COVID-19 Risks and Effects on the Women, Children and Resource-Dependent Communities in the Case of Extractive Industry 2020 in Tanzania

Semboja Haji Hatibu Haji

1Department of Economics, Zanzibar University, P.O.Box 2440, Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania.

Author’s contribution

The sole author designed, analyzed, interpreted and prepared the manuscript.

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ABSTRACT

The COVID-19 pandemic represents a shared global socio-economic struggle against an invisible public health enemy. Not only women, children and resource-dependent communities are contracting COVID-19, but also they are among the most severely impacted socio-economic entities. The COVID-19 pandemic is profoundly affecting the everyday lives of women, child laborers and resource-dependent communities. Their physical and mental health, their social and economic circumstances are also adversely affected. Social distancing requirements, business closures and travel restrictions associated with COVID-19 have all led to a drop in socio-economic activities, the losses of incomes and livelihoods, and increased household poverty. The paper assesses the level of risks for women, children and resource-dependent communities in the COVID-19 situation in the extractive sector in Tanzania. This descriptive paper uses results of the HR field research survey of 2020 that included stakeholders’ workshop, intensive desk study or literature review, field research surveys, data management and policy analysis. The viruses that cause COVID-19 have high health risks of effecting and affecting people of all ages, gender, races and nations. The levels of risks for women violence, child and youth labour unemployment and resource-dependent communities are high.

*Corresponding author: Email: haji@semboja.com, hafidh.h9@gmail.com;
The paper recommends that the government and all extractive sector companies should ensure there is no child labour and should enhance youth employment. It is also recommended that children be protected from all possible health hazards. Extractive industries have to create employment opportunities for both male and female youths. All the extractive sector firms have to embark on sustainable Corporate Social Responsibility strategies so as to minimize COVID-19 risks to all resource-dependent communities.

Keywords: COVID-19; risks; extractive industries; Tanzania.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The COVID-19 pandemic represents a shared global socio-economic struggle against an invisible public health enemy (CDC, 2019). The pandemic negatively affected on women, children and resource-dependent communities and these are among the most severely impacted socio-economic entities. The COVID-19 pandemic is profoundly affecting the everyday lives of women, children and resource-dependent communities generally. The pandemic has physical and mental health effects on various socio-economic circumstances [1,2]. That is essentially what this paper attempts to address, paying particular attention to the extractive industries.

Social distancing requirements, business closures and travel restrictions associated with COVID-19 all led to a drop in socio-economic activities, the losses of incomes and livelihoods, and increasing households. This results in socio-economic insecurities that limited the ability of households, families, communities and parents to perform their socio-economic functions and responsibilities as heads of social entities such as caring for their children. Households, families and communities tend to respond to socio-economic insecurities in several ways including cutting spending (such as socio-cultural, health and education costs), searching for alternative livelihood activities and incomes or doing nothing. Worsening household income may cause some adolescents living in especially difficult circumstances to view child marriage as the best option available to them. In worst-case scenarios, poverty could force girls to resort to transactional sex as a risk-coping mechanism, which could lead to increased vulnerability to sexual exploitation, unplanned pregnancy and arranged marriage [3,4].

1.2 Paper Objectives

The objective of the paper is to present results of the preliminary assessment done in 2020 on the level of risks and effect of COVID-19 for women, children and resource-dependent communities in Tanzania, [4]. The preliminary assessment was done by HakiRasilimali, (HR) in 2020 with the overall objective of conducting a situational analysis of the extractive industry sector amid COVID-19 in Tanzania. HakiRasilimali, (HR), is a platform of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) working on strategic issues around minerals, oil and gas extraction in Tanzania. The HR created a multi-stakeholder coordination and learning platform on the Impact of COVID-19 in the Extractive Industry in Tanzania.

2. STRATEGIC STUDY METHODOLOGY AND APPROACHES


2.1 Conceptional Framework

Women, children and resource-dependent communities are special and different socio-economic groups or entities sometimes identified and termed as “vulnerable groups”. A woman is a gender socio-economic human being, resource or sometimes referred to as an adult female human. In some societies the term ‘woman’ may also refer to a girl (a female child or adolescent). Biologically, a child (plural ‘children’) is a human being between the stages of birth and puberty, or between the developmental period of infancy and puberty. The social, economic, and legal definition of a child generally refers to a minor, otherwise known as a person younger who is disqualified as an active worker. Resource-based communities (RBCs), also referred to as
resource-dependent communities or single-industry communities, are human beings and resources connected or and depending on the natural environment for livelihood. These are three different and separate socio-economic groups [5]. However, in common; these are vulnerable social, economic and political groups [4,6,7].

On the one hand, the common characteristics of the “vulnerable groups” include the fact that they are susceptible to bad events, something natural, such as disease or infections. The vulnerable groups” are capable of being physically or emotionally affected and/or wounded. In many cases these are at risk, unprotected, exposed, helpless, defenseless, powerless, unshielded and unfortified [5]. For example, women and children may be at risk, that is, weak and without protection, with the result that they are easily hurt physically or emotionally. Violence against women and children done by male adults are significant public mental health problems, as well as a fundamental violation of human rights. These public mental health problems include anxiety, depression, consumption disorders and suicidality [8,5].

On the other hand, the many public and private socio-economic and political groups or entities understand, care and take into consideration this group in owning, managing, operating, benefiting socio-economic sectors and activities [9]. Under these circumstances, vulnerability is at times the birthplace of love, equity, belonging, joy, courage, empathy, accountability, and authenticity among communities. Sometimes, it may be strategic to be vulnerable because doing so allows them to share those socio-economic and political positions, resources and benefits which have hurt them, and feel compassion in the act of sharing, [4,6].

Vulnerability may entail as the diminished or and limited capacities of individuals or groups to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a natural or man-made hazard such as COVID-19 pandemic [1,2]. The vulnerability concept is relative and dynamic as it changes with time, development, systems and globalization. Vulnerability is most often associated with lack of effective sources and use of incomes, education, health and socio-economic systems [10,4,7].

Human beings differ in their exposure to public health risks as a result of their social groups, gender, social status, age, location, health and other factors [11]. Vulnerability and risks may vary in their forms, intensities and effects. These vulnerable groups may be unable to withstand COVID-19 pandemic. Their effects of being in relatively risk positions or and lack of preparedness may result in a slower response to the COVID-19 pandemic, leading to greater losses of life or prolonged sufferings [12,13]. COVID-19 risks could be defined as public health threats or possibilities that the pandemic (as an event) will adversely affect socio-economic entities, sectors and actors’ ability to achieve their desired objectives. These COVID-19 health risks are considered as public health risks anticipated through surveillance; monitoring, evaluation, control systems, operations and procedures, which are carried out by the national public health systems, resources and infrastructural facilities [11,14,4].

The risk theory provides conceptual framework that can contribute to detection, analysis, management and mitigating risks, coming to grips with uncertainty, and offering ways to organize society in such a way that the unexpected and unknown can be anticipated or at least dealt with within a reasonable and ethically acceptable way [15,1,2]. Evidence also suggests that women, child labour and resource-dependent communities exposed to a high level of risk may experience symptoms of psychosis, anxiety, trauma, suicidal ideation, and panic during outbreaks of communicable diseases [7].

The viruses that cause COVID-19 have risks of direct infecting and affecting people of all ages, gender, races, social status and nations [16,4]. Older people and people with pre-existing medical conditions such as asthma, diabetes, and heart disease appear to be more vulnerable to becoming severely ill with the virus. It is important to note that the extractive sector workers (e.g., miners) are at the risk of developing a lung disease called pneumoconiosis because of their regular exposure to airborne gases and dusts, and these have many years working experience and some have increased risk of dying from lung cancer. Like other socio-economic human beings; women, children and resource-dependent communities’ have higher risks of being directly affected by COVID-19 pandemic (CDC, 2019). Also, consultations with major stakeholders suggest that two groups of people are at a higher risk of getting severe COVID-19, [7,4]. These are
older people (that is people over 60 years old); and those with underlying medical conditions (such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, chronic respiratory diseases, and cancer). The risk of severe disease gradually increases with age starting from around 40 years. There are increasing views that people with existing chronic conditions or compromised immune systems due to disability are at higher risk of death due to COVID-19 [13]. It is now known that adults in this age range protect themselves and in turn protect others that may be more vulnerable. Most ladies and community leaders are in this risk category. However, children and young workers do not belong to that specific age group. There are views that the majority of COVID-19 infections originate from age groups 20-49. No scientific reports have shown that children are at high risks of being infected.

Women and resource-dependent communities sleep, work, rest and share with other extractive sector workers and families in their operational locations and like to meet up with nearby communities to socialize. Their risks of catching COVID-19 go up the more they and other counterparts mix with others, unless they keep a safe distance (CDC, 2019). That is because COVID-19 is transmitted by close contact with someone who has the virus. Reports show that an active young person can have no symptoms but still be able to spread it (CDC, 2019).

Women, resource-dependent communities and others have risks of coming into contact with COVID-19 in highly populated areas. Their risks are higher if there are more of the viruses entering and circulating where they work, rest, play, live and socialize, [13]. The risk of catching COVID-19 is high for everyone who is active, travels and moves around. Most energetic and active young people will have mild or no symptoms. But at times some young, fit people have become critically ill and died in cold weather and developed countries. Some who recover from even a mild bout develop longer term complications, known as long COVID-19. Even those who may have had the Coronavirus already will not necessarily be immune. So there is a risk they could still catch it, spread it and get sick [11].

It is crucial to determine the factors and effects of vulnerability of women, child labour and resource-dependent communities with respect to COVID-19. Basic physical, economic, social and political factors determine women, child labour and resource-dependent communities' levels of vulnerabilities and the extent of their capacity to resist, cope with and recover from hazards. Clearly, limited financial resources, education, health status and wealth may be major contributors to vulnerability in Tanzania [1,2,4]. Many women, child labour and resource-dependent communities are more likely to live and work in areas exposed to potential hazards, while they are less likely to have the resources to cope when a disaster strikes.

Secure livelihoods, knowledge, information and higher incomes increase resilience and enable people to recover more quickly from a hazard such as COVID-19 pandemic. Disasters jeopardize development gains, social stability and economic public safety, peace and security made by these socio-economic groups. [1,2]. Equally, development choices, life styles, social status made by individuals, households, communities and governments increase or reduce the risk of disasters [13]. In a disaster, women and children in general may be affected differently from men because of their social status, family responsibilities or reproductive role, but they are not necessarily vulnerable. They are also resourceful and resilient in a crisis and play a crucial role in recovery.

In a lockdown situation, when all family and household members and communities are forced to be in-house, gender and child labour related risks intensified and vulnerability is now a weakness which can be exploited by a threat actor (e.g., dominant male household and leaders becoming attackers, to cross privilege boundaries (i.e. raping, beating, assaulting their wives and children) within the households, families and communities [8]. To exploit a vulnerability, an attacker must have at least one generally accepted socio-economic power and position such as husband or and relative to connect to a social cultural system weakness. In this frame, vulnerabilities are also known as criminals such as the rapists.

Vulnerability and risk management are the cyclical socio-economic practices that vary in theory but contain common processes which include: identifying risks, analysing, determination, planning, managing and or perform a complete vulnerability or risk scanning, reporting on results, minimize vulnerabilities and verify remediation, [9] (CDC, 2019).

When families are locked inside their houses, risks of family conflicts may arise to various
socio-economic and cultural problems. Socio-economic and culture of households may be complex systems due to increases in the probability of flaws, misunderstandings, disagreements, conflicts and unintended social activities due to limited and unstable financial resources, information and communication failures, stress and mental problems [1,2]. These are positions and occasions where women and children are at risk of being mistreated, harmed, tortured and mishandled.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The High Current Levels of Risks in the Extractive Sector Firms

Section 3 analyses current levels of risks for women, children and resource-dependent communities amid COVID-19 pandemic [4]. The HR data and information derived from both secondary data and information from other public and private scientific studies for risk exposure and risk management, particularly risk exposure to COVID-19 and primary data and information generated from field research surveys.

3.2 Moderate but Disturbing Levels of Risks for the Women

Women continue to be active in the extractive sector workforce as noted by their increasing employment participation rates both in the formal and informal sectors in Tanzania [4]. As front-line responders, mining operators, health professionals, social and community volunteers, restaurant catering and hotels; transport and logistics managers, scientists and more, women in the extractive sectors are subject to direct and indirect effect of COVID-19 pandemic.

Fig. 1 presents the perceived views of the consulted stakeholders on the level of risk for the women in the extractive sector. The findings indicate that a few i.e., about 27 per cent of the respondents pointed out the level of risk for the women are high and about 27 per cent are moderate. Many, i.e., about 46 per cent of the respondents pointed out the level of risk for the women are low in the extractive sector firms. Table 1 presents the perceived views of the consulted stakeholders on the level of risk for violence on women in the extractive sector. The table suggests that many, that is, about 40 per cent of the respondents pointed out the level of risk for violence against women are high and about 46.7 per cent are moderate. A few i.e., about 13.3 per cent of the respondents pointed out the level of risk for violence against women are low. Consultations revealed that the COVID-19 impact may have negative results on the employment positions, status and prospective employment opportunities of especially younger women. Informal work is increasing among women, which raises concerns as these types of jobs are more to be likely unstable, unprotected and precarious, [1,2].

The COVID-19 pandemic is both exposing and amplifying pre-existing gender inequalities between women and men in many societies [6]. Consultations with stakeholders suggest that while the male gender is suffering higher mortality rates, female gender is especially affected by the socio-economic miseries: as victims of domestic violence locked down with their abusers; as unpaid caregivers in friends, families and communities, picking up the slack where education systems, childcare and other services are shut down or scaled back: and as workers in jobs which lack social and health protections, and which are being lost at an alarming rate [1,2]. Women’s role as shock absorbers during crises such as COVID-19 sustain families and communities, but it often have lasting negative implications for their economic security and autonomy [6].

Table 1 and Fig. 1 suggest that when economic crises hit, violence against women and girls get worse. In this case, combinations of the economic devastation and lockdowns, which have literally trapped women at home with their abusers, have created a perfect storm. It is projected that the increased socio-economic distress may trigger an increase in child marriage and adolescent pregnancy, as families make very difficult choices, or that women may resort to transactional sex, where their livelihoods have been destroyed. Another factor of increased domestic violence is the fact that, in some contexts, so much of our work and home lives have moved online. Cyber-violence, like sexualized trolling and online stalking, have intensified; with new forms of violence such as ‘Zoom-bombing’ emerging to intimidate and harass women and girls, [10] (Fairlie et al).

The jobs in which women work in the extractive sectors are strongly dependent on their age, health status, education, experience and origin, rather than on their potential competences. While younger women work preferentially in hospitality
and retail, older women tend to work in healthcare and education [1,2]. The jobs in which women work and the choices they make still depend largely on their family relationships, wealth status and commitments. This is also true for older women. Inversely, the practices impact on the choices they are given. Many women are involuntarily involved in temporary jobs, on multiple and short-term contracts and this has a high impact on their occupational safety and health.

In Tanzania, women’s employment is concentrated in social sectors such as healthcare, education, social and community services [6]. The closure of schools and daycare centres during the pandemic led to increased childcare needs, which would have a negative impact on working mothers/single mothers [17]. This may have made women and girls bear a disproportionate share of the negative social, economic and environmental impacts because women are working as small-scale miners or as a casual laborer in these mining companies. Others are mainly involved in the supplying of services such as food vending and petty businesses. Moreover, the financial and income benefits of the extractive industry projects are primarily owned, managed, controlled and enjoyed by men [9]. Women in such circumstances often live in patriarchal settings where their voices are not appreciated and they lack a clear understanding of socio-economic and political policies and procedures that should be followed regarding sharing the benefits from natural resources particularly the extractive industry, [6].

3.3 Higher Levels of Risks for Children

The global COVID-19 pandemic has led to severe economic and labour market shocks with an estimated rise between 5.3 million and 24.7 million in the number of those unemployed globally (ILO, 2020). The impact of COVID-19 on youth employment is likely to be severe given that the youth (15-24) are already 3 times more likely to be unemployed than adults (ILO, 2020). The COVID-19 related shocks to the labour market are likely to impact the status, types, quantity and quality of jobs for young people, be it in the form of zero-hour contracts, informal employment, etc. Such forms of employment are markedly more common among youth as 77 per cent of employed young people hold informal jobs while 126 million are extreme and moderate working poor worldwide (CDC, 2020).

Importantly, the impact of the pandemic on the quality and quantity of jobs will likely disproportionately affect the young people engaged in the service sector and/or performing manual routine jobs. Young people with these jobs are also at the risk of experiencing heightened health-related hazards because they cannot work remotely.

![The level of risk on the women employees in the extractive sector](image)

**Fig. 1. The level of risk on the women employees in the extractive sector**

*Source: HR field work survey 2020*

**Table 1. The level of risk for the violence on the women in the extractive sector**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: HR field work survey 2020*
Fig. 2 presents the perceived views of the consulted stakeholders on the level of risk on the children in the extractive sector. The figure suggests that the majority, that is, about 77 per cent of the respondents had the views that the levels of risks on the child labour and youth unemployment in the extractive sector are high especially given Covid-19 pandemic. The COVID-19 crisis is causing an unprecedented drop-off in socio-economic activities and effective family, household and community working time [18]. There are three types of negative effects on children given COVID-19 pandemic depending on gender and age. The first COVID-19 effects are associated with risks related to both male and female child labour. The second and third COVID-19 effects are associated with boys and girls alone, respectively. Also both the COVID-19 pandemic and its respective measures may lead to fewer employment opportunities and lower wages. These have driven people into informal or exploitative work, which further suppressed real wages and in turn contributed to the need for additional family labour power and inclusive child labour. When households need desired financial support, they may turn to children and engage them in form of child labour. Child labour then becomes a family survival strategy.

Not all jobs done by children should be classified as child labour that is to be targeted for elimination. Children’s or adolescents’ participation in work that does not affect their health and personal development or interfere with their schooling is generally regarded as being something positive [18]. The term “child labour” is hereby referred to as the work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development, [19,18]. It refers to work that: is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful to children; and/or interferes with their schooling by: depriving them of the opportunity to attend school; obliging them to leave school prematurely; or requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work (Article 3 of ILO Convention No.182).

Children of legal working age may drop out of school and enter the labour market with limited education and skills. Children below the minimum legal age may seek employment in informal and domestic jobs, where they face acute risks of hazardous and exploitative work, including the worst forms of child labour. The worst forms of child labour in the extractive sector involves children being enslaved, separated from their families, exposed to serious occupational health and safety hazards and illnesses and/or left to protect themselves [18].

Compared to male and female adults, children are more likely to accept work for less pay and in vulnerable conditions. The social sector such as restaurants, hotels, groceries, shops and other street businesses may deliberately recruit children to cut costs and boost earnings. Even with lower wages and fewer jobs, the number of people working increases when households cannot survive without working. Child labour is the combined product of many factors, such as poverty, social norms condoning it, lack of decent work opportunities for adults and adolescents, migration, and emergencies. It is not only a cause, but also a consequence of social inequities reinforced by discrimination [19,18].

There were reports in Mtwar and Lindi regions that temporary school closures in 2020 affected how girls used their lock-down time in many rural areas and villages. Many rural communities have no electricity networks, television, information, communication and technology networks to cater for distance learning systems. Girls spent more physical time at home and remained unsupervised, which increased their exposure to leisure, sexual activity, sexual violence and unwanted pregnancies [19]. Girls may drop out entirely or be less likely to re-enroll when schools reopen. The COVID-19 pandemic has left some girl students out of school, disrupting their daily life, educational attainment and learning outcomes. The COVID-19 pandemic profoundly affected the everyday lives of girls: their physical and mental health and the economic circumstances of their families and communities. Changes like these put girls at higher risk of becoming child brides [19]. The risk of child marriage increases through various pathways, including economic shocks, school closures and interruptions in services.

The massive global disruption to education system caused by confinement measures and the lack of distance-learning solutions in many developing countries could drive child labour numbers up, [19,18]. Results from consultations suggest that some African households and families resorted to child labour in order to cope with job loss and health shocks associated with COVID-19, in particular when kids do not go to school. Children from marginalized minority
groups, street-connected and homeless, or from single or child-headed households were more vulnerable to child labour. Vulnerable individuals, families and communities who have lost their jobs in the informal economies, in urgent need of desirable funds for household survival but with a few savings and limited access to social protection or other forms of family support, are likely to be at greater risk of falling prey to lenders providing credit in terms constituting debt bondage.

Studies document the negative effects of Covid-19 on hours of work and job losses (e.g., [1,2,9,20] Béland et al. 2020c). The unemployment increases observed globally are partly driven by lockdown/social distancing policies (Rojas et al., 2020). Accounting for cross-state variations in the timing of business closures and stay-at-home mandates the employment rate falls by about 1.7 per cent during the period March - April 2020 in the US (Gupta et al, 2020). Moreover, inequality in job/income losses is based on the type of job and individual characteristics [1,2].

Workers who can perform none of their tasks from home are more likely to lose their jobs. Youth without university education were significantly more likely to experience drops in their incomes. Workers with lower levels of education, younger adults, and immigrants are concentrated in occupations that are less likely to be performed from home [17]. Similarly, Alstadsæter et al, [13] find that the pandemic shock in Norway has a strong socio-economic gradient, as it has disproportionately affected the financially vulnerable population, including parents with younger children because occupations that have a higher share of workers working remotely were less affected by COVID-19.

In Africa, firms dramatically reduced job vacancies from the 2nd week of March 2020, (ILO, 2020). The job vacancy declines occurred at the same time with the declaration of COVID19 pandemic.

Notably, the labour market declines were uniform across states, with no notable differences across states which experienced the spread of the pandemic earlier than others or implemented stay-at-home orders earlier than others. The reduction in job vacancies was uniform across industries and occupations, except for those in front line jobs, e.g. nursing, essential retail and others. With the enforcement of physical distancing measures, working from home it has become increasingly prevalent in which child labour became increasingly ingrained in the rural economies through the artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) sector. Efforts made by child miners known locally as “half shovels” to negotiate poverty and enhance their livelihood opportunities may be best understood as a product of a prevailing pattern of rural livelihood diversification now widespread across sub-Saharan Africa.

In Tanzania, the degree to which economic activity got impaired by such physical distancing and the school closures differed from one region to another. It is known that children play an integral role in contributing to the survival of the household, both economically and in terms of ensuring food security. In many respects, small-scale gold mining firms can, therefore, be seen as an extension of a child’s familial duties, as it generates income which helps to ensure that these responsibilities are met. Most felt quite strongly that it was their obligation to actively contribute to the household economy in difficult times. In some cases, children have agreements with their parents or relatives that a portion of their earnings will be used for specific expenses, such as attending school. They should contribute to the household economically; the main reason why they were involved in mining was catalyzed by their urge to attend school, which would not otherwise be possible.

### 3.4 High Levels of Risks for the Resource-Dependent Communities

Resource-dependent communities, (RDC) also referred to as resource-based communities, (RBCs), or single-industry communities are in socio-economic dynamic places where the interface between the natural environment and society is pronounced due to their dependence on a predominant single economic base, [5]. This paper considers two types of extractive resource based communities in Tanzania. These are artisanal and small scale (ASM), mining communities and communities surrounding formal large scale mining companies. In some places, such as North Mara, these can be one and the same. The risk of exposure to COVID-19 in RDC communities depends on the likelihood of practicing social distancing, having frequent physical contact with workers, families, friends and people who may be infected with COVID-19, and through contact with contaminated surfaces and objects.
Resource-based communities often depend on a single industry such as mining and petroleum extraction activities. Closely tied to extractive resource activities, they have unique social and economic characteristics, partly due to their small size, geographical isolation, and integration with the natural resources and environment. Despite the community resilience, their quality of life is often challenged by global shifts in resource demand, economic decline, and inability to diversify local economies [5]. While the COVID-19 pandemic is a health crisis, its impact is more than just a health and humanitarian crisis. COVID-19 has negatively impacted the livelihoods of people who are heavily dependent on natural resources such as mining in the rural areas and its supply chains.

Table 2 presents the perceived views of the consulted stakeholders on the level of risk for the resources-dependent communities. All the consulted stakeholders indicated that resource-dependent communities are vulnerable to COVID-19 pandemic and the related risks. Mieke Thierens and Elard Mawala [21], ascertain that ASM mineral production, trade and communities’ livelihoods, directly and indirectly, suffered notably albeit variously from the travel bans, border closures and other preventive measures put in place (inter) nationally to curb the spread of the virus. Also, they noted that compliance with COVID-19 preventive measures, such as hand washing or and social distancing, were adhered to at a few mine sites, although challenging was in its execution, in terms of monitoring and controlling.

Domestic mineral market prices dropped across all regions, and the mineral trade was negatively affected by the international commodity price systems, movements and travel restrictions. Cut off from their global exports markets, the international trades of ASM gold, tanzanite and diamond were negatively effectively closed due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Sadly, self-imposed measures put in place to control the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic have impacted mining communities through loss of revenues, forcing a downscaling of operations potentially leading to rise in illegal activities and human-wildlife conflicts and the loss of local village jobs.

At a relatively slow pace, capacities and intensities, the artisanal mineral production in Tanzania continued despite self-lock-down measures. These ASM continued at a reduced production capacities, with reduced worker participation and mobility, the reduced availability of capital, mineral equipment or cheap labour to maintain mining tasks and the reduced demand for certain minerals as, in the absence of often more lucrative international markets, miners are left with local markets only [21]. The current levels of risks in 2021 are high because continued consequences associated with unemployment, violence and harassment may increase stress on the socio-economic activities in the extractive sector. Therefore, the existence of COVID-19 amplified the level of risk on socio-economic activities.
Table 2. The level of risk on the socio-economic activities in the extractive sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
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Source: HR field work survey 2020

The current increase in mortality rate associated with epidemics, the distress coupled with uncertainty about symptoms, the unavailability of vaccines and treatments, can lead to acts of violence and harassment against healthcare professionals and others who directly care for patients and their families. In turn, stress can lead to frustration and anger. Restrictive measures against communities mobility, together with the shortage of necessary items, can increase violence against staff assigned to enforce the decided measures and occupational safety and health (OSH) legislation (for example, police officers and labour inspectors) or staff involved in the sale and transport of essential goods.

The large number of people working from home and using information and communication technologies (ICT), increases psychological and social stress to resource-dependent communities, (RDC) [12]. As social distancing and confinement measures are put in place and people are encouraged to stay at home and, when possible, work from home, the risk of RDC unemployment is likely to increase as this community is not well hooked into modern ICT networks and groups. As communities in abusive relationships spend more time in close contact with violent family members and families cope with additional stress and potential economic or job losses, the likelihood of them being exposed to domestic violence increase [5]. Moreover, the socio-economic activities particularly those that cannot be accomplished by working from home such as extraction activities.

4. CONCLUSION

The paper has assessed levels of risks of COVID-19 for some socio-economic entities in Tanzania. The paper is based on the study that used strategic research methodologies, approaches and methods in 2020. COVID-19 risks are defined as public health threats or possibilities the pandemic (as an event) will adversely affect socio-economic entities, sectors and actors’ abilities to achieve their desired objectives. The viruses that cause COVID-19 have health risks of infecting and affecting people of all ages, gender, races and nations.

The levels of risks for the women are low in the extractive sector firms. But the levels of risks for violence on the women are high. The COVID-19 pandemic both exposes and amplifies pre-existing gender inequalities between men and women in many societies. The paper suggests that when economic crises hit, violence against women and girls gets worse. The levels of risks on the child and youth labour in the extractive sector are high especially given COVID-19 pandemic in developing nations. The potential risks of COVID-19 are the increasing child labour and reduced formal youth employment. The root causes of increasing child labour include increasing poverty in the families and communities, limited access to decent work opportunities for those of legal working age, social marginalization and discrimination.

The resource-dependent communities are vulnerable to COVID-19 risks. Domestic mineral market prices dropped across all Tanzanian regions, and mineral trade was negatively affected by international commodity price systems, movements and travel restrictions. Also, sadly, self-imposed measures put in place to control the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic have impacted local mining communities through loss of revenues, forcing a downscaling of operations potentially leading to rise in illegal activities and loss of local village jobs.

All government ministries, departments and agencies should continue to pursue gender related measures to minimize risks for the women, child and youth labour in the extractive sector firms. In specific all strategies aimed to stop violence on the women, child labour, equalities, safety and security of all communities.

All stakeholders put in place additional solutions to support interventions to eliminate violence against women and children in the context of Covid-19 [8,7]. It is necessary to coordinate to ensure timely access to social security and rational allocation of resources from public funds.
for social spending; protection of rights, safety and dignity; ensure the health and safety of female workers at resource extraction sites; develop plans and measures that are a continuum, gender-responsive, age-sensitive and promote children’s participation; implement policies aimed at vulnerable groups as well as minimize negative effects on the elderly, women, especially children [8,7] (UNICEF, 2021).

Nations and firms should control and minimize resource-dependent community’s risks given COVID-19 pandemic. All global and national government ministries, departments, agencies should intensify strategies aimed to minimize losses of revenues, illegal activities, human-wildlife conflicts and loss of local village jobs in all extractive sector communities.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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