

## STRATEGIC SHIFTS: WORKERS' RIGHTS IN TANZANIA'S INDUSTRIAL LANDSCAPE

Dr. Veronica Jane Mwakatobe<sup>1</sup>

### Article Info

**Keywords:** Industrial Development, Economic Growth, Workers' Rights, East Asian Economies, Income Inequality

### Abstract

Industrial development stands as a linchpin driving transformative shifts across global economies. Numerous studies underscore its pivotal role in effecting structural changes and propelling economic growth in diverse nations. Notably, the economic ascent of East Asian nations like Korea, Thailand, Singapore, and Taiwan during the 1960s to 1990s can be largely attributed to the impetus provided by industrialization. This trajectory exemplifies the symbiotic relationship between industrialization and economic progress, a critical precursor to establishing fundamental workers' rights within a populace.

Broadly, industrialization encompasses a spectrum of economic and social processes geared towards optimizing production efficiency, collectively consolidated under the aegis of 'industry' or the 'secondary sector'. This transition signifies a pivotal shift away from traditional agrarian economies towards manufacturing-driven activities, demarcated by a discernible decline in the primary sector and a commensurate surge in the secondary sector.

The dynamic growth observed in East Asian economies is intrinsically linked to the swift structural metamorphosis from agrarian pursuits to robust manufacturing endeavors. This transformation has yielded a confluence of outcomes, including accelerated employment rates and notable enhancements in health and safety standards. While India has marked a substantial reduction in poverty since the 1980s, some nations have experienced poverty mitigation through augmented income levels among the marginalized.

In the initial phases of industrialization and economic ascension, territories like Taiwan and South Korea witnessed a noteworthy reduction in income inequality. However, this pattern wasn't universal, as a select few countries grappled with burgeoning income disparities amidst growth.

---

<sup>1</sup> PhD, Lecturer, Labour Studies Department (Institute of Social Work), P. O. Box 3375, Dar es Salaam-Tanzania.

## 1. Introduction

Industrial development has been a key driver to structural changes in most countries of the world (Carol et al, 2016:1; Sharma, 2014:1; Wangwe and Rweyemamu, 2004:1). Studies show that economic growth of some East Asian countries such as Korea, Thailand, Singapore and Taiwan between 1960 and 1990s for instance, was triggered by industrialization (Levine, 1997:3; Rodrik, 2007:7; Singh and Zammit, 2004:92). Industrialization is viewed as a necessary factor for a diversified economy towards achieving economic growth for enabling the provision of basic workers' rights in a given population (Frances and Karen, 2011:199; Sharma, 2014).

Broadly defined, industrialization refers to "a set of economic and social processes related to the discovery of more efficient ways of production, collectively grouped under the label 'industry' or 'the secondary sector', the primary sector of economic activity referring to agriculture, hunting, fishing and resource extraction, and the tertiary sector referring to services" (Simandan, 2009:419). It refers to a process of shifting from traditional agrarian economy towards manufacturing activities; the key indicator being decline in share of primary sector and increased share of the manufacturing or secondary sector (Timmer and Szirmai, 2000).

The growth of economy in East Asian countries is considered to have been associated with rapid structural changes from agriculture to manufacturing, rapid employment growth, and improvement in health and safety standards (Singh and Zammit, 2004:92). For instance, while India is reported to have experienced a significant poverty decline since 1980s (Kniivilä, 2008), in some countries poverty was reduced by increased income level of the impoverished (Joshua, 2017:121).

Early stages of industrialization and economic growth in Taiwan and South Korea were associated with decrease in income inequality although in few countries growth was characterized by increase in income inequality (Kniivilä, 2008; Sarntisart, 2000).

While some countries have achieved prosperity and decent standard of living for their citizens with vigorous industrial sector (Singh and Zammit, 2004), in Tanzania, the industrial sector has historically played a little role in the country's structural transformation (Diyamett and Mutambala, 2014:3). However, recently, industrialization has been re-emphasised through the country's Development Vision, 2025 towards transforming the country to middle-income status by 2025. Currently, Tanzania is experiencing an economic transition (Kweka and Ugarte, 2013; URT, 2016/17). As indicated by the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), economic growth is increasing. For instance, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increased from 4.9 percent in 2000 to 6.9 percent in 2012 (Diyamett and Mutambala, 2014:3; World Bank, 2013).

Between 2010 and 2015 the economic growth averaged 6.7 percent higher than that of Sub-Saharan Africa of 4.9 percent (NBS, 2015). In the first quarter of 2015, the GDP grew at a rate of 6.5 percent while the second quarter registered a growth rate of 7.9 percent and, 6.3 percent in the third quarter (up from 5.4 percent for the third quarter of 2014). It is worthwhile to note that although the industrial sector is anticipated to contribute significantly to the GDP, industrialization is still at infant stage. The GDP is contributed by different sectors of the economy. For instance, manufacturing, transport, communication, construction and agriculture all together contribute 70 percent of the GDP (Dololte, 2015:1). The industrial sector contributes 21.1 percent (URT, 2016:47).

With economic growth, Tanzania is envisioned to improve workers' quality of livelihood<sup>2</sup> which is important because economic growth alone, without due regard to workers' wellbeing is likely to marginalize and exclude workers from the benefits of growth (Mckay and Vizard, 2005:3) and, the consequences may include escalation of poverty rather than improved workers' quality of livelihood (Diyamett and Mutambala, 2014:1).

---

<sup>2</sup> Improved workers' quality of livelihood is also envisioned in the Tanzania Development Vision, 2015.

As the ILO also recommends, economic growth should take into account decent standard of living which include adherence to workers' rights. In fact, one of the key components of the ILO decent work agenda is workers' rights protection although the right challenge is one of the central challenges that confront the ILO decent work agenda (Barrientos, 2007). Therefore, the focus of this article is to address the question of whether or not workers' rights are protected along with economic growth in Tanzania. The article examines prospects and challenges towards attaining workers' rights under a new industrial strategy in Tanzania.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Empirical materials on which the article is based were collected mainly from secondary sources. A systematic review of various materials was done in historical perspective to analyze industrial development in Tanzania. The materials were mostly searched through open access data bases, Google books and Google scholar search engines. The reviewed materials include national policies, strategies and plans on industrialization as well as development Vision, 2025. Additional materials were explored to give insights into economic growth and workers' rights.

Wider secondary data sets is acknowledged as useful for providing a researcher with access to more information than would be to the primary data (Vartanian, 2011:1). Secondary materials were appropriate to the study given that they were readily available and less costly in terms of accessibility (Wrenn et al, 2007:72). Considering that secondary data are not simple data to be used (Flick, 2009:256), the quality of information was assessed on the basis of four recommended criteria for assessing secondary data, namely, authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning (Flick, 2009:257; Scott, 1990:6).

To ensure comprehensive understanding of industrial development and economic growth in Tanzania, a comparative approach was employed whereby industrialization initiatives were examined and compared at preindependence and, post-independence period which was further subdivided into centralized and neo-liberal period.

To gain insights into successes and challenges associated with economic growth and workers' rights in Tanzania, a comparative approach was also adopted whereby experiences of industrialization and economic growth from some successful East Asian countries were examined and compared with the Tanzania's experience. A comparative approach is acknowledged as useful for widening knowledge through studying simultaneously, the global, national and local dimensions of issues (Bartlett and Vavrus, 2017:1). Data analysis took into account the recurrent patterns of information after reading and re-reading textual materials from different sources.

Themes for analyzing data were identified from recurring patterns through the data. As Merriam argues, "the Analysis usually results in the identification of recurring patterns that cut through the data" (Merriam, 1998:11).

## 3. Industrialization Drive in Tanzania: Historical Overview

Although there is no evidence of any constructed manufacturing industry in the country during colonial time, the main emphasis was on extraction of minerals and production of raw materials such as sisal, coffee and cotton for exporting abroad (Mussa, 2014; Ngowi, 2009; Singh and Zammit, 2004). As Rodney (1973) also argues, the colonial subjects were compelled to depend on the manufactured goods from the colonial masters by producing what they didn't consume and consume what they didn't produce. However, initiatives to industrialization started soon after independence in 1961.

### 3.1. Post Independence Industrial Phase (1961-1967)

The post independence industrial phase was a period of "experimentation with various policies and strategies, aimed at bringing about rapid and sustainable socio-economic development in less developed countries (Chambua, 1994:37). During the early years after independence, the post independent country (Tanganyika by then) was the least industrialized compared to Kenya and Uganda (Ngowi, 2009; Rweyemamu, 1973).

Initially, the focus was on the private sector-led import substitution manufacturing industries. In 1964, Tanzania launched the Three Year Development Plan which centred on agriculture as a potential economic sector to promote industrialization in the country. The majority of established industries during this time were agricultural processing and light import substitution industries. Consumer goods, mainly food and textiles were the dominant products. However, the growth of the private sector-led industrialization was weakened by the introduction of "Ujamaa and self-reliance policy by the Arusha Declaration of 1967. The policy changed the private-led industrialization to the public-led industrialization (Mollel, 2005; Mussa, 2014).

### **3.1.1. Centralized Industrial Phase (1967-1980s)**

After the Arusha declaration in 1967, the national economy was controlled by the state. Most privately owned firms were nationalized and new parastatals created. The earlier established Small Industry Development Organization (SIDO) promoted small scale industrial development at local levels while the National Bank of Commerce (NBC) was responsible for raising fund for industrial projects (Morrissey and Leyaro, 2015:3; Mussa, 2014).

According to Musa (2014), by 1970 Tanzania had attained self-reliant in fabrics. More than 2,000 industrial firms were established compared to 220 at independence. The industrial growth rate exceeded the rate of growth of the whole economy in mid 1960s and up to 1972. A variety of industrial items mainly consumer goods such as food, clothing, tobacco products, glassware, household plastics, beer, pharmaceuticals, footwear and soap were manufactured. Moreover, towards the end of the decade of independence, Tanzania was producing intermediate products such as building materials including cement, steel frames and chipboard. Production was mostly labour intensive. Thus, direct and indirect employment opportunities were generated. This affirmative progress was implemented in the context of Five Years Development Plans (1964-1969 and 1969-1974) with Import Substitution Industrialization Strategy (Mussa, 2014:4). Nevertheless, by late 1970s, Tanzania experienced a steady decline in economy. In fact economic crisis besieged the whole African continent starting with the oil crisis of 1973 as reflected in high indebtedness ratios, the fiscal crisis of the states, low level of production in all sectors, poor social services and physical infrastructure as well as low level of living standards and well beings of the people (Musoke, 1991:69).

Between 1975 and 1981, industrial growth rate in Tanzania was about 0.6 percent whereas between 1981 and 1985 the growth rate averaged negative 3.9 percent (Mussa, 2014:7). The decline was caused by external and internal factors including global oil crisis, collapse of East African Community, the war with Uganda in 1978-9, corruption, unavailability of efficient infrastructure network, inadequate and unreliable power supply, lack of technology and managerial skills as well as decline in agricultural products leading to shortage of raw materials and deficit of foreign currency (Gabagambi, 2013:97; Mollel, 2005:2; Wangwe et al, 2014:43; Wangwe and Rweyemamu, 2004:2).

### **3.1.2. Neo-Liberal Industrial Phase (1980s to date)**

The period is marked by a shift in ideology from public-led economy to free market-led economy under the auspices of IMF and World Bank initiated Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). According to Africanus (2004), Structural Adjustment Programmes started with the National Economy Survival Programme (NESP 1980-82) followed by Structural Adjustment Programme [SAP 1983-85]. The NESP and SAP were stabilization programmes aiming at major structural reforms. Areas of emphasis were the achievement of positive growth rate in per capita income, lowering the rate of inflation and restoration of sustainable balance of payment.

Adjustment processes by IMF and World Bank in Tanzania, however, are traceable to the period of the adoption of the first Economic Recovery Programmes (ERP1 1986-1989) and Economic and Social Programmes also

known as ERP11 [1989-1992]. Unlike the NESP and SAP, significant structural transformation was embodied in ERPII. It was through ERP II that the issue of Foreign Direct Investment (F.D.I) began to feature prominently from the early 1990s (Africanus, 2004:45).

Owing to economic transformation, the role of government has been significantly reduced while that of the private sector strengthened as the main driver of economic development in the country. However, the turning point for the current industrialization agenda in Tanzania was the year 1996 when Sustainable Industrial Development Policy [SIDP] (2020) was adopted. The policy aimed at making the private sector the key player in the economy by shifting most productive activities to the sector (URT, 1996). The Tanzania Development Vision [TDV], 2025 which was developed during the late 1990s was launched in 2000.

To achieve implementation of the Tanzania's Development vision 2025, numerous policies, strategies and plans have been adopted. Examples of the adopted policies, plans and strategies include: Sustainable Development Policy (1996-2020), Small and Medium Enterprise Development Policy (2003), National Trade Policy (2003), Long Term Perspective Plan (LTPP) 2011/12-2025/26, National Five Year Development Plan I (2011/12 to 2015/16), National Five Year Development Plan II (2016/17-2020/2), Tanzania Mini Tiger Plan (2020) and, the Integrated Industrial Development Strategy (2025).

The current industrialization initiatives are reflected in the National Five Year Development Plan II (2016/17-2020/2) which centrally focuses on nurturing industrialization for Economic Transformation and Human Development. The plan incorporates the Five Year Development Plan I and the second National Strategy for Growth and Poverty Alleviation (NSGPA / MKUKUTA II) which emphasizes job creation as well as mass employment for Tanzanians as a means for poverty alleviation. Industrial growth is targeted to account for 25 percent of the GDP by 2025. The industrial sector contributed 21.1 percent to the GDP by 2015. The sector is also targeted to share 20 percent of employment by 2025 from 8 percent of 2015 (URT, 2016:47).

It is imperative to note that socio-economic transformation based on neo liberalism and Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) in Tanzania also entails the permeation of labour relations and practices and rules of the game that are universally acceptable and, as a general rule, based on international labour standards which are usually contained in the ILO Conventions and Recommendations (Africanus, 2004:3; Musoke, 1999:106).

When ratified, Conventions become binding on the states involved while Recommendations offer guidance of a non-binding nature to policy formulation. Some of the ILO Conventions require respect for basic human rights which incorporates workers' rights and civil society including trade union freedom and autonomy (Valticos, 1998:135).

#### **4. Workers' Rights: Conceptual and Theoretical Underpinning**

Workers' rights or labour rights are provisions that are meant to protect workers in the course of employment relations with employers, as for example; against discrimination and exploitation which may manifest in long working hours and low wages (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010:11; Scherrer and Greven, 2001:16). While labour market regulations are argued to have emerged before 14<sup>th</sup> century in Europe, the origin of modern labour rights movements dates back to the British Factory Act of 1802 which regulated the working conditions of pauper apprentices by setting twelve-hour a day and ruling out night work (Brown, 2001:90). According to Brown (op.cit), the drive to harmonize international labour practices began during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Following the end of World War I, international labour rights agenda was broadened with establishment of the ILO. Thus, workers' rights are viewed to have been the consequence of struggle based on the need to secure certain measures of dignity for workers in different periods including the era of industrial revolution (Budeli, 2007:57).



The proponents of class struggle have tended to suggest confrontational means for achieving workers' rights (Buhle and Collective, 2016; Marx, 1859, 1971). For instance, Marx (1818-1884) argues that change between the opposites or incompatible forces is possible through constant class struggle (Africanus, 2004:18; Marx, 1859, 1971:20). In this perspective, workers are perceived as exploited and oppressed class whose rights are violated by employers-the owners of capital and controllers of labour and labour power. Thus, contradiction and antagonistic relationship exist between the two adversaries (see also, Elster, 1986:81-84; John, et al, 1982).

Contrary to the Marxist outlook, some scholars such as Blitt (2012) and Lowman (2001) theorize workers and employers as complementary partners with a symbiotic kind of relationship in working places. This pluralistic view is relevant particularly in the modern liberalized economy where harmonious labour relation is desired towards realization of business goals and workers' rights as enshrined in numerous instruments. It is acknowledged that contemporary business undertakings are influenced by not only global business transactions but also international human rights system which oblige business firms to respect and protect for workers' rights (Blitt, 2012:43; Lowman, 2001:455).

The need for respecting and protecting workers' rights has been reinforced by the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights of 1948. Article 23 (1) of the Declaration for example, recognises the right of a person to work, to free employment choice, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. It also stipulates the right to equal payment, to just and favourable remuneration to a worker ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection. Article 23 (4) guarantee workers the right to form and join unions for the protection of rights (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). Workers' rights also have been promoted by the ILO since its inception in 1919. The ILO Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at work adopted in 1998 highlighted eight fundamental Conventions that cover basic workers' rights (Brown, 2001:94; ILO, 2014:15; Singh and Zammit, 2004:86). The Conventions are highlighted in Table 2:

**Table 2: The ILO Fundamental Conventions**

Convention	Year	Provision
1.	No.29 1930	Suppression of Forced Labour in all Forms
2.	No.87 1948	Freedom of Association and the Protection of the Right to Organize
3.	No.98 1949	Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining
4.	No.100 1951	Equal Remuneration and Benefits for Men and Women for Work of Equal Value
5.	No.105 1957	Abolition of Compulsory Labour
6.	No.111 1958	Elimination of Discrimination in Employment and Occupation (on grounds of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion etc).
7.	No.138 1973	Minimum Age for Admission to Employment
8.	No.182 1999	Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (slavery, prostitution, pornography and any illicit activities which are likely to harm health, safety and morals of children.

Source: ILO (2014:15).

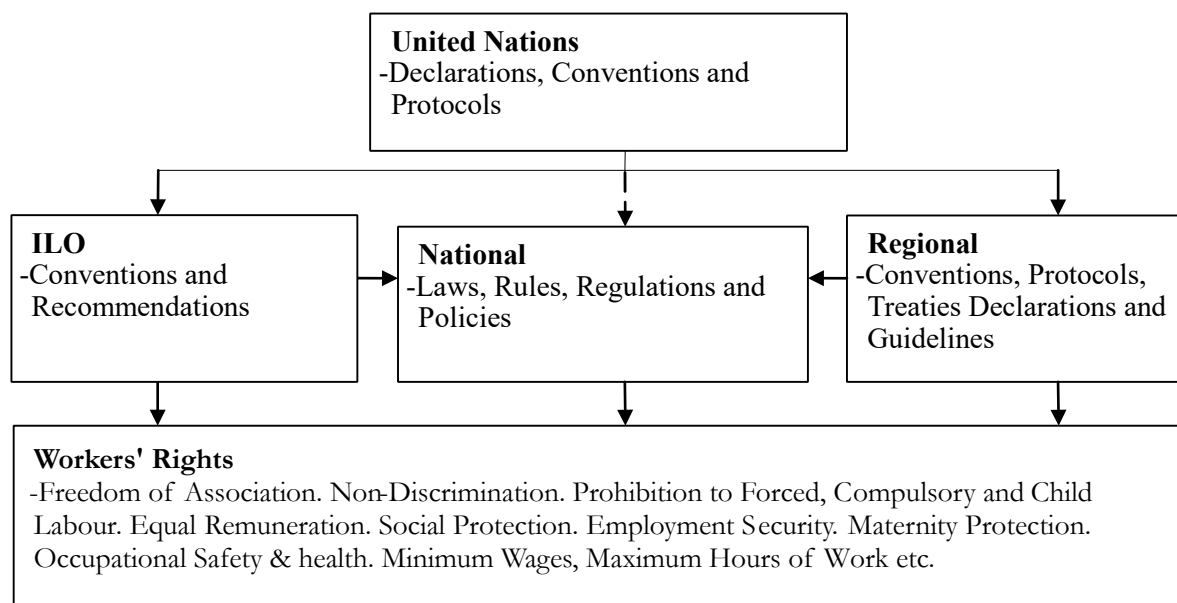
The focus of the ILO fundamental or core Conventions are four main issues considered as basic workers' rights, namely, Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining, Elimination of Forced and Compulsory Labour, Elimination of Discrimination, and Abolition of Child Labour (ILO, 2014:15). Each basic issue is addressed by two relevant Conventions as shown in Table 3:

**Table 3: Issues covered by the ILO Fundamental Conventions**

Convention	Provision
No. 87 & 98	Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining
No. 29 & 105	Elimination of Forced and Compulsory Labour
No. 138 & 182	Abolition of Child Labour
No. 100 & 111	Elimination of Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation

Source: ILO (2014).

It should be noted that despite the fundamental Conventions, there are numerous Conventions, international human rights protocols, guidelines and treaties that are also relevant to workers' rights. These include, the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights of 1981, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 1966, and Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women of 1979 and its Optional Protocol of 1999 (URT, 2013:1,2). The foundations of workers' rights therefore include, the United Nations Organisation, the ILO as well as National and Regional instruments as depicted in Figure 1:

**Figure 1: Foundations of Workers' Rights**

Source: Author's construction.

## 5. Workers' Rights and Prospects in Tanzania

Tanzania is a signatory to numerous international and regional provisions on human and workers' rights. It has ratified several ILO Conventions including the fundamental Conventions. For instance, the Minimum Age Convention on Admission to Employment was ratified in 1998. The ILO Convention on Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour was ratified in 2001 while Freedom of Association and the Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (No. 87) and Collective Bargaining Convention (No. 98) were ratified in 2000 and 1963 respectively (ICFTU, 2006:3; ILO and NBS, 2016:iii; URT, 2013). Consequently the fundamental Conventions are incorporated in the country's labour law which also contain other provisions on workers' rights. The fundamental workers' rights and protections are contained in part II of the Act and are categorized as child labour, forced labour, discrimination as well as freedom of association. The law prohibits employment of children below

14 years although it permits light works that are unlikely to harm the child's health, development or impede on the child's rights.

A child (under 18 years) is disallowed to work in a mine, factory or on a ship as a crew or in agriculture where work conditions may be hazardous (Section 5 of ELRA). Discrimination on various grounds such as religion, nationality, gender, colour, political opinion, race, pregnancy or HIV/AIDS is also prohibited.

The law also requires employers to promote equal opportunities for men and women in the work places by adopting employment policies and practices. Freedom of association which is also guaranteed by law has been a constitutional right even before the adoption of the ILO Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work in 1998. Numerous Trade Unions have been formed in the country mostly under the umbrella of the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA). The constitution also guarantees the right to work and fair remuneration and prohibits discrimination in employment on various grounds.<sup>7</sup>

Generally, the machineries that regulate labour or workers' rights for the mainland Tanzania include:

Employment and Labour Relations Act (ELRA) No. 6 of 2004, Labour Institutions Act (LIA) No.7 of 2004, Workers Compensation Act of 2008, and Occupational and Health Act of 2003. In Zanzibar, machineries for labour regulation are: Employment Relations Act of 2005, Workers Compensation Act of 2005, and Occupational and Health Act of 2005.

With the ratified ILO standards and the prevalent laws that provide for workers' rights in Tanzania, the prospects may include the following: firstly; workers' rights are protected through enforcement of the provisions meant for that purpose, secondly; workers' rights are respected and complied with by employers in work places, thirdly; industrial disputes are managed through protection and respect for workers' rights, fourthly; harmonious labour relations and practices are promoted for the smooth running of industrial activities, fifthly; workers contribute significantly to the industrial growth through creativity and hard work and, sixthly; workers' standard of living is improving along with economic growth. But, the prospects are likely to be hypothetical unless emerging challenges to workers' rights are adequately addressed. The rights challenges observed are discussed in the following subsection.

### **5.1. Workers' Rights Challenges**

While Tanzania is a signatory to numerous instruments on workers' rights, this has not been a guarantee to effective protection of workers' rights along with economic growth in the country. The challenges observed particularly in the private sector include: poor working conditions, anti-union practices and discrimination against union members, unfair remuneration and termination of employment, absence of internal complaints handling mechanisms, exposure to physical risks and unfriendly infrastructure to vulnerable groups such as workers with disabilities and domestic workers (LO/FTF Council, 2016:8; US Department of State, 2014).

The LO/FTF Council (2016) report shows that more than 120 cases of unfair termination have been reported for arbitration hearing by the Tanzanian Mining and Construction Workers' Union (TAMICO). Additional challenges include none-existence of Trade Unions in certain economic sectors, lack of employment contracts to some employees and prevalence of child labour (LHRC, 2014). While more than 700,000 new workers reportedly enter labour market every year; decent jobs also are unavailable (ECA, 2016:12; Human Development Report, 2014). Few jobs available are mostly characterized by insecurity and low wages (Page, 2016:1; World Bank, 2014). The manufacturing sector is unable to provide enough employment opportunities. It is reported that the sector accounts for only one fifth of formal employment because of focusing on capital intensive and resource based industries which have a low rate of job creation (ECA, 2016:19; NBS, 2015).



Child labour is still prevalent besides prohibition. According to the recent survey, 29 percent of children aged between 5 to 17 years are engaged in various forms of child labour in different sectors of economy including domestic work and mining industries (ILO and NBS, 2016). Gender inequality also persists in the labour market. Evidence shows that while unemployment rate is higher for women than men, "on average, salaries paid to women are 63 percent lower than those paid to men" (ECA, 2016:21).

In some work places, environment is hazardous. Hazardous products such as needles, plastic pockets and chemical bottles are found in rivers, waste disposal sites, on beaches and open grounds (Katima, 2017). Experiences from East Asian countries reveal that "unchecked or untreated discharges of chemicals into water supplies can harm agricultural production, workers' health status and limit productivity" (Maskus, 2004:115).

While safety in the workplaces is regulated by Occupational Safety and Health Authority (OSHA), labour administration for monitoring compliance to law provisions on workers' rights is ineffective because of inadequate facilities and human resources, including labour inspectors (LHRC, 2014; Ludek, 2013; URT, 2012). While the ILO recommendation is one inspector per 40,000 workers in less developed countries, only 88 labour inspectors are available in Tanzania. This figure is equivalent to one inspector per 270,034 workers in the workforce. However, the Annual Labour Administration Report of 2011/2012, indicated a smaller figure of only 71 labour inspectors in the country (URT, 2011, 2012).

Due to weak labour inspection, ineffective enforcement of labour laws has been reported particularly in the informal sector of the economy as well as the mining sector with reported practices of bribery and lack of knowledge or awareness of the labour laws to both employers and workers (LO/FTF Council, 2016:8). For instance, it has been observed that while 66.8 percent of employees are not aware of the labour laws, those who are aware do not know the content of the laws (LHRC, 2014).

## **6. Conclusion**

While the provisions on workers' rights along with industrialization process and economic growth in Tanzania is necessary, there is a pressing need to address the emerging challenges on workers' rights towards achieving improved workers' quality of livelihood as envisioned in the country's development vision, 2025. As Ban Ki-moon also argues, economic growth alone is insufficient, more should be done to empower all categories of workers through decent work, support them through social protection, and ensure that their voices are heard.

### **6.1. Recommendations**

The government through the responsible Ministry should protect workers' rights through enforcement of international, national and regional provisions meant for that purpose. As Wambali (2009:34) argues, "a mere proclamation of workers' rights in international or national instruments is meaningless without the entrenchment of effective enforcement procedures". As also recommended internationally, employers should respect workers' rights and ensure that their activities are not detrimental to workers' rights. On the other hand, workers should have free access to remedy when their rights are unprotected or violated (United Nations, 2011).

Industrial activities should meet internationally recommended responsibilities in areas of human rights, labour welfare, environmental protection and anti-corruption through adoption of ten principles of the United Nations Global Compact derived from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, the ILO Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work of 1998, the Rio-Declaration on Environment and Development of 1992 and the United Nations Convention against Corruption of 2003 as summarised in Table 4:

**Table 4: The UN Global Compact's Ten Principles**

<b>Human rights</b>	Principle 1	Corporate/business should support and respect the protection of internationally proclaimed human rights
	Principle 2	Ensure that they are not complicit in human rights abuses
<b>Labour welfare</b>	Principle 3	Uphold freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining
	Principle 4	Eliminate all forms of forced and compulsory labour
	Principle 5	Effectively abolish child labour
	Principle 6	Eliminate discrimination in employment and occupation
<b>Environment</b>	Principle 7	Support a precautionary approach to environmental challenges
	Principle 8	Undertake initiatives to promote greater environmental responsibility
	Principle 9	Encourage development and diffusion of environmentally friendly technologies
<b>Anti-Corruption</b>	Principle 10	Work against corruption in all forms

Source: United Nations (2011).

There is an urgent need for building human capital for a competitive industrial economy with due regard to workers' rights protection in the country. The focus on human capital building should not only be centred on economists, engineers or architects as Moyo and others (2010) suggest, but also workers' rights experts, professionals in labour or work place relations, labour administration including labour officers or inspectors, mediators, arbitrators and Trade Unionists.

Trade Unions would cooperate with Human rights NGOs despite their differences (Braun and Gearhart, 2004:184) to educate workers on their rights in working environment, and to ensure that workers' rights are protected. As Joshua enlightens, Trade Union leaders should be aware that in a liberalized and competitive economy employers would prefer minimum production cost by keeping wages low, decreasing social benefits and encouraging light regulations to ensure increased profitability (Joshua, 2017:208).

Since protection of workers' rights requires enough resources, it may not be well achievable in developing countries [including Tanzania] (Mckay and Vizard, 2005:4). Owing to this fact, Trade Unions should also play active roles to ensure sustainable economic growth in the country. In this regard, the role of technology is also underscored. As Singh and Zammit (2004) suggest, "vibrant Trade Unions may positively promote changes in productivity by obliging enterprises to introduce technology that enhance productivity."

The model has been successful in some western countries towards increasing competitiveness, economic growth and social welfare provision (Singh and Zammit, 2004:93). But, it is probably less likely to succeed in Tanzania which is well endowed with surplus labour. In due regard, Trade Unions may discourage technical progress which may entail reduction of workers and hence, weakening the unions in terms of decreasing membership. However, it should be noted that whether economic growth will be technology or labour intensive in Tanzania, it is a matter of policy makers to decide but, as Dahlman also recommends, Tanzania like other "developing countries must develop more technological capability, and greater flexibility to succeed in the more demanding and asymmetric global environment" in which workers' rights also need to be effectively enforced and protected (Dahlman, 2007:29).

## References

- Adewumi, F. and Adenugba, A. (2010). The state of workers' rights in Nigeria. an examination of the banking, oil, gas and telecommunication sector. Abuja: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung.
- Africanus, P. (2004). The impact of current socio-economic transformation on industrial relations in Tanzania : The changing role of Trade Unions. M.A Thesis, University of Dar es Salaam.
- Barrientos, S. (2007). Global production systems and decent work. ILO working. Paper Series. Geneva: International Labour Office.
- Bartlett, L, and Vavrus, F. (2017). Re-thinking case study research: a comparative approach. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Blitt, R. C. (2012). Beyond Ruggie's guiding principles on business and human rights: charting an embrative approach to corporate human rights compliance. Texas International Law Journal, 48 (1).
- Braun, R, and Gearhart, J. (2004). Who should code your conduct? Trade Union and NGO differences in the fight for workers' rights. Development in Practice, 14 (1/2), 183-196.
- Brown, D. K. (2001). Labour standards: where do they belong on the international trade agenda? The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 15 (3), 89-112.
- Budeli, M. (2007). Freedom of association and trade unionism in South Africa: from apartheid to the democratic constitutional. PhD Thesis, University of Cape Town.
- Buhle, P, and Collective, G. H. (2016). Drawn to change: graphic histories of working-class struggle: Between the Lines.
- Carol, N, John, P, John, R, Abebe, S, Mans, S, and Finn, T. (2016). The pursuit of industry: policies and outcomes. In Carol Newman, John Page, John Rand, Abebe Shimeles, Mans Soderborn and F. Tarp (Eds.), Manufacturing transformation: comparative studies of industrial development in Africa and emerging Asia (pp. 1-23). Helsinki, Finland: United Nations World Institute for Development Economic Research (UNU-WIDER).
- Chambua, S. E. (1994). The development debates and the crisis of development theories: the case of Tanzania with special emphasis on peasants, state and capital. In Ulf Himmelstrand, Kabiru Kinyanjui and Edward Mburugu (Eds.), African perspectives on development: James Currey.
- Dahlman, C. (2007). Technology, globalization and international competitiveness: challenges for developing countries. In Department of economic and social affairs (Ed.), Industrial development for the 21st Century: Sustainable Development Perspectives. New York: United Nations.
- Diyamett, B, and Mutambala, M. (2014). Is the current booming in Africa worth celebrating? Some evidence from Tanzania. Occasional Paper 9: Southern Voice on Post-MDG International Development Goals.

- Deloitte.(2015).Tanzania budget insight. Diving deep. Retrieved from <https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/tz/Documents>
- ECA. (2016). Country profile - United Republic of Tanzania. Retrieved 18th May 2018, from Economic Commission for Africa. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia [www.uneca.org/publications](http://www.uneca.org/publications)
- Elster, J. (1986). An introduction to Karl Marx. Cambridge University Press.
- Flick, U. (2009). An introduction to qualitative research (4 ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE.
- Frances, D, Cook, and Karen, N. (2011). Industrialising Gulf society. In Jean-Francois Seznec and Mimi Kirk (Eds.), Industrialization in the Gulf : a socio economic revolution. New York: Routledge.
- Gabagambi, D. M. (2013). Tanzania's growth experience following economic reforms: comparative perspectives with Vietnam. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 3(9).
- ICFTU. (2006). Internationally recognised core labour standards in Tanzania. Report for the WTO general council review of the trade policies of Tanzania. Geneva: International confederation of free trade unions (ICFTU).
- ILO. (2014). Rules of the game: a brief introduction to international labour standards. (Third revised edition ed.). Geneva: International Labour Office.
- ILO, and NBS. (2016). Tanzania national child labour survey 2014: analytical report. International Labour Office; Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FUNDAMENTALS): Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics Geneva: ILO, 2016.
- John, E, Roemer, Elizabeth, S, and Varick, S. (1982). A general theory of exploitation and class: Harvard University Press.
- Joshua, J. (2017). China's economic growth towards sustainable economic development and social justice. Volume II: the impact of economic policies in the quality of life: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kniivilä, M. (2008). Industrial development and economic growth: implications for poverty reduction and income inequality. In D. O'Connor and M. Kjällerström (Eds.). Industrial Development in the 21st Century. London: Zed Books.
- Kweka, J and Ugarte, C. (2013). SMEs at the centre stage of competitiveness and job creation: what do we know and need to know for Tanzania? : Dar es Salaam: World Bank.
- Levine, M. J. (1997). Workers' rights and labour standards in Asia's four new tigers: a comparative perspective. New York: Plenum Press.
- LHRC. (2014). Report by Legal and Human Right Commission (LHC) strengthen labour law compliance: government urged. Dar es Salaam. IPP Media.

- LO / FTF Council. (2016). Labour market profile: Tanzania and Zanzibar: Danish Trade Union Council for International Development Cooperation
- Lowman, R.L.[Ed.].(2001). Handbook of organisational consulting psychology: a comprehensive guide to theory skills and techniques. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ludek, R. (2013). Ministry of labour: Comparative overview, history, challenges world-wide data base and organizational charts,. Geneva: International Labour Office
- Marx, K. (1859, 1971). Preface to A contribution to the Critique of the Political Economy. London: Lawrence and Wishart.
- Maskus, K. E. (2004). Trade and competitiveness aspects of environment and labour standards in East Asia. In K. Krumm and H. Kharas (Eds.). East Asia integrates: trade policy agenda for shared growth (pp. 115-134). Washington, DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.
- Mckay, A, and Vizard, P. (2005). Rights and economic growth: inevitable conflict or common ground. Available from [www.odi.org.uk/rights](http://www.odi.org.uk/rights). Accessed on 16 May, 2018.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Mollet, H. R. (2005). Effective support to tertiary education and research in developing countries: a changing landscape. Developments and implementation of government policies for higher education and research. Paper presented at the Nuffic conference 'A Changing Landscape The Hague.
- Morrissey, O, and Leyaro, V. (2015). Industrial development in Tanzania: reforms, performance and issues. In M. Tribe and J. Weiss (Eds.), Routledge handbook of industry and development. (pp. 382-397). London: Routledge international handbooks.
- Moyo, M, and others. (2010). Attaining middle income status: Tanzania-growth and structural transformation required to reach middle-income status by 2025. Working paper. International Growth Centre.
- Musoke, I. K. (1991). Structural Adjustment Programmes in Africa, social impact on the working class and other vulnerable social categories in Urban Tanzania. African Centre for Applied Research and Training in Social Development (ACARTSOD). Tripoli Libyan Arab Jamahiriya: Hans Zell Kent. UK.
- \_\_\_\_\_, I. K. (1999). The Management of human resources and industrial relations within the context of globalisation, harmonization of, and need for investor-friendly labour laws and adherence to the international labour standards: a critical analysis of the state of the art in Tanzania. a revised country report to the ILO and the Tanzania Employers' Organization (ATE) Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam.
- Mussa, A. U. (2014). Industrial development and its role in combating unemployment in Tanzania: History, current situation and future prospects. Paper presented at the VETA Forum 10-11 November, Arusha.



- National Bureau of Statistics [NBS]. (2015). Integrated Labour Force Survey. Analytical Report. Dar es Salaam. Available from [www.nbs.go.tz](http://www.nbs.go.tz).
- Ngowi, P. H. (2009). Economic development and change in Tanzania since independence: The political leadership factor. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, 3(4), 259-267.
- Page, J. (2016). Industry in Tanzania: performance, prospects, and public policy WIDER Working Paper 2016/5. United Nations University: UNU-WIDER.
- Rodney, W. (1973). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa*. Dar-es-Salaam: Bogle-L'Ouverture Publications, London and Tanzania Publishing House.
- Rodrik, D. (2007). Industrial development: some stylized factors and policy directions. In Department of economic and social affairs (Ed.), *Industrial development for the 21st Century: Sustainable Development Perspectives* (pp. 7-28). New York: United Nations.
- Rweyemamu, J. (1973). *Underdevelopment and industrialization in Tanzania: a study of perverse capitalist industrial development*: Oxford University Press.
- Sarntisart, I. (2000). Growth, structural change and inequality: the experience of Thailand. WIDER Working Papers No. 207, WIDER Institute.
- Scherrer, C. and Greven, T. (2001). *Global rules for trade. codes of conduct, social labeling, workers' rights clauses*. Münster. Westfälisches Dampfboot.
- Scott, J. (1990). *A matter of record: documentary sources in social research*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Sharma, K. R. (2014). Industrial development of India in pre and post reform period. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19 (10), 1-7.
- Simandan, D. (2009). Industrialization. In R. Kitchin and N. Thrift. (Eds.), *International Encyclopaedia of Human Geography* (Vol. 5, pp. 419-425). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Singh, A, and Zammit, A. (2004). Labour standards and the 'race to the bottom': rethinking globalization and workers' rights from developmental and solidaristic perspectives. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 20 (1), 85-104.
- Timmer, M. P, and Szirmai, A. (2000). Structural change and economic dynamics, productivity growth in Asian manufacturing: the structural bonus hypothesis examined. *Elsevier Science B.V.*, 11, 371-392.
- United Nations. (2011). *Guiding principles on business and human rights: implementing the United Nations "Protect, Respect and Remedy" framework*. New York: United Nations.
- URT. (1996). *Sustainable Industrial Development Policy-SIDP (1996-2020)*. United Republic of Tanzania: Ministry of Industry and Trade.

- \_\_\_\_\_. (2011). Department of Labour: Annual Labour Administration and Inspection Report. Dar-es Salaam: Government Printer
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2012). Ministry of Labour and Employment, Annual Labour Administration and Inspection Report; . Dar es salaam: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2013). National Human Rights Action Plan 2013-2017. United Republic of Tanzania: Ministry of Constitutional and Home Affairs.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2016). National Five Year Development Plan 2016/17-2020/21 “Nurturing Industrialization for Economic Transformation and Human Development”. United Republic of Tanzania: Ministry of Finance and Planning.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2016/17). Budget Execution Report for the First Half of the Fiscal Year. United Republic of Tanzania: Ministry of Finance and Planning.
- US Department of State. (2014). Annual Country Report on Human Rights Practices. Available from <https://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/>.
- Valticos, N. (1998). International Labour Standards and Human Rights Approaching the year 2000. In International Labour Review (Vol. 137, pp. 135-147). Geneva: ILO.
- Vartanian, T. P. (2011). Secondary data analysis. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wambali, M. (2009). The enforcement of basic rights and freedoms and the state of judicial activism in Tanzania. Journal of African Law, 53 (1), 34-58.
- Wangwe, S, Mmari. D, Aikaeli. J, Rutatina. N, Mboghoina.T, and Kinyondo, A. (2014). The performance of the manufacturing sector in Tanzania: Challenges and the way forward. Paper presented at the WIDER Working Paper 2014/085, Helsinki. Institute for Development Economics Research. United Nations University World.
- Wangwe, S, and Rweyemamu, D. (2004). Challenges towards promoting industrial development in Tanzania. Paper presented at the 10th Anniversary of ESRF, Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF).
- World Bank. (2013). World development indicators database.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2014). Productive jobs wanted: Tanzania country economic memorandum. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Wrenn, B, Stevens, R. E, and Loudon, D. L. (2007). Marketing Research. Text and cases (Second ed.). New York: Haworth Press.