premiums associated with education enjoyed by male youth are higher than those enjoyed by female youth



Source: *Calculations of earning differentials estimated on the basis of the analysis of the determinants of earnings, Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Box 8. Determinants of youth wages

The results of the wage equation estimates (see Table A) also provide insight into factors beyond education influencing youth wages. Gender factors appear particularly important here. Female youth can expect to earn about 44 percent less than male peers, indicating further disadvantage for female youth in the labour market. Earnings are also strongly influenced by the employment sector: youth working in agriculture can expect to earn about 50 percent less than those in industry and 43 percent less than those in services. Those having to settle for jobs in the informal economy also have earnings prospects that are 43 percent lower compared to young persons with jobs in the formal economy. Finally, wages appear to depend on place of residence. Youth living in cities and towns can expect to earn about 13 percent more than peers living in rural areas.

Table A. Determinants of earnings, results of OLS estimation with robust standard errors, working population, 15–35 years[a], [b], [c]

Variables[b]		Logarithm of earnings	
		Coef.	Standard error
Age	Age in years	0.0850***	0.0289
	Age squared	-0.0010*	0.0005
Gender	Male	0.4410***	0.1249
Marital status	Married	0.0817**	0.0351
Migration status	Migrant	0.0442	0.0396
Level of education attained	Primary school[d]	0.0367	0.0976
	Secondary school[d]	0.3300***	0.1097
	Vocational school[d]	0.7342***	0.1209
	Tertiary education[d]	1.1477***	0.1341
Gender and level of education attained	Male-primary[d]	0.0599	0.1297
	Male-vocational[d]	-0.0913	0.1419
	Male-secondary[d]	-0.1986	0.1543
	Male-tertiary[d]	-0.1475	0.1680
Household characteristics	Household size	0.0077	0.0054
Residence	Rural	-0.1340***	0.0424
Sector of employment and working hours	Working hours	0.0082***	0.0008
	Industry[d]	0.4955***	0.0525
	Services[d]	0.4269***	0.0466
	Informal economy	-0.4338***	0.0528
Constant		7.9107	0.4066

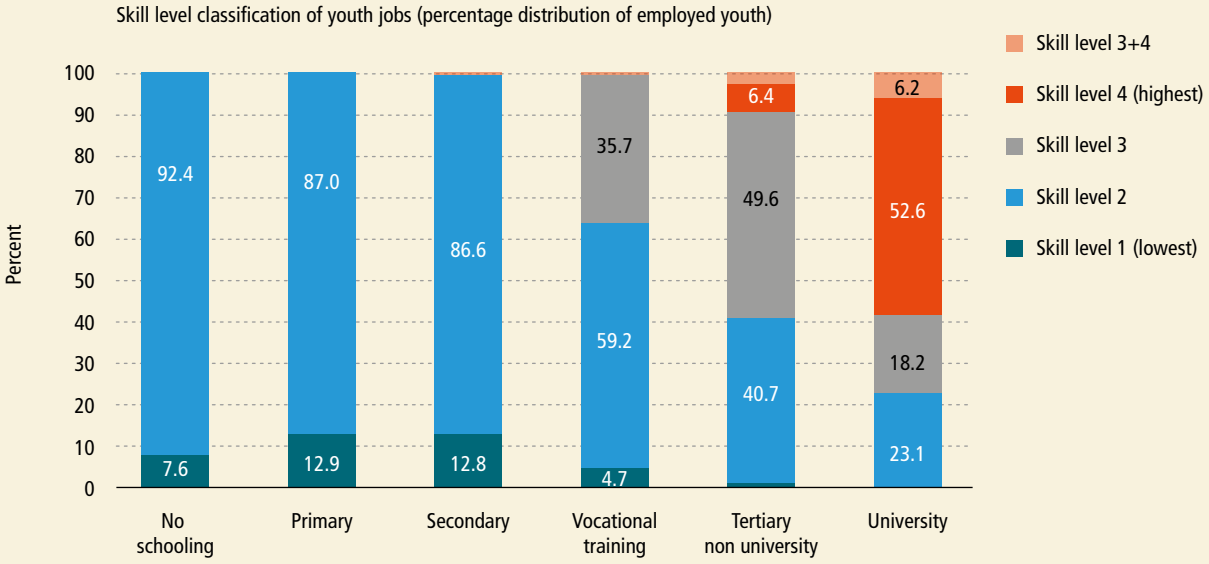
Notes: *(a) Dependent variable is logarithm of earnings (weekly wages); (b) Regional dummies were also included as a control (not shown); (c) significance level *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; (d) Reference category: Education – no school; Sector of employment – agriculture; Region – Dodoma.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

In summary, the balance of evidence points to substantial returns to education in the labour market. The jobs that educated young persons secure are likely to be of better quality and better paid. The positive links between education and employment outcomes have important implications in terms of trade-offs between child labour and education earlier in the lifecycle. Theory and evidence suggest that positive returns to education can have an important feedback effect on parents' decisions to invest in children's education.[54] In situations where there are opportunities for better-paid jobs for educated young people, parents have greater incentive to invest in their children's schooling, and to not send their children to work prematurely.

7.5 Skills mismatch

Skills mismatch is defined as the difference between workers' skills (proxied by the level of education attainment) and the job/tasks actually performed. This decomposition of youth jobs by skills intensity, reported in Figure 34, shows that young people with up to secondary education are concentrated almost entirely in jobs in either the lowest skill category or the second-lowest skill category. The picture changes somewhat starting with those with vocational training, about one-third of whom succeed in securing jobs at the third skill level (involving the performance of complex technical and practical tasks that require an extensive body of factual, technical and procedural knowledge in a specialized field). The share of higher-skill jobs rises further for those with tertiary education, although it is striking that almost one-quarter of even those with university education must settle for a relatively low skill job.

Figure 33. A substantial share of even well-educated youth must settle for low-skills jobs

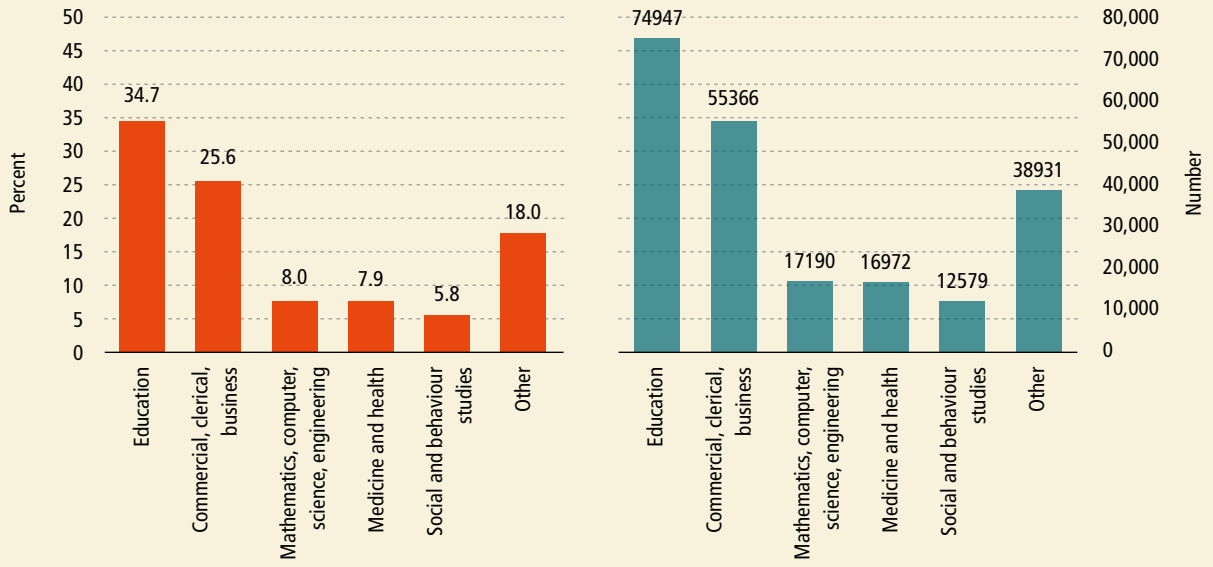


Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

54 See, for example, the discussion on this point in: UCW programme, Joining Forces Against Child Labour. Inter-agency report for The Hague 2010 Global Child Labour Conference, Rome, May 2010.

The Tanzania Integrated Labour Force survey also collects information on the subject of tertiary education of youth with higher education and of training courses attended by youth with education below tertiary level. As shown in Figure 35, most youth with tertiary education in the 25–35 age group graduated in education programmes (35 percent), followed by commercial, clerical and business studies (26 percent). A much lower share graduated in mathematics, computer science and engineering studies (8 percent), medicine and health studies (8 percent) and social and behavioural studies (6 percent).

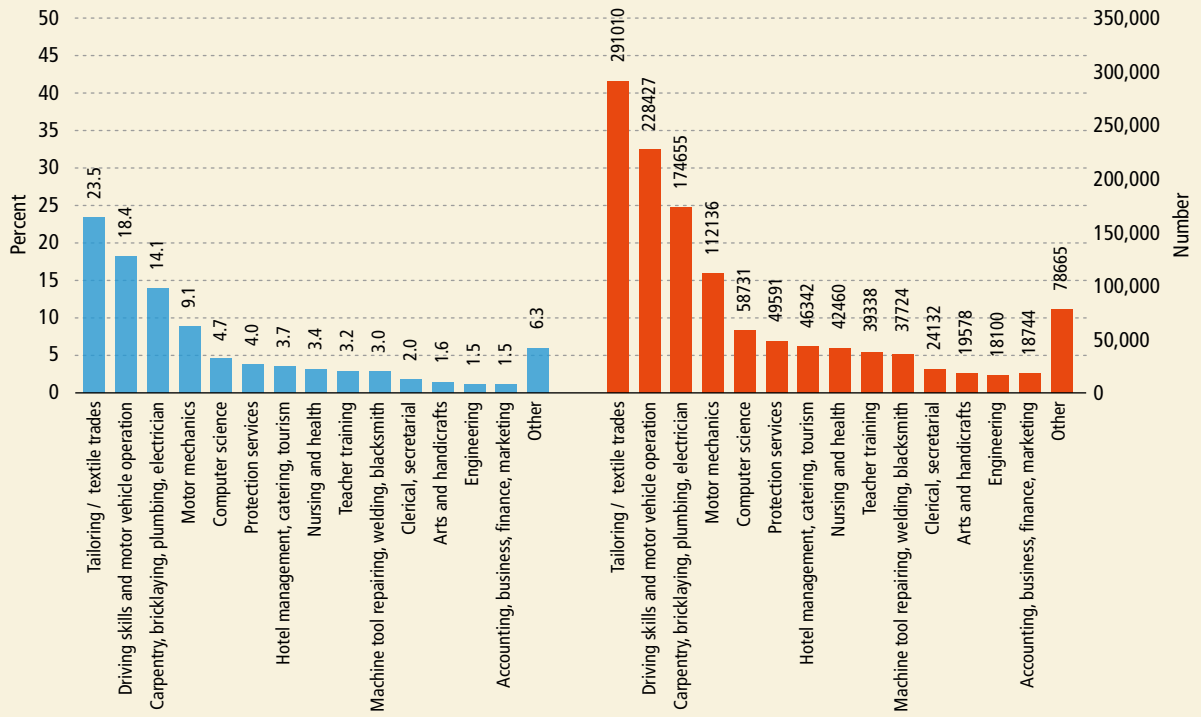
Figure 34. Percentage and number of youth not currently in education, by subject of tertiary education, 25-35 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Regarding the subjects of training courses, most youth in the 15–35 age group with education below tertiary level attended programmes on tailoring/textiles trades (24 percent), driving skills and motor vehicle operation (18 percent), carpentry, bricklaying, plumbing, electrical (14 percent), and motor mechanics (9 percent) (Figure 35).

Figure 35. Percentage and number of youth with education below tertiary level by subject of training attended, 15-35 years



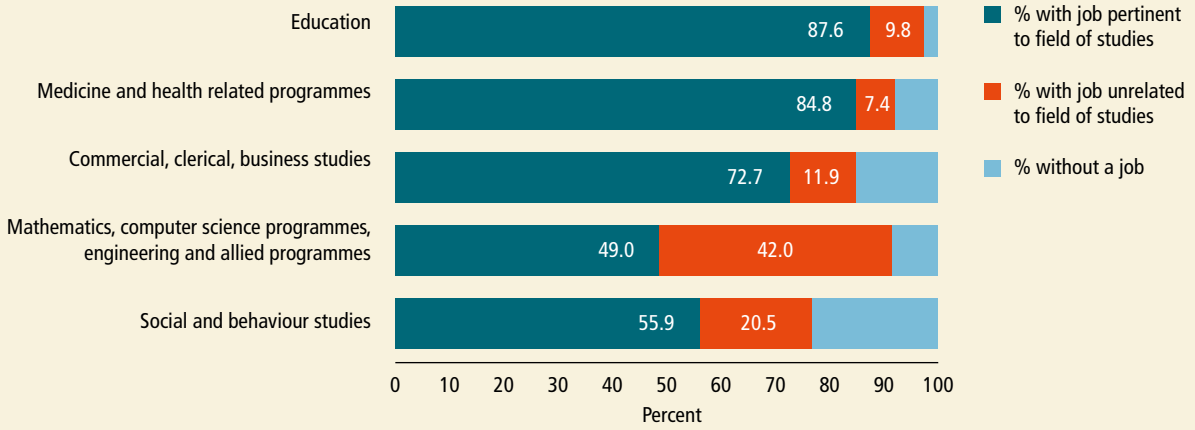
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Data on the relevance of jobs in specific tertiary education areas of study and specific areas of vocational training permit a more detailed look at the question of skills mismatches in the labour force.

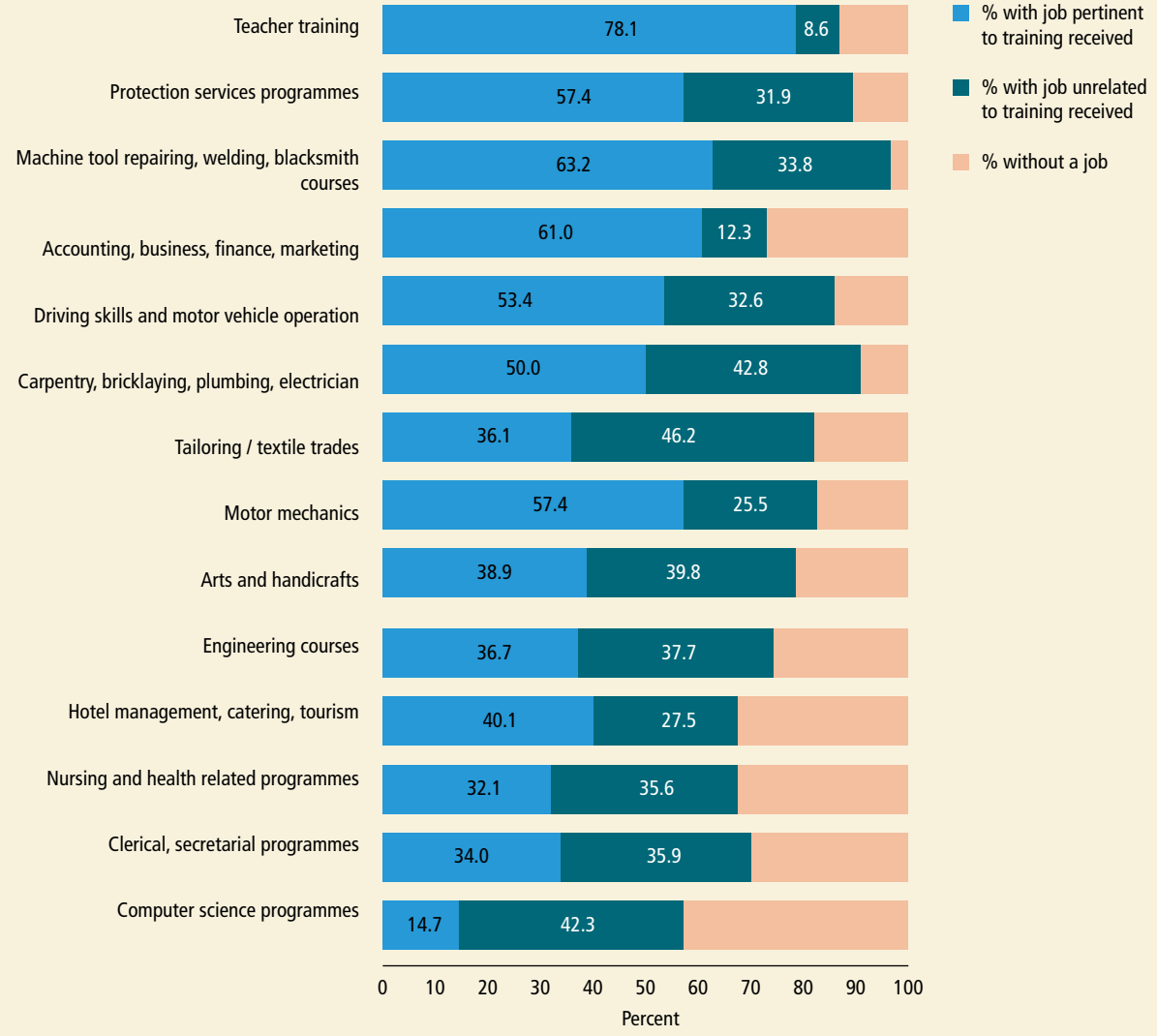
The results concerning the relevance of different tertiary programmes, reported in Figure 37a, are very mixed. Graduates from education programmes have the highest rate of success in securing relevant jobs (88 percent of all education graduates), followed by graduates of medicine and related programmes (85 percent). Success rates in securing relevant jobs are much lower for graduates of commerce (73 percent), social studies (56 percent), mathematics and computer science and engineering (56 percent). It is interesting to note that this ranking is similar when considering success rates for securing *any* job, regardless of its relevance, with the important exception of mathematics, computer science and engineering graduates. Persons from this latter group, while least successful in securing relevant jobs, are most likely to secure jobs generally.

Figure 36. A substantial share of young persons must settle for jobs unrelated to their training

a) Employment ratio and share of youth with a job relevant to field of study, population not currently in education, by subject of tertiary education, 25-35 years



b) Employment ratio and share of youth with a job relevant to the subject of training course attended, population with education below tertiary, by subject of training attended, 15-35 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Success rates in securing relevant jobs are similarly varied for graduates of different vocational training programmes. As reported in Figure 37b, those undertaking teacher training stand out as most successful in this regard, with around three-fourths able to find relevant work. Success rates are also 50 percent or higher in six other training areas (machine tool repairing and related, accounting and related, protection services, motor mechanics, driving skills and related, and carpentry and related).

At the other end of the spectrum, only about one in three graduates of training in tailoring and related, nursing and related and clerical and related, and only 15 percent of computer training graduates, succeed in finding relevant jobs.

Participation in training does, however, appear to be clearly positively correlated with job prospects generally: among youth with education below tertiary level, the employment rate of training participants is eight percentage points higher than that of young persons with no training. In view of this result and the earlier ones pointing to a positive link between training and job quality, expanding access to training appears to hold particular promise in improving youth employment outcomes. Currently, only 17 percent of urban youth and just 3 percent of rural youth with less than tertiary education benefit from training programmes.

CHAPTER 8

National responses to children and youth employment concerns

The national development framework

Tanzania Mainland development policy landscape has been shaped by the Tanzania Development Vision 2025, the Five Year Development Plans (FYDP I for 2011/12 to 2015/16; FYDP II for 2015/16 to 2020/21, and FYDP III for 2020/21 to 2025/26) and the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty. These frameworks espouse human development as a central theme and therefore of direct relevance in efforts against child labour and youth decent work deficits.

The **Tanzania Development Vision (TDV) 2025** is aimed at achieving middle income status by 2025, meaning achieving high levels of industrialization, competitiveness, quality livelihood and rule of law and having in place an educated society that values learning. Specifically, TDV 2025 outlines the country's social, economic and political aspirations for the first quarter of the 21st century with five principal components: (a) high quality livelihood, (b) peace, stability and unity, (c) good governance, (d) a well-educated and learning society, and (e) a strong and competitive economy.

The **Five-Year Development Plans (FYDP)** are the means to implement TDV 2025. The second plan, for the period from 2015/2016 to 2020/2021, aspires to encourage "job creation especially for the youth and disadvantaged groups" and aims "at reducing youth unemployment by increasing youth skills (through expanding education access and quality, and vocational education and training), promoting self-employment (by facilitating access to credit) and empowering youth, particularly in agriculture". FYDP II also includes targets for reducing the percentage of children aged 5 to 17 engaging in child labour (from 28.8 percent in 2014/2015 to 24.9 percent in 2020/2021).

The **National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP)**[55] is the second national organizing framework for national development efforts. Informed by Tanzania's Development Vision, the NSGPR has three major clusters of desired outcomes, namely (a) growth and reduction of income poverty, (b) improved quality of life and social well-being, and (c) good governance and accountability. Goal 3 of the NSGRP is "Ensuring Creation and Sustenance of Productive and Decent Employment, Especially for Women, Youth and People with Disabilities" with the justification: "Given that youth form the largest share of the labour force, facilitating the youth in accessing employment opportunities is critical to ensuring pro-poor growth."

55 Popularly known as *Mpango wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kuondoa Umaskini Tanzania* (MKUKUTA) in Swahili.

Some of the strategies for reducing income poverty, including for youth, are strengthening micro-finance, promoting the use of ICT, access to credit, vocational training and apprenticeship and entrepreneurship programmes, and promoting self-employment and employment opportunities in the informal economy. The desired outcomes for improving quality of life and social well-being include access to education and basic services, as well as social protection.

8.1 Responses to child labour

Legal framework for child labour

Tanzania Mainland has made a number of important commitments in the area of child labour. Among the international legal instruments relating to children and child labour that the country has signed or ratified are the ILO Convention No. 138 on the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment or Work in 1998 and ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in 2001. The country also ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1991, and its two optional protocols in 2003 and 2004.[56] Tanzania Mainland ratified the 1990 African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child in 2003. These international legal standards have been domesticated through national laws, as discussed below.

Tanzania Mainland has used national laws and regulations to fight child labour since the Colonial era.[57] Today, child labour is governed by two main acts – the Law of Child Act (No. 21 of 2009) and Employment and Labour Relations Act (No. 4 of 2004).

The passage of the **Law of the Child Act of 2009** was a landmark piece of national legislation aimed at protecting children. Significantly, for the first time in domestic legislation, the law incorporated the essential elements to build a protective environment and set out the framework for a child protection system to prevent and respond to abuse, violence, exploitation and neglect of children and to implement a child-friendly justice system.[58] As discussed in Chapter 3, the Act sets the minimum age for admission of a child to employment at 14 (Sec. 77.2). It also contains a provision permitting light work for children who are at least 12, where light work is defined as work that is not likely to be harmful to the health or development of the child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from schoolwork (Sec.77.3). The Act prohibits the engagement of children below 18 in hazardous work, posing a danger to health, safety or morals and in "night work" taking place between 8 pm and 6 am (Sec. 82.2).

The earlier **Employment and Labour Relations Act, No. 4 of 2004** also prohibits the employment of children younger than 14 (Section 5.1), except in the case of light work (Section 5.2). The Act prohibits children younger than 18 from working in dangerous environments (Section 5.3 and Section 5.4), e.g., in a mine or factory, or on a ship as crew, or at any other worksite – including non-formal settings and agriculture – where work conditions may be considered hazardous by the Minister responsible for labour matters.

56 Optional Protocols on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography and on involvement of children in armed conflict.

57 The Colonial Government passed the Employment Ordinance Cap 366 in 1955, which among other provisions prohibited the employment of children. After independence, the Ordinance was amended by Act No. 5 of 1969 to prohibit employment in any capacity whatsoever of a child below the age of 15 years. Mashindano, O. (2015).

58 ICF Macro (2011).

National policies and programmes related to child labour

The **Child Development Policy of 2008** highlights the need to protect children living in difficult circumstances such as orphans, children with disabilities, street children, and children affected by natural disasters. The policy also makes a distinction between rural and urban children and emphasizes the need to consider them as categories requiring different kinds of interventions. The policy strongly prohibits every form of child labour particularly children employed as domestic workers, those employed in bars, mines, plantations, fishery, prostitution; and those employed as business hawkers in the streets. It goes further to state that child labour is detrimental to the child's well-being and development and it denies them their rights to acquire education.

Tanzania was one of the first countries in the world to implement a nationally-owned Time Bound Programme to eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labour. The first Time Bound Programme was launched by Tanzania Mainland in 2001 and a revised National Action Plan on the Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labour was released in 2009. A new **National Strategy on Elimination of Child labour (2018-2022)** has been launched to guide national efforts against child labour over the next four years.[59] As detailed further in Box 10, the Strategy is framed within an overall vision of a Tanzania in which children live free from child labour and its worst forms while enjoying their rights in a safe environment.

Box 9. National Strategy on Elimination of Child labour (2018-2022)

Vision

The overall vision of the new National Strategy on Elimination of Child labour (2018-2022) is that of Tanzanian children living free from child labour and its worst forms while enjoying their rights in a safe environment.

Mission

Prevent and respond to all forms of child labour by enhancing compliance to labour standards, strengthening multi sectoral coordination and collaboration at all levels.

Goal

To eliminate child labour and its worst forms to achieve decent work for all.

Strategies

- Enhancing compliance to labour standards.
- Strengthening multi-sectoral coordination and collaboration.
- Strengthening household's income by empowering men, women and child headed households.
- Integrating comprehensive social protection systems.
- Improving access to alternative forms of education to all vulnerable children.
- Institutionalized mechanism on rehabilitation and social integration for children withdrawn from child labour and its worst forms.
- Enhancing public awareness on impact of child labour and its worst forms.

59 *National Strategy on the Elimination of Child Labour 2018-2022*, Prime Minister's Office Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disability December, 2017.

The earlier **National Costed Plan of Action for Most Vulnerable Children** in the Tanzania Mainland identifies intervention strategies designed to directly impact on the lives and welfare of the country's most vulnerable children. Divided into two phases, from 2007 to 2010 and from 2013 to 2017, the plan also includes children in exploitative child labour as a target population. The **National Plan of Action on** Violence Against Women and Children 2017/2018-2020/2022 is another important vehicle for addressing child labour. The mission of the plan is to guide the provision of quality violence prevention and response services as part of the national child protection system through multi-sectoral collaboration.[60] It responds to high levels of reported violence suffered by children and women.[61] One of the operational targets by 2021/2022 is to reduce child labour from the current 29 percent to 9 percent.

In addition to governmental efforts, a range of programmes are implemented by different international organizations and NGOs, as reported in Box 10.

Box 10. Major NGOs, bilateral and multilateral programmes related to child labour

Promoting Sustainable Practices to Eradicate Child labour (PROSPER PLUS) Project	This multi-year project is funded by Eliminating Child Labour Tobacco Growing (ECLT) Foundation and implemented by Winrock International (WI), Tanzania Women Leaders in Agriculture and Environment (TAWLAE), and the Tabora Development Foundation Trust (TDFT). The project focuses on preventing children (5-17 years old) from exploitative, hazardous and worst forms of child labour; and protecting legally working children (15-17 years old) in non-hazardous work in tobacco. The first phase ran from July 2011 to December 2015 and was implemented in Urambo, Kaliua and Sikonge Districts in 20 communities of Tabora Region. The second phase, known as PROSPER Plus, ran during 2016-2017 and was implemented directly in 5 communities and indirectly in 15 communities of Urambo, Kaliua and Sikonge Districts in Tabora Region. The third and current phase, PROSPER UMOJA, will run up to 2020 and is implemented in Kaliua, Urambo and Sikonge Districts in Tabora Region and in Songwe (Songwe Region) and Chunya in Mbeya Region.
ARISE II (Achieving Reduction of Child Labour in Supporting of Education)	This multi-year project was implemented by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and Winrock International (WI) under the agreement with Japan Tobacco International (JTI). The partnership focused on effectively eliminating child labour in farming communities from which JTI sources tobacco. It drew on the lessons learned from ARISE I in Malawi and Zambia and from past child labour programs in Tanzania and pursue opportunities to increase the scope and impact of the Public Private Partnership (PPP) model. The ARISE II program targeted and benefited children (5-17 years) who were in school or out of school and who were engaged in or vulnerable to child labour, women from vulnerable households that were engaged or that may potentially engaged their children in child labour, tobacco farmers as well as community members in the targeted smallholder tobacco-growing communities to positively change their knowledge, attitudes, and practices that perpetuate child labour. The project ended in June 2018.
Global Research on Child Labour Measurement and Policy Development	ILO with the support of USDOL has implemented a four year research project from 2013 to 2017 in Tanzania Mainland that aimed at increasing the knowledge base around child labour by collecting new data, analyzing existing data, and building capacity to conduct research in child labour.

60 URT (2016) NPA-VAWC.

61 The 2009 violence against children survey revealed that nearly one in three girls and one in seven boys experience some form of sexual violence before turning 18. Rates of physical and emotional violence are 72 percent for girls and 71 percent for boys. Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences, CDC and UNICEF (2011).

Box 10. (cont.)

South – South Cooperation (SSC) for the Promotion of Decent Work: In Cotton Supply Chain in Tanzania.	The project began in 2015 and aims at promoting decent work in Tanzania through the systematization, sharing and adaptation of relevant Brazilian experiences in areas such as fighting poverty, productive inclusion, prevention and eradication of child labour and forced labour, promotion of youth employment, combating discrimination, and promoting gender, race and ethnicity equality, and social dialogue. Based on the Brazil experience the main pillars for this project are to prevent and eliminate child and forced labour and promote productive inclusion focusing on capacity building and employment for youth and women. The project on SSC in promotion of decent in cotton supply chain in Tanzania focuses on in cotton-growing communities in three Districts of Simiyu Region - Bariadi, Itilima and Meatu.
Eradicating the Worst Forms of Child Labour in the Eight Mining Wards of the Geita region Phase II	This is a USD 1.1 million EU funded project for 3 years from 2015 to 2018 implemented by Plan International to enhance social protection mechanisms for communities in order to prevent child labour and improve awareness of child labour among children, parents, and mining employers eradicating the WFCL in the eight mining Wards of Geita Region Phase II.
International Labour Organization (ILO) and the Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco-growing Foundation (ECLT)	In May 2015 the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco-growing Foundation (ECLT) entered into an agreement in order to develop global guidance on hazardous child labour and occupational safety and health in tobacco growing, and to support stronger social dialogue in three of the countries where ECLT operates projects: Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, and Uganda. The global guidance will examine the nature and conditions of hazardous child labour in tobacco growing. It will promote tripartite action to ensure that children do not perform this work, and will support decent employment opportunities for young people between the minimum working age and the age of 18. The global guidance will be based on existing and new research, and its development will be facilitated by the ILO with advice from experts from the tobacco sector, academia, and others, and will include tripartite consultations. In Malawi, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania, the project will enhance the capacity of governments and of the social partners to develop and implement policies and action plans to combat child labour in agriculture. It will also provide technical support for tripartite meetings on child labour in agriculture. The agreement builds on the collaborative efforts of ILO and ECLT in Malawi to provide policy support to ILO constituents to implement the agriculture component of the National Action Plan to Combat Child Labour. It also builds on the Tanzania National Sustainability Conference on "Pathways to Sustainability: Together We Can Eradicate Child Labour in Agriculture" (May 2015).

Education policies and programmes

Tanzania has recently undertaken education reforms of direct relevance to improving the relevance of schooling as an alternative to child labour. Among the recent key policies and plans shaping Tanzania's educational system are the Education and Training Policy (2014), the Fee Free Basic Education Policy (2015), and the Education Sector Development Plan for 2016/2017 to 2020/2021.

The **Education and Training Policy**, launched in 2014, replaces previous education policies, including the Education and Training Policy of 1995. It aims to align Tanzanian education to its neighbouring countries and establishes a new structure of education: one year of pre-primary; 6 years of primary and 4 years of secondary. The 11 years of education are compulsory and free: this is a change with respect to the previous system, where the government contributed part of the running costs and

the rest was contributed by fees and parental contributions.[62] According to the World Bank, this has led to a dramatic influx of new students in 2015/2016 and 2016/2017, challenging the national education system.[63]

The 2014 Education and Training Policy also aims at improving school quality through several measures, including improved monitoring, curriculum reforms, ensuring improved teaching of science, improving teaching and learning environment and providing basic services to children, improving school infrastructure, creating a safe environment for children, providing guidance and counseling services to children, introducing peace education in schools and carrying out continuous assessment in schools and reforming the examination system.[64]

The **Education Sector Development Plan for 2016/2017 to 2020/2021** builds on previous reform efforts to address the challenges of the education sector. Its priorities are i) equitable participation and completion of basic education, with particular attention to excluded groups and out-of-school children; ii) improving quality of education to increase knowledge, skills and abilities to allow children to become more efficient workforce once adult; iii) ensuring that competencies meet the needs of the labour market; iv) strengthening system structure, governance and management.[65]

Social protection programmes

Tanzania lacks a comprehensive **social protection programme** that would provide social protection services in times of economic or social crisis. Although a range of social protection schemes and programmes are in place (see discussion below), the outreach and impact of such initiatives are very limited, with coverage of less than 1 percent of the entire population and about 6.5 percent of the formal working population. Many of the programmes in place cover only specific locations or populations, or are time-bound and externally funded. Very few of those participating in the informal economy are covered by social security schemes.

In 2003, the **National Social Security Policy** was enacted to expand the coverage of social security under the then Ministry of Labour and Employment, to harmonize the existing funds and to reduce fragmentation. The policy deals with three major areas in the development of a social security system, namely mandatory schemes, social assistance to the vulnerable, and voluntary market-based schemes. The policy also established the Social Security Regulatory Authority, which sets the agenda and implements the Social Security Reform Programme with a focus on extension of coverage, including informal workers.

As far as children in child labour, their parents and guardians are concerned, the most relevant schemes are non-contributory social assistance to the vulnerable and voluntary market-based schemes, including:[66]

62 In Tanzania, free primary education was announced in 2001, but parental contributions were required to meet school running costs.
63 The World Bank (2017). International development association programme paper on a proposed additional credit in the amount of SDR 59 million (US$ 80 million equivalent) to the United Republic of Tanzania for an education programme for results.
64 Sumra Suleiman (2015). Will the 2014 Education and Training Policy prepare Tanzanian children to face challenges of the 21st Century? Hakielimu position paper on the education and training policy 2014
65 Global Partnership for Education, Education in Tanzania. www.globalpartnership.org/country/tanzania
66 UN Tanzania Delivery as One: Social Protection in Tanzania: Establishing a National System through Consolidation, Coordination and Reform of Using Existing Measures. www.unicef.org/tanzania/Fact_sheet.pdf

- The Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children provides emergency aid and social assistance with a focus on, among others, the vulnerable children;
- The National Food Reserve Agency is used in Tanzania Mainland to distribute free food or at a highly subsidized price in food insecure districts. It reaches about 1.2 million people, including children, annually;
- School feeding covers about 600,000 primary school students (8 percent of the total). The programme is largely funded by the World Food Programme (WFP) and targets food insecure districts;
- Community-based cash transfers under the **Tanzania Social Action Fund**, one of the initiatives of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty. During the period 2012-2017, it reached 7.5 million direct beneficiaries.

Tanzania Social Action Fund began in the early 2000s as a response to the realisation that rapid economic growth may not be sufficient to substantially and sustainably reduce extreme poverty and inequality. The objective of the programme is to increase household consumption while improving human development indicators and helping beneficiaries save and invest for income generation, household asset accumulation, and therefore be on the path out of extreme poverty. The Fund is composed of four components: (1) Productive Social Safety Net, which combines a basic grant (unconditional cash transfer), a conditional cash transfer and a public work sub-component; (2) Enhancement of livelihoods and increasing incomes, by providing business development skills and technical training and by providing grants to existing function community savings and investment promotion groups; (3) Targeted infrastructure development, and (4) Capacity building, aimed at ensuring adequate programme implementation by communities, local, regional and national stakeholders.[67]

An evaluation of the Social Action Fund by the World Bank found a significant positive impact on children's health and on household savings. It also indicates that the programme positively affects whether the child has *ever* attended school, but not whether a child *recently* attended school. This might suggest that, while the programme aims at enrolling new students, it does not encourage students to spend more time in school. The evaluation also found no statistical impact of the programme on the type of activities performed by children.[68, 69]

8.2 Responses to youth employment challenges

National policies and programmes related to youth employment

The **National Employment Promotion Services Act No. 9 of 1999** deals with employment promotion services for the general public, including youth who are the majority of beneficiaries, and including the provision of job placement, vocational guidance, and active labour market interventions. The Act also established a National Employment Advisory Committee with a mandate to provide advice on the formulation of employment policies, legislation on human resources, and matters regarding the employment of persons with disabilities and persons engaged in the informal sector. There are concerns, however, that the Act has grown less relevant in light of the new labour market realities that have emerged since its enactment in 1999, leading for calls for it to be revised and updated. This

67 www.tasaf.go.tz.
68 The evaluation distinguishes children's activities in fetching water, cutting wood, cleaning toilet, cooking, providing child and elderly care.
69 "Community-Based Conditional Cash Transfers in Tanzania: Results from a Randomized Trial, World Bank Study (2014).

has not only been observed by stakeholders but even the government itself, as stated in the National Employment Policy of 2008, which is itself now outdated.[70]

The National Employment Policy of 2008 includes a **Youth Development Policy** aimed at empowering and guiding youth and other stakeholders in addressing youth development issues. One of the principal objectives of the policy is the creation of human resources development opportunities for the acquisition of demand-driven skills and competencies for wage and self-employment. This entails preparation of youth for work by ensuring quality basic education for all young women and men, and developing a demand-driven vocational and technical education system. The policy specifically addresses youth employment in agriculture. Recognizing agriculture and animal husbandry as the largest employer in the country, it seeks to build infrastructure and a conducive environment to attract youth to the industry. The policy also seeks to promote positive use among youth of information and communication technologies, including in training institutions.

Most recently, the **National Youth Council Act No. 12 of 2015** establishes the Youth Council of Tanzania, consisting of the Council itself as well as associated bodies at the regional, district and ward levels, and with the mandate to advise the Government on matters relating to youth development.[71]

A **Youth Decent Work Programme** was implemented in Tanzania with support from ILO over the five years from 2011 to 2016. The programme consisted of a wide range of concrete measures designed to promote improved youth employment outcomes, as reported in Table 9.

Table 9. Youth Decent Work Programme activities in Tanzania Mainland, 2011–2015

Programme	Focus	Participants	Outcomes
The Youth to Youth Fund	Youth design and implement innovative solutions to employment challenges	125 organizations from East Africa	24 organizations selected to receive additional funding Youth to Youth Fund projects have reached 9,667 beneficiaries 831 new jobs created
YEF in collaboration with UNDAP	Disseminating information on labour laws to MSMEs	5 regions (Mwanza, Arusha, Iringa, Mbeya and Dar es Salaam)	12,000 copies of labour laws distributed Seminars on compliance held in all 6 regions
National Entrepreneurship Training Framework (NETF)	Creating a common framework for effective entrepreneurship education	Partners: National Economic Empowerment Council (NEEC), Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)	Educational framework includes: – learning outcomes – teaching methods – assessment techniques
YEF programme	Creation of an entrepreneurship curriculum	410 teachers and 82 tutors received certification	Total students reached: 27,892 (13,600 girls, 14,291boys)
Operesheni moto wa Nyika (Operation Wild Fire)	Entrepreneurship culture awareness promotion campaigns	50+ districts of Tanzania Symposium held to identify key stakeholders	2,000,000 youth reached through radio/TV on entrepreneurship promotion

70 The National Employment Policy of 2008 states that "The government in collaboration with private sector, workers' organizations, Civil Society Organizations and other stakeholders will review the National Employment Promotion Services Act 1999 to be in alignment with implementation of National Employment Policy 2008."

71 One of the crucial matters will be youth employment.

Table 9. (cont.)

Programme	Focus	Participants	Outcomes
Kazi Nje Nje (KNN)	Capacity and business skills trainings	380 youths	300 received training of trainers courses from KNN 80 received SIYB courses (Start and Improve Your Business)

Source: *ILO (2016): Making a Reality Decent Work in Tanzania, Dar es Salaam.*

In addition to these efforts, the ILO has supported the government on data collection by strengthening the employment services agency, which is the sole public employment agency under the Prime Minister's Office (Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disability). The ILO helped the agency to launch a labour market information webpage in 2013 and, by 2015, more than 500 job-seekers and 150 employers had registered with the system. The agency has also become a one-stop centre to provide access to internet services for job seekers, the majority of whom are youth.

Promoting youth education and skills development

The **Secondary Education Development Programme** was established in 2002, and implemented in two five-year phases, the first from 2004 to 2009 and the second from 2010 to 2015. The overall objective of second phase was "to improve the quality of secondary education with the focus on underserved areas" by upgrading existing schools infrastructure, improving education quality particularly in mathematics, sciences, and languages in rural areas; ensuring adequate financing to secondary schools and improving utilization of resources; and providing capacity-building and technical assistance to implement current and future reforms.

However, there have been a number of challenges, in terms of performance, adequacy of the professional teachers, equality of learning environment among different schools, adequacy of infrastructure, teaching approaches, school management, and a low transition rate. At the same time, one of the major gaps of these programmes is that they provide very few realistic alternatives for several million students who do not pass the primary school leaving examination or drop out halfway through lower-secondary education, without completing basic education. A return to secondary education is possible if students enrol in private centres to study, but many students lack the financial means and information.

The **Technical Education and Training Policy of 1996** guides and addresses all issues pertaining to the provision of the technical education and training knowledge to Tanzanians. It aims at facilitating the growth of job creation and self-employment through the increased availability of and opportunities for vocational education and training, which is relevant to youth employment.

The policy includes all formal education levels but with strong emphasis on tertiary non-university technical education and training, and on science and technology. The policy is implemented through different bodies and programmes, all of which can be used to promote youth employment:

- Post Primary Technical Centers: Provide training programmes in areas such as carpentry and masonry to prepare those with primary education to be employed in rural areas and in the urban informal economy.
- Folk Development Colleges: Focus on youth (primary school leavers) to encourage the development of technical and business skills, originally as a way to stem rural-urban migration.

- Vocational Training Programmes: Offers basic vocational training to provide skilled labour for the industrial sector.
- Traditional Apprenticeship Training: Supported by the government through various programmes, it is seen as particularly beneficial and cost-effective in areas with poor infrastructure.
- Technical Secondary Schools: Train students to go on to training programmes for technicians, technologists and engineers.

The **Skills Development Programme to Improve Employment Prospects for Tanzanian Youth** announced in June 2016 that at least 30,000 youths would benefit from a new skills improvement programme to promote the expansion as well as the quality of skills development opportunities in key economic sectors in Tanzania. This project is being financed by US$120 million under the World Bank's International Development Association and aligns with Tanzania's Five Year Development Plan (2016–2021) which centres on industrialization, and emphasizes addressing skills gaps as a critical lever to achieving its goals. The 30,000 targeted beneficiaries of the programme will include trainees enrolled in university, technical, vocational and alternative training programmes in six key economic sectors: tourism and hospitality; agriculture, agribusiness and agro-processing; transport and logistics; construction; information and communications technology; and energy. Employer participation and labour market relevance of skills development form key elements of the programme.

CHAPTER 9

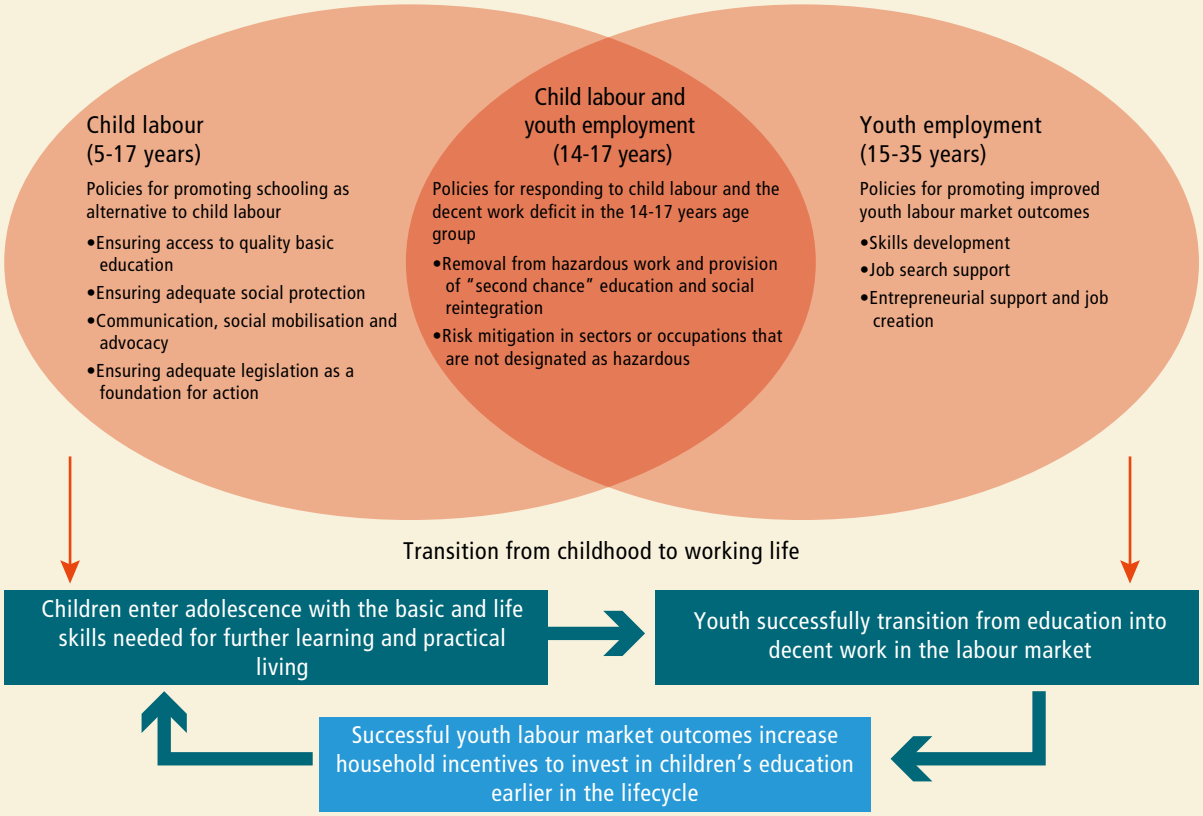
Addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit: Policy priorities

This chapter discusses policy recommendations for addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit drawing on the evidence presented above.

Policy recommendations presented below are framed within national efforts to tackle child labour and youth employment. As discussed in Chapter 8, the National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour (2018- 2022) identifies seven strategies to eliminate child labour: i) Enhancing compliance with labour standards; ii) Strengthening multi-sectoral coordination and collaboration; iii) Strengthening household income by empowering men, women and child headed households; iv) Integrating comprehensive social protection systems.; v) Improving access to alternative forms of education to all vulnerable children; vi) Institutionalized mechanisms on rehabilitation and social integration for children withdrawn from child labour and its worst forms; vii) Enhancing public awareness on impact of child labour and its worst forms. In the discussion that follows, some of these strategies will be articulated further.

While priorities for child labour and youth decent work deficits are discussed separately, the two issues are closely linked, underscoring the importance of addressing them hand in hand, following a lifecycle approach. The figure below illustrates key components of an integrated response. A set of child-centred policies are needed to promote schooling as an alternative to child labour, and, following from this, to ensure that children enter adolescence with basic skills needed for further learning and practical living. This foundation is in turn crucial to the success of active labour market policies for promoting improved youth employment outcomes, and to ensuring that youth successfully transition from education into decent work in the labour market. This causal chain can also work in the opposite direction: successful youth labour market outcomes can increase household incentives to invest in children's education earlier in the lifecycle.

Figure 37. An integrated response to child labour and youth employment challenges



9.1 Addressing child labour

Child labour in Tanzania continues to affect almost 4.2 million children aged 5-17 years, or 29 percent of all children in this age group. Out of this, 2.9 million are children aged 5-13 years. These stark figures underscore the distance that the country must still travel to achieve child labour elimination, and highlights the need for accelerated action to reach this goal in the nearest possible future. The National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour is an important step in this direction. Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring a policy response that is integrated and cross-sectoral in nature. Evidence from Tanzania and elsewhere points to a set policy pillars that are particularly relevant in this regard – basic education, social protection, public awareness, social mobilisation and advocacy – building on the foundation provided by comprehensive child labour legislation and a solid evidence base.

Education access and quality

There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school-aged children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. School attendance needs to be made an attractive prospect for children and parents both by addressing the costs of school attendance and by ensuring that schooling is inclusive and relevant. Providing schooling as an alternative to child labour is important not only for the individual children concerned, but also for society as a whole, as children who grow up compromised educationally by child labour are in a poor position to contribute to the country's growth as adults.

The empirical results presented in this report indicate that Tanzanian working children are less likely than other children to be attending school, and that the attendance gap between working and non-working children increases as children grow older. Moreover, children in child labour log very long hours, limiting their time for study and leisure. In all, about 25 percent of children in the age group of 5-13 years, 2.7 million children in absolute terms, are out of school. These results underscore the need to address the school access and quality issues influencing decisions to enrol and stay in school, within the framework provided by the National Education and Training Policy of 2014 and the Education Sector Development Plan (2008 – 2017).[72] The Government is committed to expanding education access, and in particular for vulnerable groups, such as out-of-school children and those who dropped out.

Ensuring access to early childhood education (ECD). Evidence from a range of developing countries suggests that early childhood development programmes can promote learning readiness, increase school enrolment and school survival, and help children keep away from work in their early years. By law, all public primary schools must have at least one pre-primary classroom which children may attend free of charge. However, severe shortages of pre-primary classrooms and fees levied hamper universal pre-primary enrolment. This issue is further exacerbated by increased demand, leading to overcrowded classrooms. There are no compulsory parenting education or support programmes for parents, though elements of parenting education are incorporated into some health, nutrition and community-based programmes.[73]

72 Education Sector Development Plan (2008 – 2017).
73 The World Bank (2012). Tanzania – Early Childhood development. SABER Country Report.

The Government is committed to extending ECD opportunities as a mean to achieving community based primary education cycle.[74] The Education Sector Development Plan provides the broad framework for national efforts in addressing these challenges.

Promoting education access and quality, including alternative forms of education to all vulnerable children. Continued efforts are needed to remove barriers to access to quality schooling for all children. Increasing school access is a particular challenge at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum. Nineteen per cent of all children are out of school at the age of 13, rising thereafter. Foremost among the factors for being out of school are distance and cost, together cited by over 40 percent of out of school children, and a lack of interest, cited by a further 26 percent of out-of-school children.[75]

School quality also remains an important challenge. Overcrowding, inadequate water and sanitation facilities, poorly-trained teachers and limited textbook supplies are among the issues affecting the quality of the education received by Tanzanian students; teaching methods are also reported as being often gender-biased.[76]

These challenges are reflected in students' results: around half of pupils passed the primary school leavers' examination in 2010, with significant discrepancies across regions. In the Shinyanga and Kigoma regions, for example, around 70 percent of girls failed the exam as compared to around 50 percent of boys.[77] Measures addressing school access and quality feature prominently in the Education Strategic Plan but now need to be operationalised across the education system. The country's success in reaching the education Sustainable Development Goals provides a valuable template for efforts in this regard moving forward.

Social protection

The importance of social protection in reducing child labour is well-established. Social protection instruments serve to prevent vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks. There is no single recipe for expanding social protection programmes to reduce household vulnerability and child labour. Unconditional and conditional cash transfer programmes, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs based social assistance and social pensions, are all relevant to ensuring household livelihoods, supplementing the incomes of the poor and reducing household dependence on child labour. Public works schemes can serve both the primary goal of providing a source of employment to household breadwinners and the secondary goal of helping to rehabilitate public infrastructure and expand basic services, both being potentially relevant in terms of reducing reliance on child labour. Micro-loan schemes can help ease household budget constraints and mitigate social risk.

The Government of Tanzania has implemented a number of measures to enhance the social protection system, and is developing a framework for national coordination and investment in social protection.

Foremost among social protection programmes targeting vulnerable households is the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF). As discussed in Chapter 8, TASAF provides both social assistance (conditional and unconditional cash transfers) and public work (cash for work and training), through an innovative community-driven approach. Social assistance is also provided by the Ministry of Health, Community

74 Education Sector Development Plan (2008 – 2017).
75 Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.
76 UNICEF – Tanzania: Education Equity and Quality.
77 UNICEF – Tanzania: Education Equity and Quality.

Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (emergency aid and social assistance) and by the National Food Reserve Agency (free or subsidized food). These and other efforts, put together, provide key protection for vulnerable families but do not constitute a complete basic social protection floor. Further investment is needed to evaluate their impact, and, on this basis, extend the most effective approaches to reach all vulnerable households.[78]

Enhancing public awareness

Strategic communication is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information concerning the costs or dangers of child labour and benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. But factors which influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics or work conditions. The new National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour 2018-2022 also refers to the "existence of cultural malpractices which lead to child labour and its worst forms", [79] and these too should be targeted in strategic communication efforts.

Communication efforts are needed at both national and local levels. A mix of conventional (e.g. radio, television and print media) as well as of non-conventional communication channels (e.g. religious leaders, schoolteachers, health care workers) is important in order to achieving maximum outreach. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns against child labour abuses. Baseline information on local knowledge and cultural attitudes towards child labour is needed to tailor communication messages, and to evaluate changes in awareness and attitudes following communication activities. Providing information on national child labour legislation, presented in terms that are understandable to the populations and communities concerned, is another communication priority. For girls in particular, there is also a need to educate families on what are acceptable domestic chores for children and what are not. While doing light chores around the house can be important for the socialization of children, research shows that children are working very long hours in the home and have little time for rest, study or leisure.

Social mobilisation and advocacy

Achieving sustainable reduction in child labour requires social consensus well beyond the level of the household. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Similarly, laws to protect children from child labour are unlikely to be effective if they are not backed by broad social consensus. Social mobilisation is therefore critical to engaging a broad range of social actors in efforts against child labour. Various social actors, including, for example, NGOs, faith-based organizations, teachers' organizations, the mass media, trade unions, employers' organizations, have important roles to play in a broader societal effort against child labour. The National Strategy on Elimination of Child Labour 2018 – 2022 represents a significant progress towards coordination of these stakeholders and has

78 The ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation (No. 202) of 2012 provides a key framework for efforts in this regard. The Recommendation sets out that SPFs should contain basic social security guarantees that ensure that all in need can afford and have access to essential health care and have income security at least at a nationally defined minimum level over the life cycle. See ILO, 2011. Resolution and conclusions concerning the recurrent discussion on social protection (social security), International Labour Conference, 100th Session, Geneva, 2011, in Record of Proceedings (Geneva, 2011), No. 24: Report of the Committee for the Recurrent Discussion on Social Protection.2011b, paras. 4 and 5. Available at: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_152819.pdf.

79 National Strategy on the Elimination of Child Labour 2018-2022, Prime Minister's Office Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disability December, 2017, p. 14.

a particularly important potential role to play in social mobilization efforts. It depicts an institutional arrangement ensuring implementation and coordination at different levels through i) a National Child Labour Consultative Forum, ii) a Stakeholder's Consultative Forum and, iii) Technical Committees.

Child labour legislation, inspections and monitoring

Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive policy and legislative environment, which is in line with international standards and effectively mainstreamed into national development plans and programmes. This has the important effect of signalling national intent to eliminate child labour and providing a framework in which this can be achieved.

While significant progress has been made in developing a comprehensive legal framework (see discussion in Section X), this framework is not yet complete. For instance, there have been concerns about the lack of a stronger framework for articulating the scope of permissible versus non-permissible work among children across various sectors of the economy. In particular, there is a need to make consistent the list of hazardous works of the Law of the Child Act (LCA 2009) and the one in the Employment and Labour Relation Act (ELRA 2004). Moreover, the definition of light work is ambiguous.

The effectiveness of legislation in protecting children from child labour also depends on establishing and strengthening mechanisms for monitoring and enforcing laws, including provisions for inspections and for the removal of children in child labour to safe places. Expanding the Government's actual capacity to monitor formal workplaces remains a major challenge, and unregistered businesses in the informal economy are largely outside formal inspection regimes. The labour inspectorate needs to be strengthened so that inspectors can effectively enforce labour legislation and workplace safety standards relating to child labour. Given the extent of child labour and resource constraints, however, it will likely continue to be difficult for the formal inspection system alone to be effective in protecting children from workplace violations. This highlights the importance of establishing effective community-based child labour monitoring systems as a mechanism for identifying children who are involved or at risk of engaging in child labour, referring them to appropriate social services, and tracking them to ensure positive outcomes.

Improving the evidence base

Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many children in child labour there are, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Better data is especially needed on programme impact, in order to identify good practices from the large number of child labour initiatives undertaken in the country, and, following from this, approaches with most potential for broader scale implementation. More evidence is also needed, inter alia, on the worst forms of child labour, recognizing that "the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action",[80] and on child migration (in-country and cross-border).

80 Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

9.2 Addressing child labour among children aged 14-17 years

Even though young people aged 14 to 17 are over the minimum working age, they are still considered "children in child labour" under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation if the work they do is hazardous. As we saw in Chapter 5 of this Report, child labour among 14-17 year olds is very high in Tanzania, affecting almost 41 percent of all children in this age group, or 1,467,000 children in absolute terms.

At the same time, around 70 percent of all 14 to 17 year-olds in employment are in child labour. Children aged 14 to 17 are therefore of common interest to programmes addressing child labour and the decent work deficit faced by youth, but they have not to date been accorded priority attention in either. While the policies articulated above for younger children are also largely relevant for combatting child labour in the 14-17 age group, there is also a need for additional policy measures tailored specifically to the unique challenges posed by child labour in this age group.

Removing youth from hazardous work in order that they are protected and afforded second chances for acquiring decent work

In instances in which 14-17 year old children are working in sectors or occupations that are designated as hazardous or where there is no scope for improving working conditions, the policy requirement is clear – they must be removed from the hazardous job. In these instances, it is imperative that there is an effective inspection and monitoring system for identifying the children concerned and a strategy in place for providing children withdrawn from child labour with adequate support services and opportunities for social reintegration. Community-based mechanisms close to where the children in child labour are located are particularly relevant in this regard.

Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment and work conditions indicates that school enrolment declines sharply as children enter the 14-17 age group, and many of those leaving the school system end up in hazardous jobs. Options for reaching disadvantaged, out-of-school children with alternative learning opportunities includes mainstreaming (i.e. providing returning children with special remedial support within the regular classroom) and "bridging" education (i.e. separate intensive courses, delivered within or outside the formal school system, designed to raise academic proficiency prior to returning to the regular classroom). Second chance policies need to take place within the context of a broader effort improve secondary schooling access and quality, in order to make secondary schooling a more viable and attractive alternative to hazardous work.

For out-of-school children whose circumstances mean that they are unable to re-enter basic education, experience in a range of countries suggests that targeted packages of active labour market policies can be effective in terms of providing children withdrawn from child labour (and other vulnerable youth) with second chances for securing decent work. Many of the elements discussed in the next section of this chapter are relevant in this context, including vocational and technical training, apprenticeships, job search training and support, and entrepreneurial support, with the critical difference being that they are tailored to the special needs of this group of particularly vulnerable youth. Not infrequently, children withdrawn from exploitative situations may also need a range of social services: emergency shelter, medical care, psychosocial counselling, legal support, family tracing and assessment and post-reintegration follow-up.

Mitigating risk in order to ensure that youth are not exposed to hazards in their workplace

Risk mitigation is a strategic option in instances where children are exposed to hazards in sectors or occupations that are not designated as hazardous in national hazardous work lists and where there is scope for changing work conditions. Such a strategy involves measures to remove the hazard, to separate the child sufficiently from the hazard so as not to expose her or him, or minimise the risk associated with that hazard.

The ILO speaks of this as "identifying hazards and reducing risks". Strategies aimed at improving the working conditions of child workers include various types of protective measures: hours of work can be reduced; work at night, or travel to and from work at night, can be prohibited; workplace policies against harassment can be established and enforced; children can be barred from using dangerous substances, tools or equipment; and adequate rest periods can be provided.

Especially important in the context of risk mitigation is training and awareness-raising on occupational safety and health for employers and their young workers, including on adequate and consistent supervision. Another priority is the implementation of adequate monitoring mechanisms. Trade unions, business associations, chambers of commerce, community organizations, social protection agencies – when properly trained and linked with the labour inspectorate – can monitor minimum age guidelines, the safety of the workplace and its child workers.[81] Risk mitigation should be seen as part of a broader effort to ensure that young people receive equal treatment and are protected from abuse and exposure to hazards.[82] The enforcement of labour laws and collective agreements should be strengthened, and the participation of young people in employers' and workers' organizations and in social dialogue should be enhanced.

9.3 Addressing the decent work deficit among young people aged 15–35 years

The results presented in this Report highlight a number of challenges facing Tanzanian young people entering the labour market. Levels of human capital remain low for many Tanzanian young people, compromising their future prospects. Seventeen per cent of all youth are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and therefore at risk of social marginalisation. Youth employment is dominated by low-skill, unremunerated jobs in the informal economy offering fewer chances for upward mobility. Underemployment, or "hidden unemployment", affects 12 percent of employed youth. These results point to the need for active labour market policies[83] aimed at improving youth labour market outcomes, building on the knowledge foundation acquired during childhood through improved basic education and preventing child labour.

81 It is important to note that while we are focusing here on children, neither is hazardous work acceptable for adult workers. The ILO Conventions on occupational safety and health (OSH) and on labour inspection offer protection for all workers. In fact, nearly half of all ILO instruments deal directly or indirectly with OSH issues. It has long been recognized in this context that action against child labour can also be action for decent work for adults. In the case of hazardous work, where economic necessity or deeply ingrained tradition blocks attempts to improve conditions for adult workers, it is sometimes the call to stop child labour that can be the entry point to change. Eliminating hazardous work of children can help improve safety and health of all workers – the ultimate goal.

82 A recent learning package to support trade unions, employment services, education and training institutions, as well as youth organizations, in their initiatives aimed at raising young people's awareness of their rights at work, see ILO (2014): *Rights@Work 4 Youth: Decent work for young people: Facilitators' guide and toolkit* (Geneva).

83 Active labour market policies are designed to improve labour market outcomes for young people within existing institutional and macro-economic constraints; the broader structural economic reforms needed to reduce youth unemployment in the long run are beyond the scope of this Report.

Skills development

The Technical and Vocational Education (TVET) is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. Besides the formal TVET system, non-formal TVET programmes are offered through different means, as lifelong learning education programmes and adult education programmes. However, no information is available on informal TVET systems.[84] A variety of TVET programmes are in place in the country. Notable among them are the Skills Development Programme to Improve Employment Prospects for Tanzanian Youth. These efforts have led to progress in terms of increasing access to training for young persons, but both the quality and coverage of training nonetheless remain limited. Ensuring training opportunities extend to vulnerable youth with limited levels of formal education remains a particularly important challenge facing the TVET system. This group of vulnerable youth includes those whose education was compromised by involvement in child labour. Access is also especially limited for female youth and for the rural poor.

This discussion points to the importance of continued investment in providing "second chance" opportunities to former working children and other categories of vulnerable youth for acquiring the skills and training needed for work and life. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment indicates that such policies are particularly relevant in Tanzania: many students leave the system prior to the end of the primary education cycle and many of those out of school lack the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Some 933,000, or 33 percent, of the total out-of-school children in the 10-14 age group age, for instance, suffer what UNESCO terms "education poverty", i.e. possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. What is more, it is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates second chance learning needs as basic literacy skills alone are a less and less adequate "skills floor" for successful entry into the Tanzanian labour market.

There is already a number of second chance learning initiatives active in the country, offering useful models for expanded efforts in this regard moving forward. Effectively coordinating these wide-ranging efforts and successfully extending them based on needs-based criteria to ensure they reach all unserved groups of vulnerable youth, however, remain key priorities. Integrating informal training and apprenticeships into the formal system is another priority. Additional investment is also needed in evaluating the impact of existing efforts and in tracing labour market outcomes of participants, in order to identify the approaches with most potential for expansion.

Job search support

The high levels of skills mismatch among Tanzanian youth (see Section 7.5) is suggestive of a need for further investment in job search skills and in formal mechanisms linking young job seekers with appropriate job openings. It will again be especially important to ensure that at-risk youth are able to access these employment services programmes. This can be difficult because most at-risk youth live in either marginal urban or rural areas, while most employment services are offered in more central locations. One criticism of employment services programmes elsewhere has been that those who benefit from the programmes are typically more qualified and connected to begin with and therefore more likely to become employed. This points to the importance of targeting job search support to disadvantaged young people most in need.

84 UNESCO (2016). World TVET Data base - Tanzania.

Public works programmes

The high percentage of youth who are not in education, employment or training and who are underemployed (see discussion in Chapter 7) points to the need for demand-side measures aimed at improving employment opportunities for young people. Labour-intensive public works programmes targeting young people represent one important policy option in this context. Such programmes can provide both qualified and unqualified young people with an entry point into the labour market within broader efforts to reduce poverty and develop rural services infrastructure.

Tanzania Social Action Fund includes public work among its components, aiming at providing cash income for targeted poor beneficiaries through employment in the approved sub-projects, which include infrastructure, construction, rehabilitation and maintenance. However, it does not explicitly target youth and opportunities for youth participation in employment creation programmes are limited. This discussion underscores the need to effectively "mainstream" vulnerable youth into public works programmes as part of broader strategy promoting youth employment. Experience from public works programmes targeting youth outside Tanzania indicate that adding mandatory technical, behavioural skills, financial literacy, or job search training to the public works initiatives can further increase their impact in terms of improving youth employment outcomes.

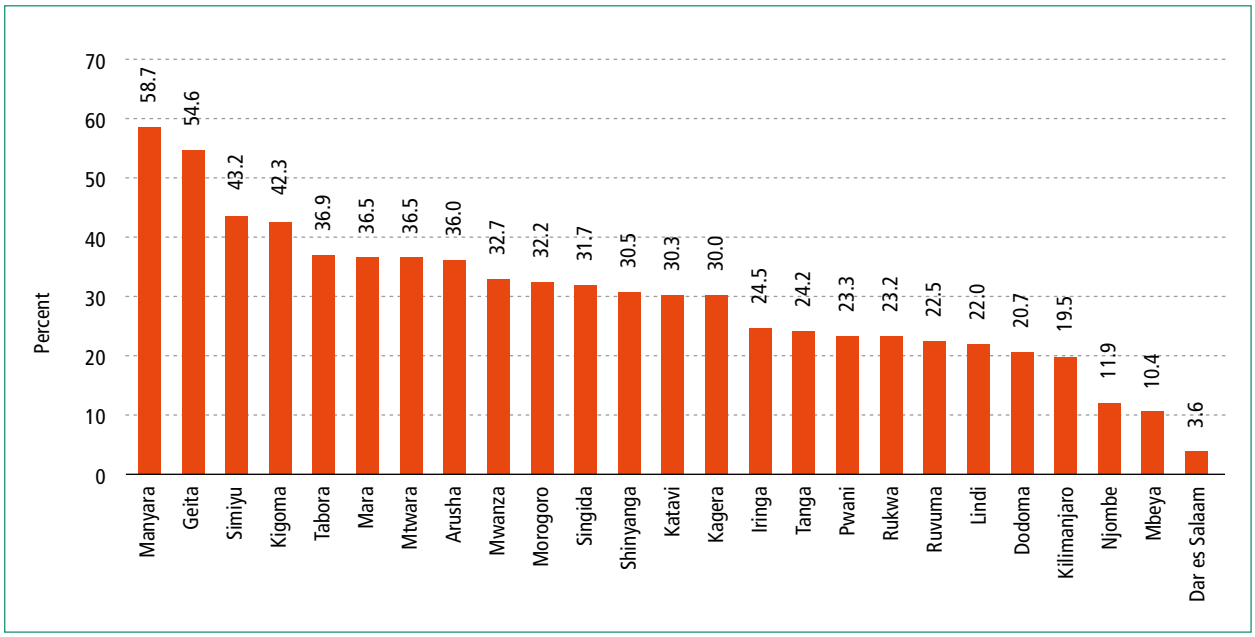
Youth entrepreneurship

Promoting youth entrepreneurship represents another important demand-side strategy for expanding youth employment opportunities and improving employment outcomes for the large proportion of Tanzanian youth currently underemployed or outside of employment and education. A wide array of efforts promoting youth entrepreneurship are currently underway in the country. However, there remains a number of outstanding priorities for expanding youth entrepreneurship opportunities, particularly for vulnerable youth. Priorities in this context include supporting an entrepreneurial culture by including entrepreneurship education and training in school. Easing access to finance, including by guaranteeing loans and supporting micro-credit initiatives, is also critical, as a major stumbling block for young entrepreneurs is the lack of access to credit and seed funding. Expanding access to effective business advisory and support services, and the capacity to deliver them, is another key element in promoting youth entrepreneurship, as isolation and lack of support prevent many potential young entrepreneurs experience from gaining a foothold in the business world. The formation of self-help groups, including cooperatives, by young people would also allow for better access to supplies, credit and market information.

Annex. Additional statistics

Children aged 5–17 years

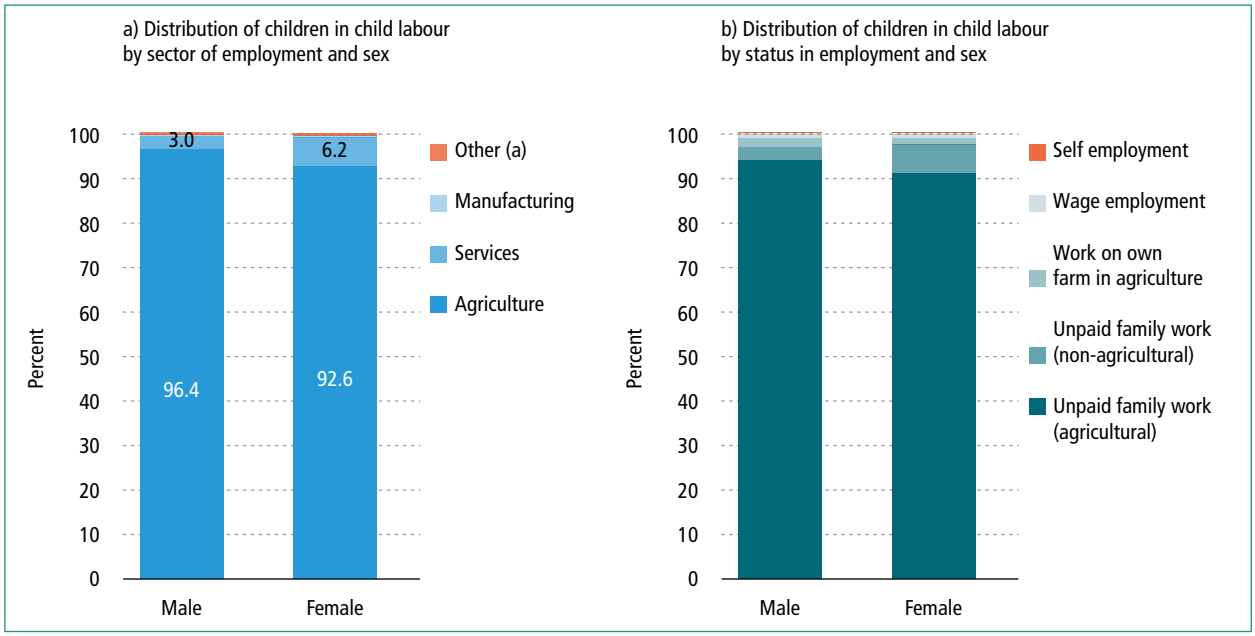
Figure A1. Prevalence of child labour by region, 5-17 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS),2014.*

Children aged 5–13 years

Figure A2. Distribution of children in child labour by sector, status in employment and sex, 5-13 years



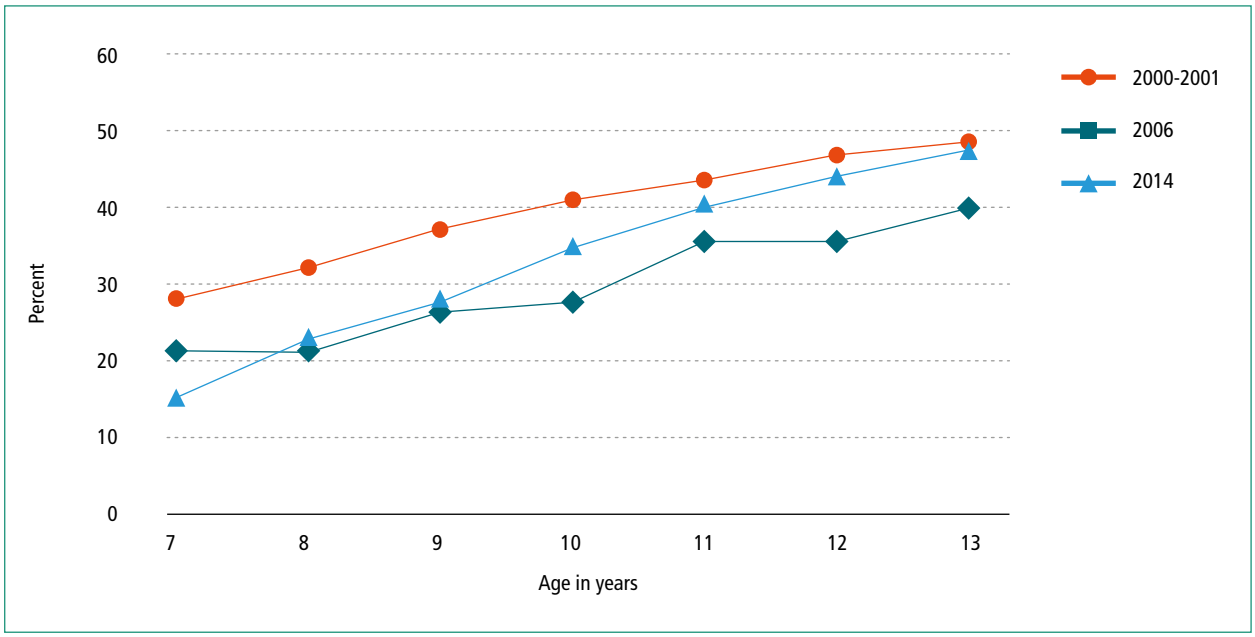
Note: *Other includes mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water, and construction.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Table A1. Average weekly working hours by sex, residence and schooling status, 5-13 years

		Schooling status		
		Employment exclusively	Employment and schooling	Total(a)
Sex	Male	33.7	15.0	20.3
	Female	29.5	13.9	17.8
Residence	Urban	35.8	13.3	17.6
	Rural	31.4	14.7	19.3
Total		**31.8**	**14.5**	**19.1**

Notes: *Refers to all those in employment, regardless of schooling status.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Figure A3. Employment by age and survey round



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2000–2001, 2006, 2014.*

Table A2. Children in employment by sex, 2000–2001, 2006 and 2014, 7-13 years

Age group	IFLS 2000–2001			IFLS 2006			IFLS 2014		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
7–13	40.3	37.7	39.0	33.2	25.2	29.3	33.0	31.9	32.5

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2000–2001, 2006, 2014.*

Table A3. Summary descriptive statistics (unweighted averages), 7–13 years

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Child labour	0.191	0.393	0	1
Age	9.885	2.022	7	13
Age2	101.792	40.441	49	169
Male	0.502	0.500	0	1
Immigrant	0.070	0.255	0	1
Male sex of household head	0.763	0.425	0	1
Education of household head: No education	0.131	0.337	0	1
Education of household head: Primary	0.666	0.472	0	1
Education of household head: Vocational	0.058	0.233	0	1
Education of household head: Secondary or higher	0.145	0.352	0	1
Household size	6.311	2.614	2	24
Number of children aged 0–4	0.836	0.919	0	8
Number of adults aged 18–34+	2.497	1.267	0	14
Number of adults aged 65+	0.138	0.402	0	3
Household income: <=119999 TZS	0.290	0.454	0	1
Household income: 120000–299999 TZS	0.282	0.450	0	1
Household income: 300000–499999 TZS	0.182	0.386	0	1
Household income: >=500000 TZS	0.246	0.431	0	1
Electricity	0.344	0.475	0	1
Pipedwater	0.502	0.500	0	1
Proximity of school (30 minutes' walk)	0.828	0.378	0	1
Urban	0.644	0.479	0	1
Dodoma	0.040	0.197	0	1
Arusha	0.026	0.159	0	1
Kilimanjaro	0.026	0.158	0	1
Tanga	0.039	0.194	0	1
Morogoro	0.045	0.206	0	1
Pwani	0.021	0.144	0	1
Dar es Salaam	0.307	0.461	0	1
Lindi	0.019	0.137	0	1
Mtwara	0.022	0.146	0	1
Ruvuma	0.024	0.154	0	1
Iringa	0.022	0.145	0	1
Mbeya	0.056	0.230	0	1
Singida	0.015	0.123	0	1
Tabora	0.033	0.179	0	1
Rukwa	0.021	0.143	0	1
Kigoma	0.037	0.189	0	1
Shinyanga	0.023	0.151	0	1
Kagera	0.039	0.194	0	1
Mwanza	0.059	0.236	0	1
Mara	0.027	0.161	0	1
Manyara	0.025	0.157	0	1

Table A3. (cont.)

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Njombe	0.013	0.114	0	1
Katavi	0.008	0.087	0	1
Simiyu	0.028	0.164	0	1
Geita	0.024	0.154	0	1
Obs.: 7764				

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Table A4. Determinants of child labour and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, 7-13 years

Explanatory variables		Only child labour		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	Z	dy/dx	z	
Child characteristics	Age	-0.016***	-3.38	0.048**	2.01	0.105***	5.97	-0.138***	-9.70
	Age2	0.001***	4.17	-0.004***	-2.97	-0.004***	-4.95	0.007***	9.67
	Male	0.001	0.61	-0.004	-0.51	-0.001	-0.17	0.004	0.85
	Immigrant	0.019***	3.52	-0.084***	-4.02	0.026*	1.75	0.039***	2.97
Sex and education of household head	Male	0.002	1.25	-0.008	-0.81	-0.009	–1.10	0.015**	2.46
	Primary	-0.016***	-5.51	0.076***	5.96	-0.005	-0.57	-0.055***	-6.47
	Vocational	-0.010***	-3.78	0.051***	2.72	-0.008	-0.52	-0.03***	-3.88
	Secondary or higher	-0.016***	-8.13	0.098***	7.28	-0.035***	-3.12	-0.047***	-7.20
Household characteristics	Household size	0.002***	3.77	-0.012***	-4.21	0.009***	4.39	0.001	0.58
	Number of children aged 0-4	0.000	0.46	0.000	-0.05	-0.008**	-2.09	0.008**	2.42
	Number of adults aged 18-64	-0.002***	-2.62	0.015***	3.12	-0.015***	-4.29	0.002	0.81
	Number of adults aged 65+	-0.003	–1.47	0.014	1.35	-0.001	-0.19	-0.010	-1.52
	Monthly household income: 120000–299999 TZS	-0.005**	-2.54	0.023**	2.34	-0.004	-0.61	-0.014**	-2.40
	Monthly household income: 300000–499999 TZS	-0.005**	-2.39	0.029**	2.37	-0.015*	-1.76	-0.009	-1.13
	Monthly household income: >=500000 TZS	-0.008***	-3.32	0.043***	3.29	-0.022**	-2.34	-0.013*	-1.68
Access to basic services	Electricity	-0.011***	-4.86	0.063***	5.32	-0.053***	-6.41	0.000	0.05
	Piped water	-0.005***	-2.63	0.024**	2.39	0.000	-0.05	-0.018***	-3.04
	Proximity of school (30 minutes' walk)	-0.016***	-4.91	0.072***	5.53	-0.005	-0.56	-0.052***	-5.74
Residence	Urban	-0.026***	-7.85	0.124***	10.13	-0.061***	-6.97	-0.037***	-4.86
Regions	Arusha	-0.011***	-3.38	-0.052	-1.35	0.119***	3.19	-0.056***	-11.75
	Kilimanjaro	-0.016***	-7.98	0.047*	1.67	0.030	1.11	-0.060***	-13.70
	Tanga	-0.009***	-3.17	0.002	0.07**	0.056**	2.12	-0.049***	-7.93
	Morogoro	-0.006	-1.44	-0.012	-0.44	0.058**	2.22	-0.040***	-5.13
	Pwani	0.000	-0.02	-0.005	-0.16	0.016	0.63	-0.011	-0.70
	Dar es Salaam	-0.031***	-9.15	0.182***	11.18	-0.105***	-8.92	-0.046***	-4.68
	Lindi	-0.005	-1.14	0.031	1.12	-0.026	-1.41	0.000	0.01
	Mtwara	-0.002	-0.26	-0.078*	-1.88	0.122***	3.12	-0.043***	-5.14
	Ruvuma	-0.007	-1.54	-0.009	-0.27	0.057*	1.88	-0.042***	-4.81
	Iringa	-0.017***	-9.64	-0.006	-0.16	0.088**	2.42	-0.065***	-19.14
	Mbeya	-0.010***	-3.53	0.042	1.89*	0.008	0.40	-0.040***	-4.97
	Singida	0.013	1.34	-0.078	-1.81*	0.067*	1.86	-0.002	-0.12
	Tabora	0.019**	2.11	-0.114	-3.14***	0.103***	3.27	-0.008	-0.56
	Rukwa	0.010	1.21	-0.051	-1.44	-0.015	-0.73	0.056**	2.11
	Kigoma	0.009	1.33	-0.104	-2.90***	0.123***	3.75	-0.028***	-2.86
	Shinyanga	-0.010***	-2.91	0.020	0.69	0.034	1.26	-0.045***	-5.78

Table A4. (cont.)

Explanatory variables dy/dx		Only child labour		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
		z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	Z	dy/dx	z	
Regions	Kagera	-0.011***	-4.00	0.048	2.13**	0.003	0.17	-0.040***	-5.40
	Mwanza	-0.003	-0.67	-0.049	-1.64*	0.094***	3.40	-0.042***	-5.94
	Mara	-0.009**	-2.36	-0.044	-1.22	0.105***	3.00	-0.052***	-9.05
	Manyara	0.050***	3.23	-0.337	-7.08***	0.315***	6.96	-0.028***	-2.93
	Njombe	-0.016***	-7.86	0.112	5.15***	-0.046**	-2.47	-0.049***	-5.61
	Katavi	-0.005	-0.71	0.023	0.56	-0.003	-0.08	-0.016	-0.79
	Simiyu	0.000	-0.09	-0.085	-2.27**	0.128***	3.61	-0.042***	-5.77
	Geita	-0.003	-0.55	-0.222	-4.43*	0.281***	5.73	-0.056***	-13.23

Notes: *Education of household head: reference category – No schooling; Monthly household income category- reference category <=119999 TZS (Tanzanian shillings); Regions – reference category Dodoma (b) *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Children aged 14-17 years

Table A5. Summary descriptive statistics (unweighted averages), 14-7 years

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Child labour	0.287	0.452	0	1
Age	15.314	1.100	14	17
Age2	235.721	33.961	196	289
Male	0.490	0.500	0	1
Immigrant	0.122	0.328	0	1
Male sex of household head	0.740	0.439	0	1
Education of household head: No education	0.113	0.316	0	1
Education of household head: Primary	0.633	0.482	0	1
Education of household head: Vocational	0.071	0.257	0	1
Education of household head: Secondary or higher	0.183	0.387	0	1
Household size	6.369	2.665	1	24
Number of children aged 0-4	0.680	0.898	0	8
Number of adults aged 18–34+	2.677	1.342	0	10
Number of adults aged 65+	0.144	0.409	0	3
Household income: <=119999 TZS	0.232	0.422	0	1
Household income: 120000–299999 TZS	0.260	0.439	0	1
Household income: 300000–499999 TZS	0.197	0.398	0	1
Household income: >=500000 TZS	0.312	0.463	0	1
Electricity	0.421	0.494	0	1
Piped water	0.545	0.498	0	1
Proximity of school (30 minutes' walk)	0.845	0.362	0	1
Urban	0.699	0.459	0	1
Dodoma	0.037	0.189	0	1
Arusha	0.029	0.169	0	1
Kilimanjaro	0.026	0.159	0	1
Tanga	0.034	0.182	0	1
Morogoro	0.040	0.196	0	1
Pwani	0.018	0.133	0	1
Dar es Salaam	0.354	0.478	0	1
Lindi	0.015	0.122	0	1
Mtwara	0.026	0.159	0	1
Ruvuma	0.022	0.145	0	1
Iringa	0.020	0.139	0	1
Mbeya	0.059	0.236	0	1
Singida	0.019	0.135	0	1
Tabora	0.030	0.172	0	1
Rukwa	0.021	0.143	0	1
Kigoma	0.034	0.181	0	1
Shinyanga	0.022	0.146	0	1
Kagera	0.023	0.150	0	1

Table A5. (cont.)

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Mwanza	0.056	0.230	0	1
Mara	0.025	0.156	0	1
Manyara	0.023	0.151	0	1
Njombe	0.014	0.119	0	1
Katavi	0.006	0.080	0	1
Simiyu	0.024	0.152	0	1
Geita	0.022	0.147	0	1
Obs.: 3696				

Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Table A6. Determinants of child labour and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, 14-17 years

Explanatory variables		Only child labour		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
		dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Child characteristics	Age	0.113	0.67	0.073	0.29	0.213**	2.17	-0.399**	-2.07
	Age2	-0.002	-0.37	-0.005	-0.64	-0.007**	-2.19	0.014**	2.29
	Male	-0.033***	-3.01	0.042***	2.59	-0.011*	-1.81	0.002	0.16
	Immigrant	0.344***	13.44	-0.410***	-20.39	-0.009	-1.03	0.076***	3.42
Sex and education of household head	Male	-0.008	-0.56	0.017	0.82	0.003	0.35	-0.012	-0.75
	Primary	-0.085***	-4.46	0.145***	5.4	0.003	0.34	-0.063***	-3.05
	Vocational	-0.067***	-3.22	0.137***	3.62	0.012	0.64	-0.081***	-3.27
	Secondary or higher	-0.092***	-5.25	0.188***	5.97	0.017	1.10	-0.112***	-5.39
Household characteristics	Household size	0.009**	2.45	-0.005	-0.94	0.008***	3.86	-0.012***	-2.83
	Number of children aged 0-4	0.010	1.34	-0.031**	-2.56	-0.010**	-2.25	0.030***	3.37
	Number of adults aged 18-64	-0.011*	-1.69	0.006	0.59	-0.010***	-2.76	0.015**	2.11
	Number of adults aged 65+	0.007	0.52	-0.017	-0.81	-0.004	-0.46	0.014	0.85
	Monthly household income:120000–299999 TZS	0.007	0.44	0.005	0.21	0.015	1.55	-0.027	-1.56
	Monthly household income: 300000–499999 TZS	0.007	0.36	0.006	0.24	0.016	1.42	-0.029	-1.52
	Monthly household income: >=500000 TZS	0.041**	2.12	-0.038	-1.34	0.029**	2.37	-0.032	-1.59
Access to basic services	Electricity	-0.082***	-5.82	0.127***	5.94	-0.013	-1.59	-0.032*	-1.93
	Piped water	-0.031**	-2.40	0.045**	2.37	-0.006	-0.84	-0.008	-0.54
	Proximity of school (30 minutes' walk)	-0.051***	-2.89	0.072***	2.98	-0.009	-0.96	-0.011	-0.61
Residence	Urban	-0.135***	-7.78	0.171***	7.58	-0.036***	-3.72	0.000	-0.01
Regions	Arusha	-0.018	-0.47	0.041	0.65	0.113**	2.52	-0.136***	-5.29
	Kilimanjaro	0.013	0.31	-0.002	-0.03	0.110**	2.51	-0.121***	-4.31
	Tanga	-0.037	-1.13	0.086	1.55	0.029	1.03	-0.079**	-2.31
	Morogoro	0.052	1.21	-0.048	-0.83	0.097**	2.56	-0.101***	-3.36
	Pwani	-0.059	-1.62	0.090	1.31	-0.017	-0.77	-0.014	-0.26
	Dar es Salaam	-0.104***	-3.83	0.151***	3.41	-0.028*	-1.76	-0.019	-0.55
	Lindi	0.119*	1.83	-0.131*	-1.72	0.077	1.62	-0.066	-1.41

Table A6. (cont.)

Explanatory variables	Only child labour		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Mtwara	0.068	1.39	-0.067	-1.06	0.068*	1.85	-0.069*	-1.85
Ruvuma	0.082	1.56	-0.089	-1.34	0.047	1.35	-0.040	-0.93
Iringa	0.062	1.16	-0.065	-0.94	0.037	1.07	-0.033	-0.71
Mbeya	-0.043	-1.46	0.081	1.61	0.002	0.08	-0.039	-1.10
Singida	0.175***	2.61	-0.194***	-2.77	0.106*	2.10	-0.086**	-2.12
Tabora	-0.034	-1.00	0.081	1.39	0.070**	1.90	-0.117***	-4.09
Rukwa	0.106*	1.87	-0.122*	-1.81	0.039	1.13	-0.024	-0.49
Kigoma	0.160***	2.98	-0.230***	-4.02	0.223***	4.44	-0.153***	-7.63
Shinyanga	0.015	0.35	-0.003	-0.05	0.103**	2.37	-0.116***	-3.91
Kagera	0.054	1.08	-0.054	-0.8	0.102**	2.27	-0.102***	-3.04
Mwanza	0.012	0.34	-0.028	-0.5	0.173***	4.07	-0.158***	-8.29
Mara	-0.057*	-1.74	0.121	2.03**	0.055	1.49	-0.119***	-4.05
Manyara	0.076	1.41	-0.297	-4.83***	0.416***	6.79	-0.195***	-20.23
Njombe	-0.090***	-2.74	0.181	2.69***	0.001	0.02	-0.092**	-2.11
Katavi	0.000	0.00	-0.107	-0.88	-0.040*	-1.81	0.146	1.28
Simiyu	0.136**	2.40	-0.168	-2.63***	0.152***	3.15	-0.120***	-4.26
Geita	-0.082***	-2.86	0.143	2.34**	0.099**	2.18	-0.161***	-8.06

Notes: *Education of household head: reference category – No schooling; Monthly household income category- reference category <=119999 TZS (Tanzanian shillings); Regions – reference category Dodoma. (b) *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2014.*

Young people aged 15-35 years

Table A7. Decomposition of population by residence, sex, migration status and age group, 15-35 years

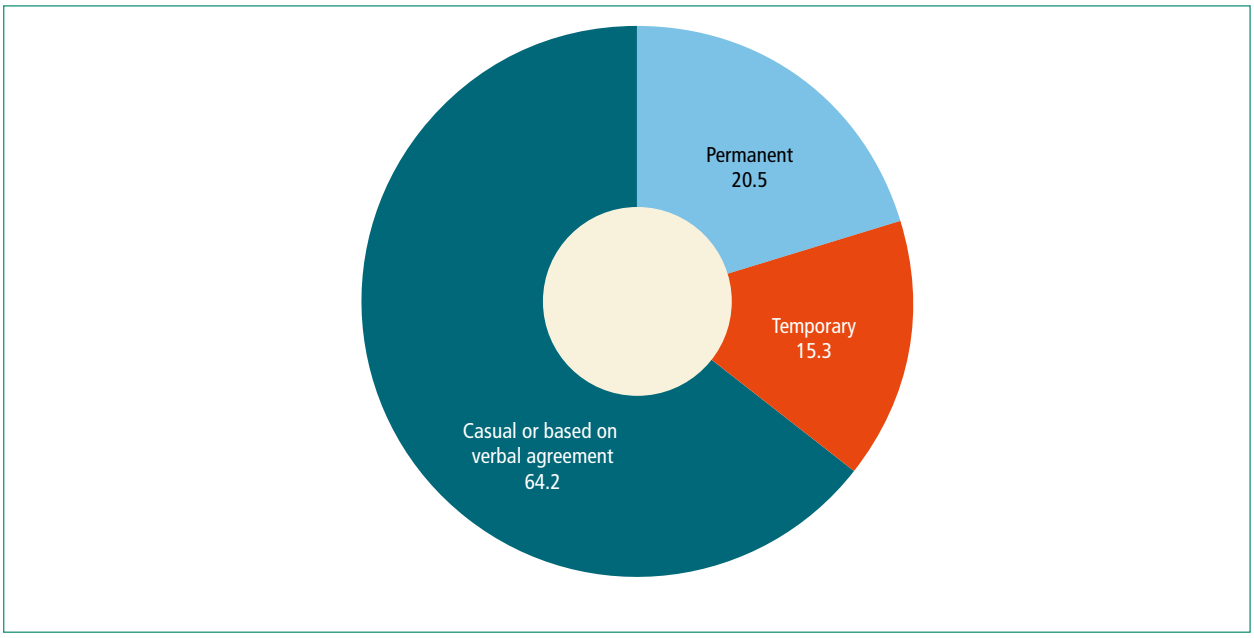
Population category		Decomposition of labour force (% population)						
		Inactive		Active				
				Employed		Unemployed[a]		
		Student	Other inactive	Student	Not student	In search for first job	Previously employed	Total
Total		**8.4**	**7.1**	**4.6**	**70.0**	**2.9**	**7.1**	**100**
Residence	Urban	13.7	8.4	2.8	61.6	5.6	7.9	100
	Rural	4.7	6.1	5.9	76.1	0.9	6.4	100
Sex	Male	9.6	4.2	4.9	73.7	2.0	5.6	100
	Female	7.4	9.7	4.2	66.6	3.6	8.4	100
Migration status	Migrant	8.3	9.2	1.9	68.8	3.9	8.0	100
	Non-migrant	8.5	6.8	4.9	70.2	2.7	6.9	100
Age group	15–19	22.1	8.0	13.7	48.3	3.2	4.8	100
	20–24	7.1	8.0	1.9	69.4	4.7	8.9	100
	25–29	1.2	7.2	0.3	81.6	2.5	7.2	100
	30–35	0.2	4.9	0.3	86.0	0.9	7.8	100
Region	Dodoma	6.3	9.3	2.7	77.9	0.5	3.3	100
	Arusha	15.0	10.3	5.1	62.3	2.2	5.1	100
	Kilimanjaro	13.2	5.6	8.8	61.7	5.4	5.2	100
	Tanga	6.9	11.5	4.0	72.9	1.4	3.4	100
	Morogoro	9.6	4.7	3.0	73.9	2.0	6.8	100
	Pwani	3.3	8.1	4.2	80.2	1.2	2.9	100
	Dar es Salaam	16.5	12.5	0.6	49.9	10.1	10.3	100
	Lindi	8.1	2.3	0.2	85.2	1.1	3.1	100
	Mtwara	3.1	4.7	5.1	77.7	3.6	5.7	100
	Ruvuma	2.5	4.5	3.2	76.6	1.1	12.0	100
	Iringa	7.8	5.3	6.8	76.9	0.8	2.5	100
	Mbeya	11.4	3.6	3.0	67.3	3.4	11.4	100
	Singida	11.1	1.0	1.4	81.2	1.0	4.3	100
	Tabora	3.5	4.9	6.3	77.2	0.5	7.5	100
	Rukwa	4.8	3.5	0.2	83.5	0.2	7.7	100
	Kigoma	5.1	3.7	8.3	79.2	1.4	2.3	100
	Shinyanga	4.3	13.0	7.4	64.0	1.7	9.6	100
	Kagera	4.2	2.2	1.4	87.7	2.9	1.5	100
	Mwanza	11.0	4.2	7.3	63.9	1.8	11.9	100
	Mara	7.0	10.7	13.9	65.4	1.2	1.8	100
	Manyara	3.0	3.5	12.2	70.9	1.0	9.4	100
	Njombe	8.3	3.8	1.3	82.5	1.7	2.4	100
	Katavi	2.6	21.0	0.0	68.5	1.7	6.2	100
	Simiyu	2.0	10.0	4.4	65.6	1.1	16.9	100
	Geita	6.8	3.2	7.8	71.5	0.2	10.5	100

Notes: *a) We use the relaxed definition of unemployment: An individual is defined as unemployed if he/she does not have a job, and is currently available for work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are included in unemployment.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Table A8. Definitions of the four ISCO skill levels

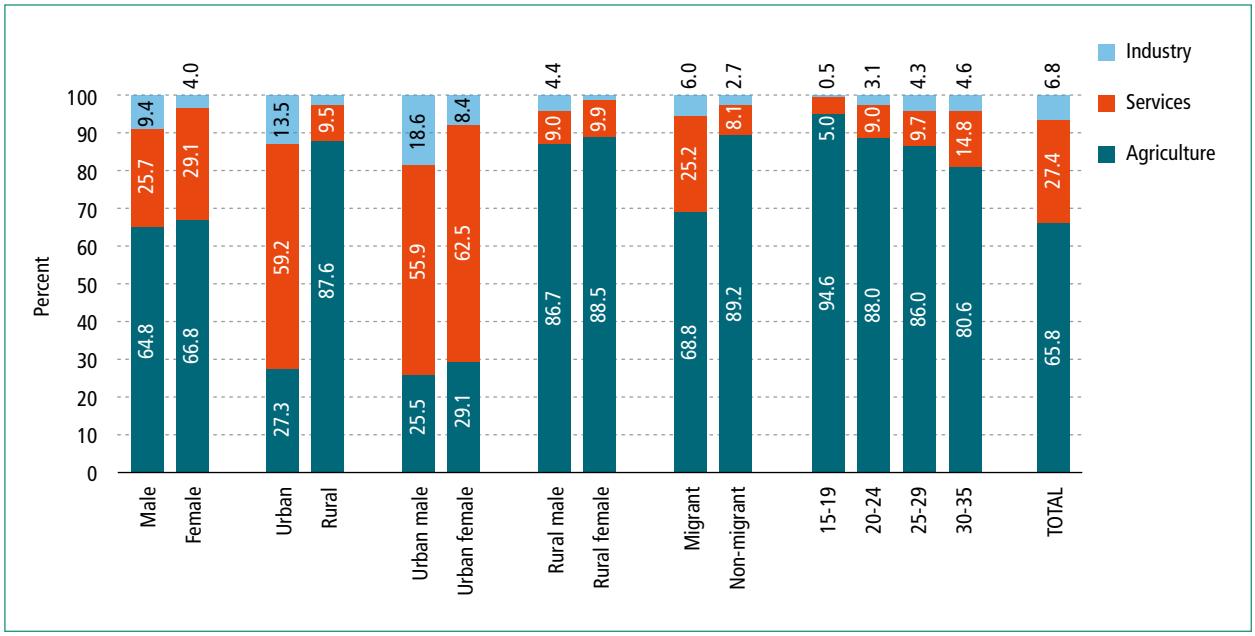
Skill Level 1.	Occupations at Skill Level 1 typically require the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks. They may require the use of hand-held tools, such as shovels, or of simple electrical equipment, such as vacuum cleaners. They involve tasks such as cleaning; digging; lifting and carrying materials by hand; sorting, storing or assembling goods by hand (sometimes in the context of mechanized operations): operating non-motorized vehicles; and picking fruit and vegetables. Many occupations at Skill Level 1 may require physical strength and/or endurance. For some jobs, basic skills in literacy and numeracy may be required. If required, these skills would not be a major part of the job.
Skill Level 2.	Occupations at Skill Level 2 typically involve the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment; driving vehicles; maintenance and repair of electrical and mechanical equipment; and manipulation, ordering and storage of information. For almost all occupations at Skill Level 2, the ability to read information such as safety instructions, to make written records of work completed, and to accurately perform simple arithmetical calculations is essential. Many occupations at this skill level require relatively advanced literacy and numeracy skills and good interpersonal communication skills. In some occupations, these skills are required for a major part of the work. Many occupations at this skill level require a high level of manual dexterity.
Skill Level 3.	Occupations at Skill Level 3 typically involve the performance of complex technical and practical tasks that require an extensive body of factual, technical and procedural knowledge in a specialized field. Occupations at this skill level generally require a high level of literacy and numeracy and well-developed interpersonal communication skills. These skills may include the ability to understand complex written material, prepare factual reports and communicate with people who are distressed.
Skill Level 4.	Occupations at Skill Level 4 typically involve the performance of tasks which require complex problem-solving and decision-making based on an extensive body of theoretical and factual knowledge in a specialized field. The tasks performed typically include analysis and research to extend the body of human knowledge in a particular field, diagnosis and treatment of disease, imparting knowledge to others, design of structures or machinery and of processes for construction and production. Occupations at this skill level generally require extended levels of literacy and numeracy, sometimes at a very high level, and excellent interpersonal communication skills. These skills generally include the ability to understand complex written material and communicate complex ideas in media such as books, reports and oral presentations.

Figure A4. Permanency of youth paid employment (percentage)



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A5. Youth sector of employment by sex, residence, age and migration status, 15-35 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Young people aged 15-24 years

Table A9. Aggregate labour market indicators by residence, sex, migration status and age, 15-24 years

Population category		% of population					% of active pop.
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET(a)	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate(b)
Total		**76.8**	**24.2**	**8.0**	**17.9**	**66.2**	**13.7**
Residence	Urban	64.1	31.0	10.3	24.8	49.1	23.4
	Rural	85.1	19.6	6.5	13.3	77.6	8.9
Sex	Male	77.5	26.3	5.5	13.6	68.8	11.3
	Female	76.1	22.1	10.4	22.0	63.8	16.1
Migration status	Migrant	77.0	16.6	9.8	23.5	63.0	18.2
	Non-migrant	76.7	25.3	7.7	17.1	66.7	13.1
Age	15–19	69.9	36.9	8.0	14.8	61.9	11.4
	20–24	84.9	9.1	8.0	21.5	71.3	16.0
Region	Dodoma	76.8	15.8	12.1	15.3	73.6	4.2
	Arusha	63.9	37.3	9.0	15.8	56.4	11.7
	Kilimanjaro	72.7	35.8	6.3	19.7	58.3	19.8
	Tanga	74.5	22.2	12.6	17.3	68.4	8.1
	Morogoro	78.4	21.9	4.9	14.5	68.7	12.3
	Pwani	82.3	13.7	11.6	17.3	76.6	7.0
	Dar es Salaam	52.3	33.2	15.3	37.3	30.1	42.4
	Lindi	79.7	16.2	4.4	9.5	74.6	6.4
	Mtwara	89.8	19.6	3.0	17.4	74.7	16.9
	Ruvuma	89.2	10.4	6.1	23.4	72.0	19.4
	Iringa	80.3	26.8	4.4	9.9	74.8	6.8
	Mbeya	72.1	29.1	6.0	22.4	54.6	24.2
	Singida	79.4	22.3	1.0	7.0	73.2	7.8
	Tabora	87.6	19.5	5.7	10.8	81.7	6.7
	Rukwa	85.9	10.0	4.5	16.4	74.1	13.8
	Kigoma	86.7	22.9	4.7	9.1	82.3	5.1
	Shinyanga	79.3	20.8	13.4	24.4	68.3	13.9
	Kagera	88.9	10.6	3.0	7.3	84.0	5.5
	Mwanza	77.1	32.4	4.0	14.6	65.7	14.8
	Mara	80.4	34.0	8.2	10.7	77.9	3.2
	Manyara	90.1	27.8	4.7	15.2	78.4	13.0
	Njombe	77.9	23.7	5.2	7.9	71.0	8.9
	Katavi	65.7	4.3	30.0	34.9	60.8	7.5
	Simiyu	87.1	13.5	9.5	24.2	69.8	19.9
	Geita	83.7	28.0	4.6	13.1	72.6	13.2

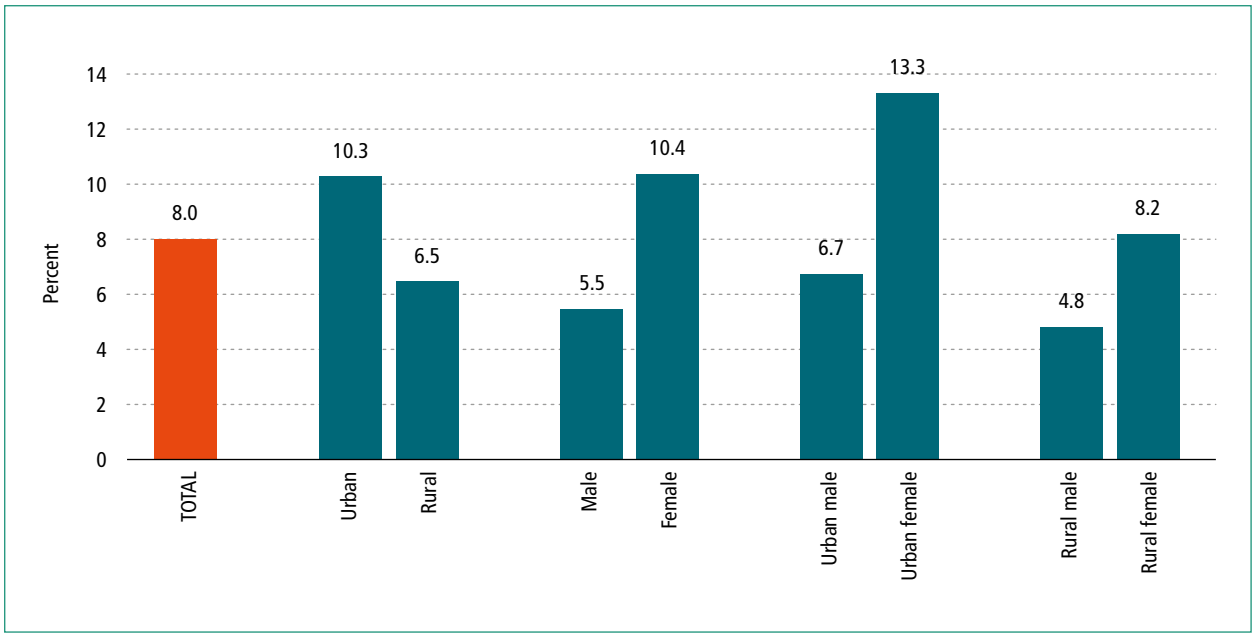
Notes: *NEET refers to youth who are not in education, employment or training. It is a measure that therefore reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed. b) We use the relaxed definition of unemployment: an individual is defined as unemployed if he/she does not have a job, and is currently available for work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are included in unemployment.*

Table A10. Decomposition of population by residence, sex, migration status and age, 15-24 years

Population category		Decomposition of labour force (% population)						
		Inactive		Active				
				Employed		Unemployed[a]		
		Student	Other inactive	Student	Not student	In search for first job	Previously employed	Total
Total		**15.2**	**8.0**	**8.3**	**57.9**	**3.9**	**6.7**	**100**
Residence	Urban	25.6	10.3	4.9	44.2	7.8	7.2	100
	Rural	8.4	6.5	10.5	67.0	1.3	6.3	100
Sex	Male	17.0	5.5	8.7	60.1	3.2	5.5	100
	Female	13.6	10.4	7.9	55.9	4.5	7.7	100
Migration status	Migrant	13.1	9.8	3.1	59.9	5.7	8.3	100
	Non-migrant	15.5	7.7	9.0	57.7	3.6	6.4	100
Age	15–19	22.1	8.0	13.7	48.3	3.2	4.8	100
	20–24	7.1	8.0	1.9	69.4	4.7	8.9	100
Region	Dodoma	11.0	12.1	4.6	69.0	0.6	2.6	100
	Arusha	27.2	9.0	9.5	46.9	1.9	5.5	100
	Kilimanjaro	21.1	6.3	13.8	44.5	8.2	6.2	100
	Tanga	13.0	12.6	7.9	60.5	1.2	4.9	100
	Morogoro	16.7	4.9	5.2	63.6	2.4	7.3	100
	Pwani	6.1	11.6	7.5	69.1	2.3	3.4	100
	Dar es Salaam	32.3	15.3	0.6	29.5	13.9	8.3	100
	Lindi	15.8	4.4	0.4	74.3	1.8	3.3	100
	Mtwara	7.1	3.0	11.6	63.0	7.7	7.5	100
	Ruvuma	4.7	6.1	5.8	66.2	0.8	16.5	100
	Iringa	15.2	4.4	11.5	63.3	1.6	3.9	100
	Mbeya	21.9	6.0	6.1	48.5	5.9	11.5	100
	Singida	19.7	1.0	2.5	70.7	1.7	4.5	100
	Tabora	6.7	5.7	11.9	69.8	1.0	4.9	100
	Rukwa	9.6	4.5	0.4	73.7	0.3	11.5	100
	Kigoma	8.6	4.7	14.4	67.9	2.1	2.4	100
	Shinyanga	7.3	13.4	13.4	54.8	3.1	7.9	100
	Kagera	8.0	3.0	2.0	82.0	4.4	0.5	100
	Mwanza	18.9	4.0	12.6	53.0	2.4	9.0	100
	Mara	11.3	8.2	22.6	55.2	1.9	0.6	100
	Manyara	5.2	4.7	21.4	57.0	1.4	10.3	100
	Njombe	16.8	5.2	2.6	68.4	3.1	3.8	100
	Katavi	4.3	30.0	0.0	60.8	2.3	2.7	100
	Simiyu	3.4	9.5	7.5	62.2	1.1	16.2	100
	Geita	11.7	4.6	13.6	59.0	0.4	10.6	100

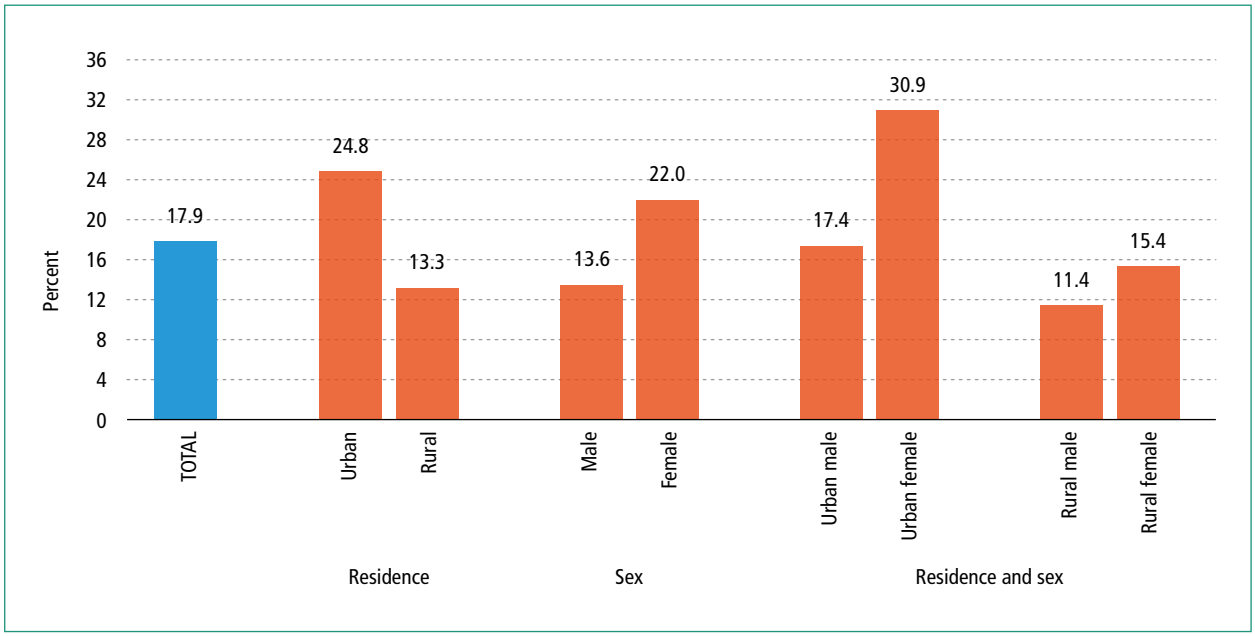
Notes: *We use the relaxed definition of unemployment: An individual is defined as unemployed if he/she does not have a job, and is currently available for work. In accordance with the national definition of unemployment persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities are included in unemployment.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A6. Young people who are inactive and out of education, by sex and residence, 15–24 years



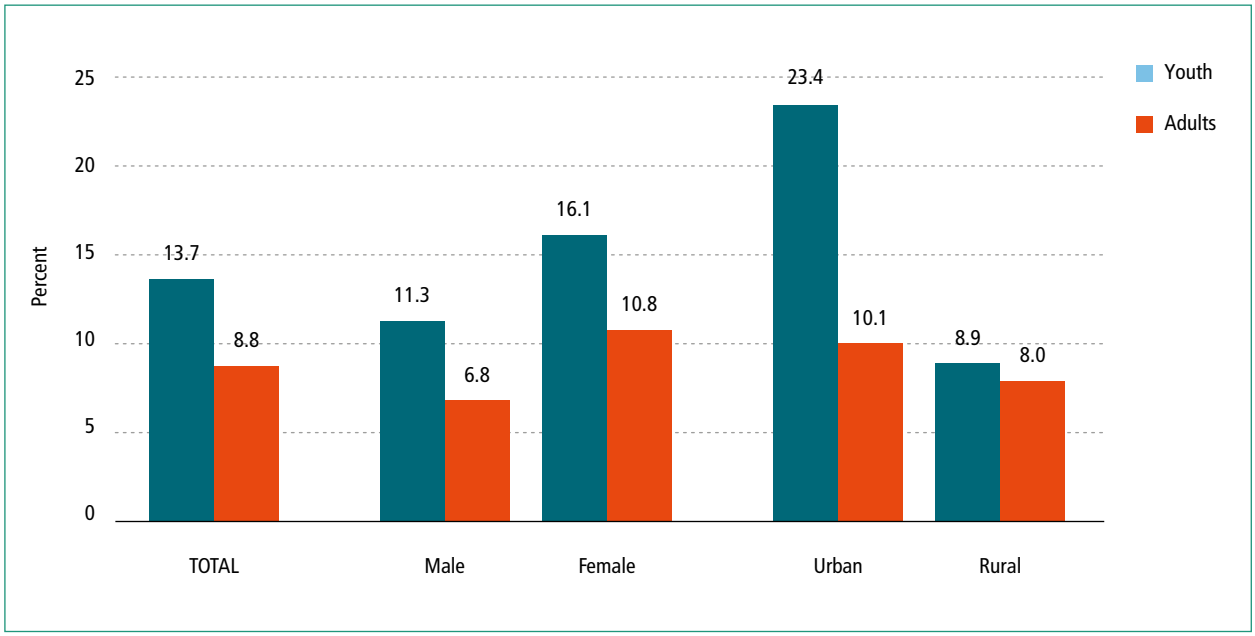
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A7. Percentage of young people who are NEET[(a)] by sex and residence, 15-24 years



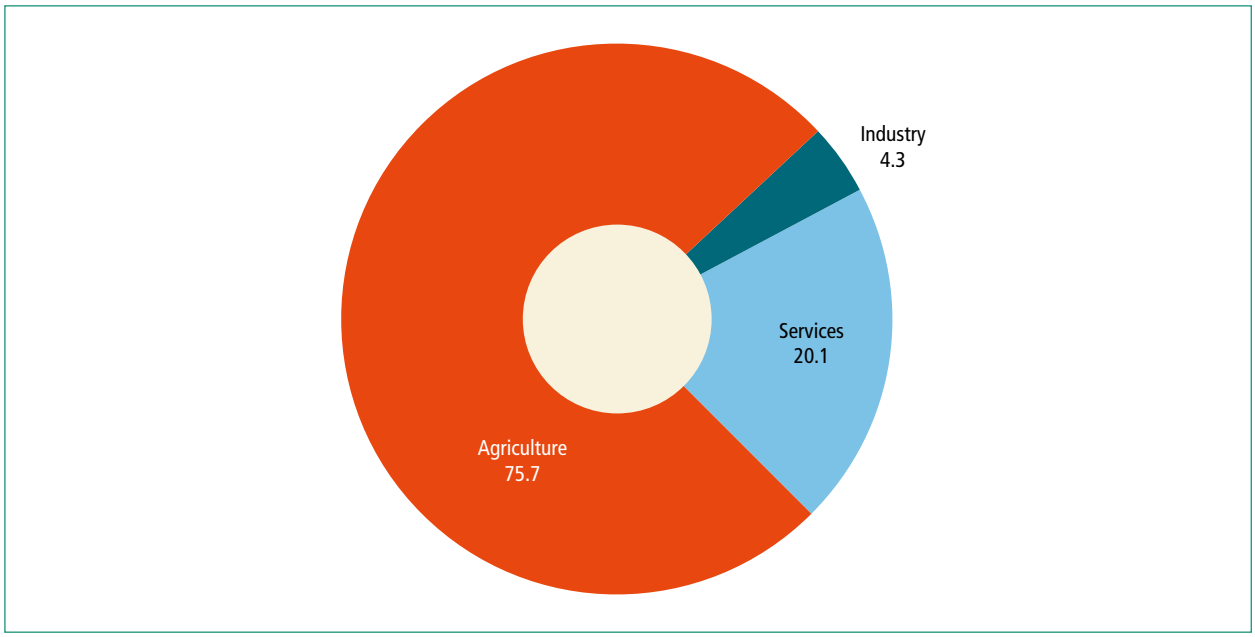
Note: *(a) NEET refers to youth who are not in education, employment or training. It is a measure that therefore reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed.*
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A8. Unemployment rate, youth aged 15–24 and adult workers



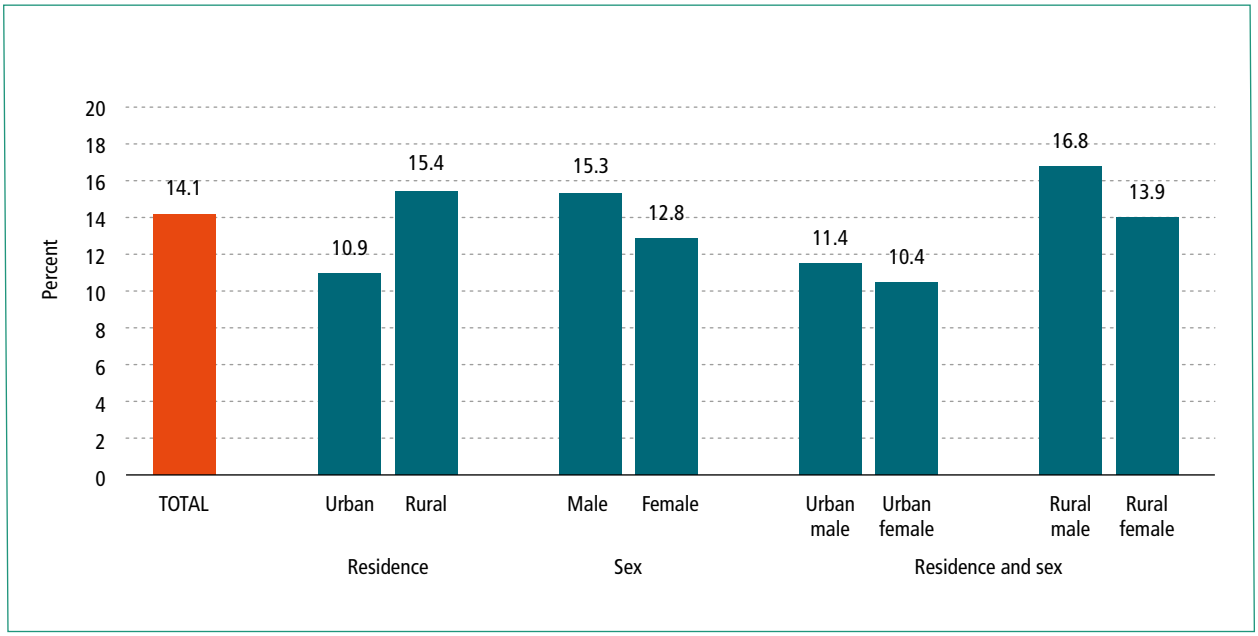
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A9. Employed youth by sector of employment, 15-24 years (percentage)



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

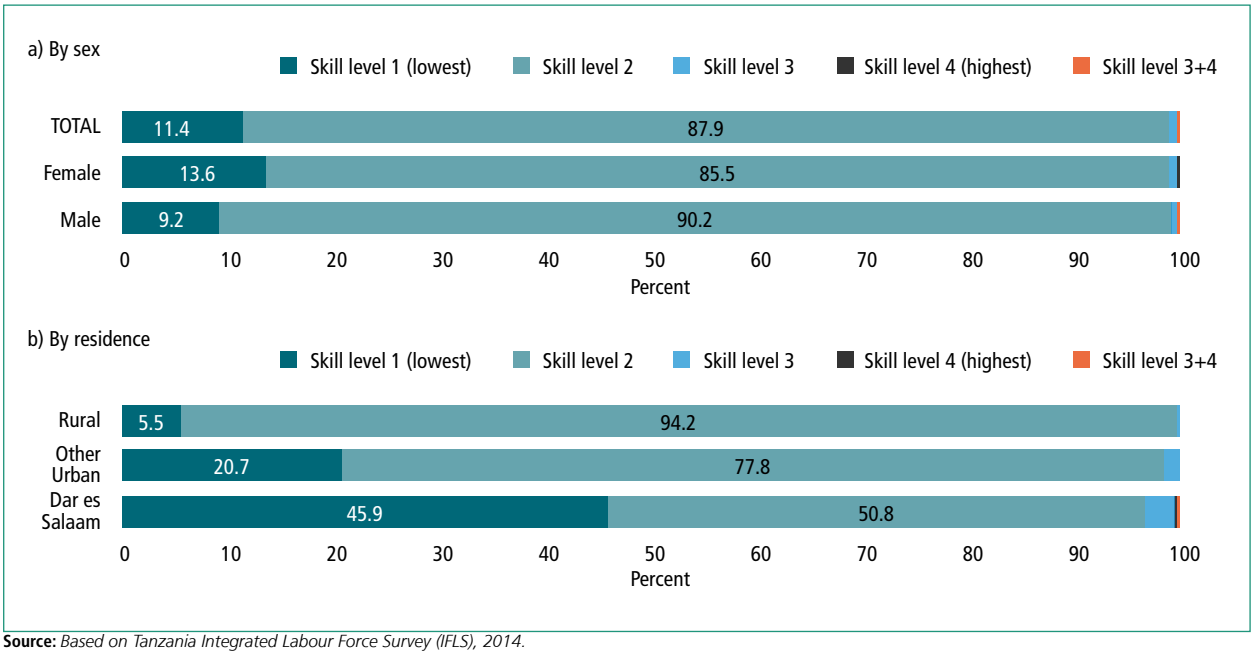
Figure A10. Youth underemployment rate[(a)] by sex and residence, 15-24 years



Note: *(a) The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment. A person is considered in a situation of underemployment if he/she works less than 40 hours a week and would be available to work for more hours.*

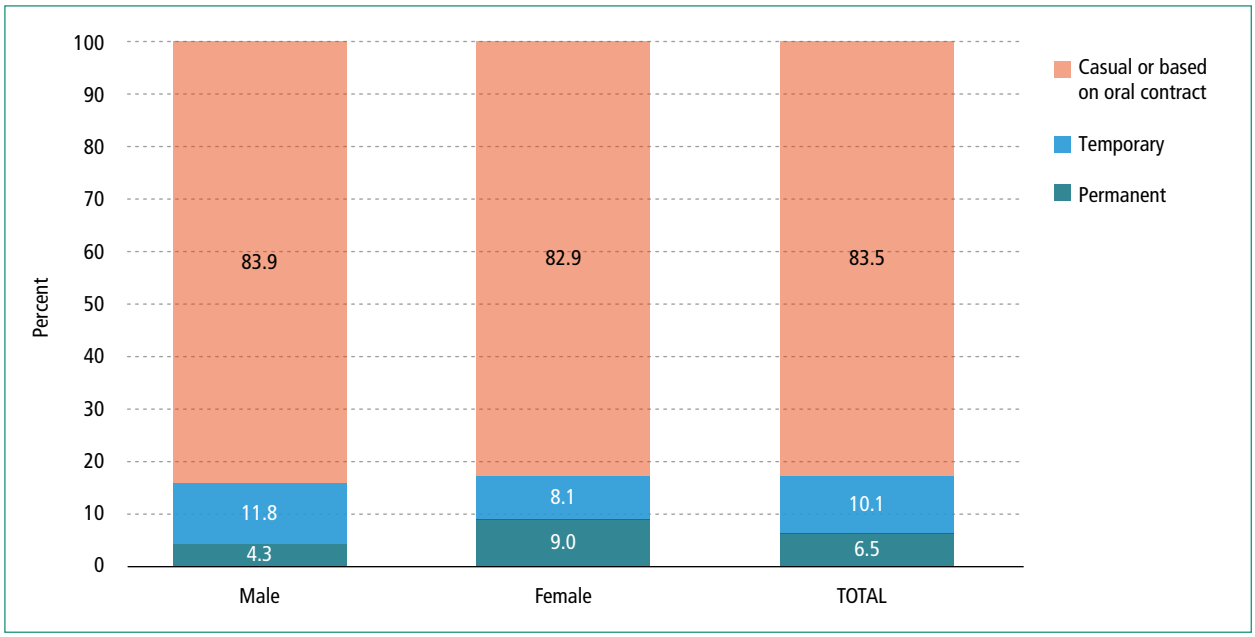
Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A11. Skill level classification of youth jobs, 15–24 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

Figure A12. Employed youth in wage jobs by permanency and sex, 15-24 years



Source: *Based on Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (IFLS), 2014.*

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