



THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

# ABRIDGED MULTISECTORAL COUNTRY GENDER PROFILE TANZANIA MAINLAND



AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK GROUP



## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 2023 Gender profile for Tanzania Mainland updates the 2005 and the 2016 Gender Profiles. The Profile analyses and provides the state of policy, legal, and institutional frameworks for promoting the rights, opportunities, and welfare of men and women in the country. The Profile further provides the state of gender equality between men/boys and women/girls in key sectors, such as education, economy, agriculture and climate change, energy, water, and infrastructure, health, decision-making and political participation, peace and security, social protection and access to information and media.

The purpose of the Multisectoral Country Gender Profile is to survey the existing official statistics, gender analyses, and country reports to provide updated information on the state of gender equality, focusing on what has been done, what needs to be done, and what approaches need to be scaled up. The Profile is also expected to inform the development of policies, programs, budgets, plans, and operations of Tanzania Mainland in gender-responsive ways. In addition, the Profile is aimed to inform the African Development Bank (AfDB)'s Country Strategy Papers (CSPs) as well as the analytical and fieldwork conducted by the UN, UN Women, and other stakeholders.

This gender profile relies on official statistics from the National Bureau of Statistics and other sources. The data analysed is based on gender, age, disability, and locality (e.g., rural vs. urban). Importantly, the Profile highlights data gaps that need to be considered for the future design of surveys, research, assessments, programmes, and policies. Budget speeches and relevant reports published by the respective ministries and institutions, AfDB, World Bank, the UN, and like-minded local and international NGOs were also utilised. Legal framework analysis, multisectoral stakeholders' consultations, and validation meetings further informed the content of this Profile.

## LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS FOR GENDER EQUALITY IN TANZANIA MAINLAND

### INTERNATIONAL, REGIONAL, AND SUB-REGIONAL GENDER EQUALITY LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Tanzania has signed and ratified several international, regional, and subregional conventions on human rights, which also apply to women's rights. Under the conventions, Tanzania must ensure equal rights and opportunities for men and women to enjoy social, economic, and political rights without discrimination. The United Nations Charter under Articles 1, 8, and 55(c)<sup>1</sup> provides universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all based on race, sex, language, or religion.<sup>2</sup> Tanzania has also ratified the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) in 1976.<sup>3</sup> Article 3 of ICCPR requires state parties to ensure equal rights of men and women to enjoy all civil and political rights.<sup>4</sup> More importantly, in 1986, Tanzania ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of 1979 (CEDAW), which requires state parties to take all the appropriate political, social, economic, and cultural measures, including legislation. These measures would ensure women's full development and advancement, guaranteeing them the right to exercise and enjoy human rights and fundamental freedoms based on equality with men. Furthermore, the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action recognises that many women face barriers because of various diverse factors related to their gender. The Declaration sees women's advancement and equality between women and men as human rights and social justice matters.

1 The Charter of the United Nations is the foundational [treaty](http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/) of the United Nations. It was signed at [San Francisco](http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/), United States, on 26 June 1945 and it entered into force on 24 October 1945. Accessed on 15 August 2022. <http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/>

2 UDHR was passed by United Nations General Assembly Resolution 217 (111) on 10 December 1948.

3 In Tanzania, the ICCPR was ratified on 11 June 1976 and came into force in September 1976. In Rwanda, the ICCPR was ratified on 16 April 1975 and came into force on 23 March 1976. Accessed on 23<sup>rd</sup> July 2022. [https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?chapter=4&clang=en&mtdsg\\_no=IV-4&src=IND](https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?chapter=4&clang=en&mtdsg_no=IV-4&src=IND).

4 Article 3 of ICCPR reads that, 'the States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights set forth in the present Covenant.'

In the African continent, the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (the African Charter),<sup>5</sup> also promotes and protects human rights and fundamental freedoms.<sup>6</sup> The Charter enshrines the foundational principles of non-discrimination and equality of men and women before the law.<sup>7</sup> Like CEDAW, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol)<sup>8</sup> calls state parties to combat discrimination against women through appropriate legislative, institutional, and other deliberate measures. In addition, the 2004 Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa calls for member states' continual action toward achieving gender equality and reinforcing their commitment to international and regional instruments for women's rights.

The African Agenda 2063 prioritizes inclusive growth, highlighting the pivotal role of women and youth in development. Aspiration 6 emphasises their potential, aiming for economic expansion and increased opportunities. Goal 17 focuses on achieving complete gender equality, prioritizing empowerment and addressing violence and discrimination against women and girls.

The East African Community mandates gender equality across all facets, highlighting its fundamental importance within the Community's objectives. The Treaty's Article 6 underscores this principle, emphasizing women's involvement in cultural, social, political, economic, and technological spheres. The 2018 East African Gender Policy reinforces member states' commitment to ensuring equal participation of men and women in all aspects of life. Aligned with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals, Goal 5 strives for gender equality and women's empowerment, while Goal 10 aims to reduce inequalities within and among nations for a more equitable society.

International and regional conventions affirm universal, inalienable human rights, including women's rights, emphasizing their interdependence and indivisibility. These call for member states to actively pursue and safeguard gender equality across civil, political, economic, and cultural spheres, recognizing its crucial impact on a country's welfare and development.

Under the recent United Nations' Generation Equality Forum (2021),<sup>9</sup> Tanzania assumed ambitious commitments and timelines for achieving women's economic justice and rights, including to:

- a. Increase measures, such as investments in gender-responsive public and private quality care services, law and policy reforms, and create decent care jobs to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care work and reward and represent care workers while guaranteeing their labour rights by 2026.
- b. Create an enabling policy and legal environment and support women and young women to expand decent work in the formal and informal economy to attain economic justice by 2026.
- c. Expand women's access to and control over productive resources by increasing access to and control over land, gender-responsive financial products and services, and the number of firms women own by 2026.
- d. Design and implement gender-responsive macro-economic plans, budget reforms, and stimulus packages to reduce the number of women and girls living in poverty by 85 million through quality public social protection floors and systems by 2026.

## NATIONAL LAWS AND POLICIES ON GENDER EQUALITY

Tanzania has incorporated some gender-related international, regional, and subregional commitments in its national laws and policies to promote human rights, including women's rights. The 1977 Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania believes in the equality of human beings without any discrimination.<sup>10</sup> In addition, the National Vision 2025 seeks to awaken, coordinate, and direct people's efforts, minds, and national resources toward core sectors that will enable the country to achieve national development goals. Part Three of the

5 Adopted in 1981 by the Organization of African Unity. The second draft of the Charter was prepared in Banjul, The Gambia, in June 1980 and in January 1981. On 27 June 1981 at its 18th General Assembly Meeting in Nairobi, Kenya. The Heads of State and Government of the OAU adopted the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. It came into force on 21 October 1986.

6 A protocol to the Charter was subsequently adopted in 1998.

7 Articles 2 of the African Charter provided that, 'the enjoyment of the rights and freedoms recognised in the Charter apply equally without distinction of any kind such as race, ethnic group, colour, sex, language, religion, political or any opinion, national and social origin, fortune, birth or other status.' Article 3 of African Charter also provides that 'Every individual shall be equal before the law. 2. Every individual shall be entitled to equal protection of the law.'

8 Adopted in 2003 and entered in force in 2005. Accessed on 5 March 2022. [https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/694783?casa\\_token=bzU5-4pX-HAAAAAA%3AYoI056j7ag8mlhc9IltOCLdKQ\\_MICpFOU6IBsbdwGvgWoez4f9DPxUnVbP03S5mXGE4NtHFhxXP0w..](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/694783?casa_token=bzU5-4pX-HAAAAAA%3AYoI056j7ag8mlhc9IltOCLdKQ_MICpFOU6IBsbdwGvgWoez4f9DPxUnVbP03S5mXGE4NtHFhxXP0w..)

9 *ibid.*

10 Tanzania attempted to rewrite its Constitution in 2011-2014. But the process has been stopped until further notice.

Vision aims to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment in all socio-economic, political, and cultural contexts. The operationalisation of Vision 2025, including most recently through the Five-Year Development Plan III - FYDP (2021/22-2-2025/2026), entails equality principles for men and women across all levels and sectors.

Through the 2000 National Women and Gender Policy and the 2008 National Strategy for Gender Development, currently under review, the Ministry of Community Development, Gender, Women, and Vulnerable Groups established and oversaw the gender and children's desks and has implemented different women's economic empowerment programmes.<sup>11</sup>

Several laws address gender equality and women's rights in specific areas, yet they exhibit deficiencies. The 1999 Land and Village Land Acts aimed for gender-neutral land ownership, but the 1997 National Land Policy reinforced discriminatory customary practices. The 1971 Law of Marriage Act regulates marital rights, granting married women property rights akin to men, but it permits marriage of girls aged 14 to 15 with parental or court consent, despite a 2019 Court of Appeal decision advocating for an age of 18. The 1998 Sexual Offences Act (Special Provision - SOSPA) protects women from certain sexual offenses but lacks provisions on marital rape or specific definitions for FGM/C. Additionally, it permits female circumcision for women over 18 years old.

The Elections Act Cap 343 oversees Tanzanian Mainland's presidential and parliamentary elections, permitting both genders' participation and allocating special parliamentary seats to parties with over five percent of votes. The 1992 Political Parties Act, amended in 2019, stresses governance, non-discrimination, and social inclusion in party management, candidate nomination, and leadership selection. However, it lacks a specific women's representation threshold, hindering full compliance and limiting the extent of gender inclusion within political parties.

Other rights are covered through sectoral legislation covering education, health, and employment, to mention the most obvious. The Education Act CAP 353 guarantees equal educational rights for girls and boys. In 2022, the Government extended the free education from primary and lower secondary to high school. In 2017, the Late President John Magufuli introduced a ban on pregnant schoolgirls returning to public school after delivery. In November 2021, the Government lifted the ban and decreed that all students who dropped out of school for various reasons, including pregnancy, would be allowed to return to school. On the one hand, the Labour and Employment Relations Act of 2007 provides that it shall not discriminate if affirmative measures are taken to promote equality in employment settings. The law also requires employers to take positive steps to guarantee equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value and bans all forms of discrimination.

On the other hand, the 2010 Persons with Disabilities Act has domesticated the 2006 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It provides for the principle of equality between men and women with disabilities and seeks to eliminate all forms of discrimination against persons with disabilities. Further, the 2009 Public Health Act guarantees the promotion of better health to both men and women.

Recently, the Financial Act 2019 required local councils to allocate 10 per cent of internal revenues to support the economic activities of women (four per cent), youth (four per cent), and persons with disabilities (two per cent). More men seem to benefit more from municipal loans. Between 2015/16 and 2019/20, 47.8 per cent of the disbursed loans have been received by women, while 52.2 per cent have benefited men.<sup>12</sup>

The Five-year National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children (NPA-VAWC 2017/18 - 2021/22) was developed to reinforce the Government's commitment to provide effective leadership for eliminating violence against women and children. The NPA-VAWC emphasizes the actions needed to prevent and respond to violence and recognizes that investing in violence prevention initiatives positively impacts inclusive growth. Coordination and financing challenges and a shortage of Community Development and Social Welfare Officers hampered the effective implementation of the NPA-VAWC 2017/18 - 2021/22.

11 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDEC)'s Budget Speech for 2021/2022.  
12 Ministry of Trade and Industry's Budget Speech 2021/2022.

## INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER EQUALITY

The oversight of gender issues is domiciled under the newly established Ministry of Community Development, Gender, Women, and Vulnerable Groups. The creation of the new Ministry has the potential to refocus and re-energise the commitment to gender equality and the advancement of women, to mobilise resources in support of vulnerable groups, and to monitor the progress more consistently. Nonetheless, the extent to which the Ministry can influence other sectoral ministries and the local government authorities to embrace gender-responsive ways of working and integrate gender considerations in their budgets and programmes remains a challenge.

Each governmental body designates a Gender Focal Person (GFP) and forms a gender committee to address gender, women, and disability issues. However, limited technical and financial capacity hinders their effectiveness, with responsibilities often stretching beyond gender matters. Budgeting for gender priorities rarely occurs unless prompted by donor-funded projects. The Gender Mainstreaming Working Group Macro Policy (GMWG) since 2008 aims to advance gender integration. Additionally, bodies like CHRAGG, PCCB, the Judiciary, Law Reform Commission, Tanzania Police Force, and Tanzania Prisons Services play vital roles in promoting and safeguarding human rights, including women's rights.

However, the mandate of these institutions is affected by challenges, such as low level of awareness among citizens, endemic corruption, inadequate political will towards gender issues, limited budgets and delays in investigation and prosecution of cases, and poor working environment due to shortage of equipment and workforce.<sup>13</sup> These challenges undermine the ability of these institutions to respond to the unique needs of women and other vulnerable groups.

The Parliamentary Committee on Social Welfare and Community Development handles various sectors, limiting its focus on gender issues. This impedes support for other Committees and the Parliament on gender concerns. The 2020 Permanent Standing Orders lack gender responsiveness, affecting gender-inclusive budgeting and law-making despite the National Assembly's strides in this area.

At regional and district levels, gender issues are, among other things, taken care of by Community Development Officers (CDOs) and Social Welfare Officers (SWOs) whose work is affected by poor working conditions and their limited numbers. As of March 2020, there were only 740 SWOs, only 3 per cent of the required number of SWOs. The shortage of CDOs stands at 45 per cent.<sup>14</sup> There are gender and children's desks in all police stations, which address gender-based violence against women and children and issues pertaining to persons with disabilities. Since 2020, gender desks have also been established in the Tanzania Prison Services, Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau, and higher learning institutions.<sup>15</sup> The gender desks in the police stations have played a vital role in fighting against Gender-Based Violence. While the gender desks support the reporting and management of cases, their services are rarely gender transformative, and a few include persons with disabilities.

The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) collects gender-related data via censuses and surveys, covering population, health, agriculture, and the economy. The Integrated Labour Force Survey introduced time-use data in 2006. The Tanzania Statistical Master Plan emphasizes the importance of sex-disaggregated statistics. NBS has integrated gender data in major surveys like Demographic and Health Surveys, Household Budget Surveys, and Labour Force Surveys, aided by Gender Focal Points in Ministries, regions, and municipalities. The NBS Social and Demographic Statistics Department oversees household, health, education, and safety net surveys. Limited influence, capacity, and gender-focused initiatives hinder transforming survey perspectives. The absence of an independent Gender Policy affects data collection. SDG indicators inform surveys, but foundational gender data is lacking. The recent SIGI survey, measuring discriminatory social institutions, marks NBS's inaugural dedicated effort, supported by UN Women and OECD Development Centre.

13 Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed by Covid-19 In Tanzania 2020. <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953984.pdf>.

14 Ibid.

15 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDEC)'s Budget Speech for 2021/2022.

## CHALLENGES RELATED TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF GENDER EQUALITY LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Tanzania still has a long way to go to achieve gender equality. At the global level, the Gender Inequality Index of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which includes inequalities between men and women in terms of educational level or labour force participation rate, ranked Tanzania 140<sup>th</sup> out of 162 countries.<sup>16</sup> In 2019, Tanzania scored 63 per cent on the African Gender Index (AGI), developed by the African Development Bank (AfDB) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). This implies that women in Tanzania benefit from only two-thirds of the opportunities available to men.<sup>17</sup>

Tanzania has ratified and domesticated various international, regional, and subregional human rights instruments to demonstrate its willingness to be bound by and respect such commitments. The implementation of the country's international, regional, and subregional commitments is, however, hindered by low political will to domesticate, finance, and implement the commitments. Thus, some signed and ratified conventions are not domesticated, and some domesticated conventions are not fully implemented. For instance, Tanzania is yet to ratify the following conventions:

- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1987.
- International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, 2003.
- African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance, 2007.
- International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2010.
- Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1976.
- Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant and Political Rights, aiming to abolish the death penalty, 1991.
- Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2013.
- Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 2006.
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a communications procedure, 2011.
- Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Africa of 2018.<sup>18</sup>

Implementing international, regional, and subregional conventions in Tanzania faces hurdles due to the coexistence of customary laws, the Constitution, and national legislations. The Customary Law (Declaration) Order No. 436 of 1963 persists alongside current laws, leading to conflicts and impeding the realisation of women's rights. For example, while the Land and Village Land Act allows women to own land, customary laws restrict inheritance rights for women.<sup>19</sup> Also, social norms coupled with citizens' limited awareness of the laws and willingness to transform from patriarchal ways of living, thinking, and acting continue reinforcing the marginalization and discrimination of women and girls.

Persistent gender gaps in Tanzania result from deeply ingrained discrimination within social institutions, dictating societal norms and practices. These challenges hinder both the country's development and the attainment of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The 2022 Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) indicates high discrimination levels against women and girls in Tanzania Mainland, scoring 35.4. Rural areas exhibit more acute discrimination (38) compared to urban areas (32). Most of the population lives in rural areas, so a large share of Tanzanian women experience high levels of social discrimination.<sup>20</sup> Nearly 2.5 million women aged 15 years and older live in regions that obtain SIGI scores above 45, and an additional 2.2 million live in places where scores range from 40 to 45.<sup>21</sup> These scores reflect a high degree of variation in discrimination among social institutions from one region to another. According to the SIGI report, the deeply entrenched barriers are particularly persistent in girl child marriage, unequal intra-household dynamics, decision-making, violence against women, reproductive autonomy, access to agricultural land and economic opportunities, freedom of movement, and justice.

16 United Nations Development Programme, 2020

17 OECD (2022). SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

18 Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection, and the Threat Posed by Covid-19 in Tanzania 2020.

19 Ibid.

20 OECD (2022). SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

21 SIGI scores range from 0 to 100, 0 indicating no discrimination and 100 indicating absolute discrimination. Source, SIGI Tanzania database, <https://stats.oecd.org>.

# MULTISECTORAL ANALYSIS OF THE STATE OF GENDER EQUALITY IN TANZANIA MAINLAND

## Gender and Education, Training

Tanzania's education landscape shows more boys in pre-primary, gender parity in primary, and more girls in secondary schools. However, marginal differences favor boys in high schools and universities. Women's participation in STEM, technical education, and ANFE programs lags. Access to education for disabled children favors boys over girls. Men predominantly hold decision-making roles in households, impacting children's education choices.

**Gender disparity in enrolment rate at the pre-primary level is negligible.** In 2018, a total of 1,422,888 were enrolled in pre-primary schools. The number of boys was slightly higher at 720,082 (50.6 per cent), while the number of girls was 702,786 (49.39 per cent). The leading region with more enrolment is Mwanza 108,077 (7.6 per cent), followed by Kagera 93,338 (6.6 per cent), while the region with less enrolment is Katavi 21,319 (1.5 per cent).

**There is gender parity in the enrolment of boys and girls in primary school.** However, more girls are enrolled in secondary schools than boys. In 2019, the total enrolment for boys was 50.56 per cent and 49.44 per cent for girls, representing a Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 97.8 per cent. Similarly, boys make up 49.98 per cent of the school-going population at the primary school level, while girls make up 50.02 per cent.<sup>22</sup> The total enrolment for both girls and boys has constantly increased since 2016. The increase is mainly attributed to introducing a fee-free education policy that has allowed more parents to take their children to school. However, the number of girls enrolled in secondary school is slightly higher than boys.

**More boys drop out of primary and secondary school than girls. However, pregnancy and domestic work disproportionately cause more girls to drop out of school.** In 2017, out of 66,142 children who dropped out of primary school, 36,434 were boys (55 per cent), and 29,709 (44.9 per cent) were girls. Truancy is the leading cause of pupils (girls and boys) dropping out of primary education. For instance, 94.0 per cent of all dropouts were attributed to truancy in 2017. Lack of basic needs was the leading reason for truancy in Government primary schools (11.7 per cent).

On the one hand, most boys drop out of school due to high poverty levels. Most of them engage in fishing, farming, industrial work, and mining activities at an early. On the other hand, 1040 pupils (1.6 per cent) of those who dropped out of primary school in 2017 were due to pregnancy. Most of them are from class IV to VII. It is also believed that most pregnancy cases go unreported because most victims stop going to school after discovering they are pregnant, fearing compulsory pregnancy tests, eventually leading to expulsion from school.<sup>23</sup> Access to education by pregnant girls was further jeopardized in June 2017 when the late President Magufuli refused female students who had given birth to be readmitted into government schools. However, this policy changed in November 2021 when the 6th government administration announced the removal of barriers to accessing education.

### Additional findings on education include;

- Women's underrepresentation in STEM fields in higher learning institutions.
- More men attend technical and vocational education and training compared to women.
- More men enrolling in adult and non-formal education compared to women.
- Most children with disabilities, mostly girls, are left out of the primary and secondary education system. An estimated 400,000 school-aged children with disabilities live in Tanzania. In 2018, at pre-primary, physical impairment was the type of disability with the most significant number of pupils (543 male and 378 female pupils), while visual impairment had the least number of pupils (59 male and 46 female pupils).<sup>24</sup> Only 49,655 children

22 BEST 2019.

23 Men and Women Facts of 2018.

24 BEST, 2018.

are registered in primary and 8,778 in secondary schools. This leaves a sizeable out-of-school population of the most vulnerable children. These children include girls and boys with Albinism, Autism, Down syndrome, Deaf, Blind, Deaf-Blind, children with physical disabilities, and mental impairment. Amongst the most vulnerable are adolescent girls living with disabilities.<sup>25</sup>

## GENDER AND THE ECONOMY

**Women form a large part of the illiterate labour force.** Women comprise most of the workforce who never attended school at 21.3 per cent while only 14.1 per cent are men. While the workforce with primary education is almost similar between men and women, men form most of the workforce with secondary school education (17 per cent) while women are at (13.8 per cent). Also, men comprise most of the workforce who attended vocational training (1.5 per cent) while women are at (1.1 per cent). Further, men form most of the workforce who attended tertiary education (1.6 per cent), while women are at (1.1 per cent). Furthermore, men form most of the workforce who attended university (2.1 per cent) while fewer women attended university (1.3 per cent).<sup>26</sup>

**Women are less likely to be employed compared to men.** In Tanzania Mainland, women are less likely to be employed in rural areas (83.6 per cent of men and 74.6 per cent of women), in urban areas (79.4 per cent of men and 66.8 per cent of women) as well as in the cities (69.5 per cent of men compared to 53.1 per cent of women). Evidence shows that the unemployment rate is higher for women than for men. More women (9.3 per cent) are unemployed in rural areas than men (5.2 per cent). This is the same in urban areas, where the unemployment rate is 14.6 per cent for women and 4.6 per cent for men. In Dar es Salaam, 28.6 per cent of women are unemployed compared to 11.8 per cent of men. More women with a university education are unemployed (12.7 per cent) compared to men (5.7 per cent). Also, women are more likely to face long-term unemployment, at 48.3 per cent across, compared to 39.4 per cent for men.<sup>27</sup> Although there is a high unemployment rate among youth between 15 and 24 at 14.7 per cent, young women face the double burden of their age and gender, making them more vulnerable to unemployment and underemployment. Across the country, the unemployment rate for young women stands at 16.1 per cent, while for young men is at 8.1 per cent. This translates to eight per cent lower.

Further, women are highly unemployed across the age groups, at 12.2 per cent, compared to men at 5.7 per cent. Social norms positioning men as the main decision-makers over women's economic activities hinder women's autonomy in the economic sphere and may affect their choice of economic activities. For instance, 88 per cent of the population agrees that women should ask for their husband's permission to have a paid job outside the home.<sup>28</sup>

**Women with disabilities face more challenges in accessing employment.** Employment among people with disabilities has increased from 59.1 per cent in 2014 to 63.2 per cent in 2020/21. Also, unemployment for people with disabilities has decreased significantly from 12.4 per cent in 2014 to 6.0 per cent in 2020/21.<sup>29</sup> Introducing a special credit window for people with disabilities (2 per cent of local council revenue) might have contributed to job creation for people with disabilities. However, women with disabilities are less likely to be employed (60.4 per cent) than men with disabilities (68.0 per cent). Consequently, most women with disabilities are likely to be unemployed (7.0 per cent) compared to men with disabilities (4.3 per cent). Similarly, more women with disabilities are completely out of labour force (35.1 per cent) compared to men with disabilities (29.0 per cent). Negative perception of the capability of persons with disabilities to undertake work affects the level of employment for persons with disabilities. Some employers believe employing a person with a disability is costly and may bring bad luck into the business. Women with disabilities face double jeopardy: being women and having a disability.

**Labour force participation is higher for men than women in all geographical locations.** Over 80 per cent of women in rural areas participate in the labour force compared to men, at 88.2 per cent. In urban areas, 78.2 per

25 Education Sector Development plan 206/17-2020/21, Mainland. <https://www.unicef.org/tanzania/media/596/file/Tanzania-2018-Global-Initiative-Out-of-School-Children-Country-Report.pdf>.

26 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21.

27 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21.

28 Ibid.

29 Ibid.



cent of women participate in the labour force, compared to 83.3 per cent of men. The same trend is applied in Dar es Salaam, where the number of women participating in the labour force remains slightly lower (74.3 per cent) than men (78.8 per cent).<sup>30</sup>

**Men dominate formal employment in key sectors.** Fewer women work in central and local Government (1.9 per cent) than men (2.8 per cent). Similarly, fewer women work in parastatal organisations (0.2 per cent) than men (0.5 per cent). In addition, women are less likely than men to work in political parties, NGOs, religious organisations, or foreign embassies.<sup>31</sup>

**There is only a slight difference in the number of men and women working in agriculture, forestry, and the finishing industry, with men and women occupying the industry at 62.6 per cent and 60.9 per cent, respectively.** Fewer women work in the manufacturing industry (4.3 per cent) than men (11.1 per cent). More women work in the services industry (34.8 per cent) compared to men (26.3 per cent), especially in the wholesale and retail sector and accommodation and food services.<sup>32</sup> Evidence also shows that women are twice as likely to work as domestic workers (7.3 per cent) compared to men (3.9 (7.3 per cent)). A significant proportion of women work as unpaid family workers or own-account workers, as well as in the informal sector. Such vulnerable and informal employment leaves many women with limited social protection, poor contract stability, and diminished access to benefits, such as maternity leave.<sup>33</sup>

**Women work fewer hours in formally recognised employment than men.** As employees, men work for an average of 65 hours per week compared to women's 59 hours. As employers, men work an average of 70 hours per week compared to women's 67 hours. A similar trend is seen in producer cooperative roles, contributing family workers, and interns and apprentices. Norms that require women to oversee child care and domestic and social responsibilities make them spend less time in paid work.<sup>34</sup>

**Women spend three times more time in unpaid care work; married women spend even more time.** Women work fewer hours in traditional productive activities because, in Tanzania Mainland, women of age 15 years and above spend more time per day in unpaid care work (4.5 hours) than men (1.5 hours). Also, women who are married or living together with their spouses spend more time per day on unpaid domestic and care work than men (5.1 hours and 1.5 hours, respectively) compared to those in other marital statuses. However, this varies by age and geographical location. Women spend about ten times more time on unpaid care and domestic work than men in regions like Shinyanga.<sup>35</sup>

**There is a significant gender pay gap, with average direct wage and salary less for women than men.** While the average salary for rural areas is TZS 318,629, the salary for women is below the average wage (TZS 297,613). This is below the men's income, which is more than the average salary (TZS 326,872). While the average salary for urban areas is TZS 407,065, women get less (TZS 389,384), while men get more than the average salary (TZS 416,669). While the average salary for city areas is (TZS 560,434) women get less (TZS 528,062), while men get more than the average salary (TZS 580,004).<sup>36</sup>

**Women have less access to formal financial services.** In 2017, 60 per cent of women in the United Republic of Tanzania had access to formal financial services, nine per cent had access to informal financial services, and 30 per cent had no access to financial services. In the same period, 70 per cent of men had access to formal financial services.<sup>37</sup> Less than half of women (43 per cent) in Tanzania have saved or borrowed in the past 12 months.<sup>38</sup> The 'State of the Industry Report on Mobile Money of 2021' showed that about 40,000 groups in the

30 Ibid.

31 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

32 OECD (2022). SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

33 Ibid.

34 ibid

35 Ibid.

36 ibid

37 FinScope Tanzania 2017, National Financial Inclusion Framework. <https://www.fsdt.or.tz/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/National-Financial-Inclusion-Framework-NFIF-2018-2022.pdf> Slide 21.

38 Ibid.

United Republic of Tanzania have signed up to M-Koba,<sup>39</sup> with women constituting most members. The gender gap persists in the banking system, with 45 per cent of women having bank accounts, microfinance accounts, or mobile money services compared to 57 per cent of men.<sup>40</sup>

**Female-headed households are less likely to own a variety of assets.** Ownership of essential assets is higher among men-headed households than women-headed households. For instance, the ownership of mobile phones is higher among men-headed households (68 per cent) than women-headed households (56 per cent).<sup>41</sup> Likewise, radios are owned by 68 per cent of men-headed households compared with 49 per cent of women-headed households. It was further observed that although a bicycle was owned by 40 per cent of all the households, the asset was not common among women-headed (26 per cent) compared with men-headed households (48 per cent).<sup>42</sup> Similarly, fewer women own televisions, computers/laptops and have less access to internet facilities. This implies that women have less access to information.<sup>43</sup>

**Fewer women own land in Tanzania compared to men.** According to the 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey (TDHS), 38 per cent of women own a house either alone or jointly with someone. Similarly, 34 per cent of women reported owning land alone or jointly. Joint ownership of these assets is more common among women than sole ownership. Only 9 per cent of women own a house or land alone.<sup>44</sup>

The legal framework is also a challenge. The Land Act No. 4 of 1999 and the Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999 provide for ownership of land for women and men. However, the National Land Policy of 1997 states that inheritance of clan land will continue to be governed by customs, which is not contrary to the Constitution.<sup>45</sup> Other obstacles are structural and relate to representation in decision-making bodies. At the local government level, the dominance of men in local governance structures, such as in land tribunals and councils, which are instrumental in land adjudication processes, lessens women's voices and the representation of their experiences in the land dispute settlement platforms.<sup>46</sup>

**Across all ages, men own titles or deeds of houses to a larger extent than women in all age groups.** At age 40-44, over 21 per cent of the men own titles or deeds of houses compared to seven per cent of the women. A title or a deed of a house proves the legality of ownership, which gives one access to use the property/asset for other economic activities, such as accessing credit/loans. However, most women are disadvantaged because they do not have qualifications for accessing credit/loans from financial institutions as they do not have legal documents, such as titles or deeds, to render as security/collateral.<sup>47</sup>

**Women have disproportionately been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic compared to men.** Data indicates that about 140,000 formal jobs were lost in June 2020, and another 2.2 million nonfarm informal workers suffered income losses due to the global COVID-19 pandemic.<sup>48</sup> Women are over-represented in vulnerable and informal service sector roles. This has disproportionately exposed them to the effects of the pandemic on their income. In addition, due to their caregiving responsibilities, the pandemic has placed further pressure on women regarding their family and caregiving roles.

39 M-Koba is a joint initiative between Vodacom Tanzania and TPB Bank designed to digitise savings groups. Through M-Pesa's USSD menu, savings group leaders can create an account and add members to the group using only their mobile phone number. Members can view all group members, choose their group officials, contribute to savings accounts from their M-Pesa wallet at no extra cost and view account balances from their phones. Members can also request a loan automatically from the system, and at least three members are nominated at random to approve the loan before it is disbursed. of other networks in Tanzania.

40 *ibid*

41 National Bureau of Statistics (2014), Basic Demographic and Socio-Economic Profile Report Tanzania Mainland and April.

42 *Ibid*.

43 National Bureau of Statistics (2014)

44 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey (TDHS)

45 OECD (2022). SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

46 National Bureau of Statistics, The 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey.

47 *ibid*

48 World Bank Tanzania Country Overview. 20 May 2021. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/tanzania/overview>.

## GENDER, AGRICULTURE, AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Agriculture dominates the economy in Tanzania, constituting a third of GDP and most employment. Women face marginalization: owning less land, engaging in subsistence farming, lower livestock ownership, predominantly unpaid laborers, and limited access to agricultural technologies and inputs compared to men.

**Women own less agricultural land.** Women own 33 per cent of agricultural land compared to 47 per cent for men.<sup>49</sup> More plots are owned by men than women, with the average number of plots held by women at 2.5 against 3.0 for men. Female-headed households own an average of 2 plots, while male-headed households own 2.3 plots.<sup>50</sup> Plots owned by women tend to be smaller. Ninety-three per cent of the plots owned by women are smaller than five acres (around two hectares),<sup>51</sup> and only 11 per cent of plots larger than women own five acres.<sup>52</sup>

**More women farmholders operate at the subsistence level.** On the one hand, 92 per cent of women operate at the subsistence level compared to men at 89 per cent.<sup>53</sup> Farmholders cultivate between two and three crops on average (mainly maize, beans, and cotton) with no significant differences between sexes.<sup>54</sup>

**Fewer women use agricultural inputs and technologies, such as agricultural implements, improved seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides.**<sup>55</sup> Organic/inorganic fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides are used in only about 10 per cent of the plots. This is regardless of the farmer's activity (whether market-oriented or subsistence farming). There is a 12 per cent gender gap between women and men in applying pesticides and a nine per cent gap in using farm implements.<sup>56</sup>

**Women earn less in the agricultural sector compared to men.** As women own smaller rain-fed agricultural plots, fewer livestock, and engage in subsistence farming with less mechanisation, women earn less in the agricultural sector than men. Women's mean monthly income in the agricultural sector (TZS 92,882) is lower than men's (TZS 150,665).<sup>57</sup> The largest gender gap in rural earnings can be seen in Northern Tanzania Mainland, where men earn 2.9 times more than women. In Western Tanzania, men earn 2.4 times more than women; in the Southern Highlands, men earn 2.3 times more than their female counterparts.<sup>58</sup> Access and control of land, including agricultural land, is essential for improved livelihoods, food security, and nutrition.

**The participation of women in agriculture is further affected by the adverse impact of climate change, which has affected the rain patterns in the country.** Climate change disproportionately affects communities reliant on natural resources and lacking adaptive capacity. Women, often in agriculture-dependent roles, face heightened risks due to their higher representation among the vulnerable, poor, and environmentally dependent groups. They are also more likely to bear the burden of the impacts, compounded by their roles as primary caregivers in most communities and households.<sup>59</sup>

## GENDER AND INFRASTRUCTURE (ENERGY, ROADS, AND WATER)

Poor households struggle with limited access to dependable energy, water, and all-weather roads. Social norms often burden women with domestic responsibilities, exacerbating their role in meeting these needs. Climate change worsens access to clean resources, with infrastructure decisions typically excluding women. However, their inclusion in road development is vital for economic participation and efficient task performance. Both genders have diverse needs and use infrastructure differently depending on their social roles, economic status, or preferences, but men overwhelmingly dominate decision-making in infrastructure.<sup>60</sup>

49 Ibid.

50 FAO (2014). Gender inequalities in rural employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

51 Ibid.

52 Ibid.

53 Idris, I. (2018). Mapping women's economic exclusion in Tanzania. K4D Helpdesk Report. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

54 FAO (2014). Gender inequalities in rural employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

55 Ministry of Finance and Planning, (2020/2021-2025/2026), Draft Five Year Development Plan.

56 FAO (2014). Gender inequalities in rural employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome. Pg. 37.

57 National Bureau of Statistics, (2014). Integrated labor Force Survey 2014: Analytical Report.

58 FAO (2014). Gender inequalities in rural employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

59 United Nations Climate Change. <https://unfccc.int/gender>

60 OECD, 2021. Gender in Infrastructure: selected stocktaking of good practices for inclusion of women in infrastructure.

**The country's electrification rate has increased, including for female-headed households.** The percentage of the population with access to electricity has almost doubled since 2012. The proportion of the population with access to electricity has risen from 36 per cent in 2012 to 67.5 per cent in 2016.<sup>61</sup> The proportions of households connected to electricity were slightly higher among male-headed households (32.9 per cent) than female-headed households (32.3 per cent).<sup>62</sup>

**The majority of Tanzanians still rely on biomass for their energy needs.** An estimated 85 per cent of Tanzania's energy needs are met through biomass use in the form of charcoal and firewood for cooking and heating. Women and girls traditionally are the most involved in collecting energy sources and managing household tasks. Therefore, they are particularly exposed to smoke and its health-related challenges.<sup>63</sup>

**Despite progress, access to clean and safe water remains challenging, especially in rural areas.** The poor, most of whom live in rural areas in Tanzania, have limited access to clean water for domestic use, crop production, and adequate sanitation. In 2020, through the Ministry of Water, the Government revealed that access to clean and safe water in rural areas had increased from 47 per cent in 2015 to 70.1 per cent by March 2020. In urban areas, access to water had risen from 74 per cent in 2015 to 84 per cent by March 2020. About 6 to 10 households in the country obtain their drinking water from improved sources.

**Infrastructure development and rehabilitation projects tend to benefit men more than women.** Women benefit differently from infrastructure investments than men, which should be related to how infrastructure is designed, implemented, and utilised. Employment creation disproportionately benefits men, with data showing that out of 17,837 jobs created through various Ministry of Works projects, only 1,403 went to women, while men took 16,434.<sup>64</sup>

## GENDER AND POVERTY

Women remain disproportionately affected in all dimensions of poverty. This is further exacerbated if the woman is young and has disabilities.

**Households with married couples are more likely to be poor than families headed by a single person.** The HBS 2017/18 results show that households headed by single heads of households (never married) in Tanzania Mainland were less likely to have basic needs and be poor in food poverty than households headed by heads with other marital statuses.<sup>65</sup>

**Similarly, women-headed families, divorced women, and urban widows are poorer compared to men.** According to the HBS 2017/18 findings, 26 per cent of men-headed households and 27.4 per cent of women-headed households are poor by basic poverty measurement, while 8.1 per cent of men-headed and 7.9 per cent of women-headed households are food-poor.<sup>66</sup> However, other indicators depict higher poverty prevalence among women than men. For example, more women-headed households in urban areas are poor (20.3 per cent) than men-headed ones (14 per cent). Single and divorced women are poorer than men by about 11 per cent, with the gap being high in rural and urban areas. Urban widows are also poorer than urban widowers by about 14 per cent.<sup>67</sup>

**A high percentage of children live in poverty. However, there is no relationship between child poverty and the sex of a child.** The 2017/18 HBS revealed that 30.1 per cent of children aged 0 to 17 years had basic needs poor, and 9.4 per cent were food-poor.<sup>68</sup> The basic needs poverty for children under age 18 was higher in Rural

61 According to the NBS and REA report (2016) on Energy Access Situation in Tanzania Mainland.

62 URT (2018). Ministry of Energy, Tanzania's Sustainable Energy for all; Gender Action Plan. Pg. 21.

63 World Bank Group (2019). Tanzania Country Environmental Analysis. Washington DC Pg. 76.

64 Ministry of Works and Transport (Transport Sector), November 2022.

65 Ministry of Finance and Planning - Poverty Eradication Division (MoFP- PED)[Tanzania Mainland], National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and the World Bank. 2020 Tanzania Mainland Household Budget Survey 2017/18. Final Report Dodoma, Tanzania MoFP-PED, NBS and Washington DC USA, and WB

66 Ibid.

67 Ibid.

68 Ibid.

Areas (34.5 per cent) than in Urban Areas (18.7 per cent).<sup>69</sup> A similar pattern was observed in food poverty, with 11.0 per cent of children under 18 years old in Rural Areas against 5.4 per cent in Urban Areas. The survey results depict no relationship between child poverty and the sex of a child. Across the regions, Rukwa region (47.6 per cent) had the largest percentage of children aged 0 to 17 who were basic needs poor, and Dar es Salaam (9.6 per cent) had the smallest percentage. Child extreme poverty for children under age 18 was highest in the Rukwa region (21.2 per cent) and lowest in the Mara region (1.9 per cent).<sup>70</sup>

## GENDER AND HEALTH

**Women spend more on health services than men.** On average, the per capita out-of-pocket health-related expenditure is TZS 8,235 for men and TZS 11,442 for women. However, men and women aged 65+ spend more on health-related issues than men and women in all other age groups.

**Fewer women access contraceptives.** In 2022, the contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) using modern methods among married women (aged 15-49) was 31.1 per cent.<sup>71</sup> This was a decrease from the rate of 36 per cent recorded in 2020.<sup>72</sup> The CPR varies geographically, ranging from 13 per cent in Geita to 52 per cent in Lindi.<sup>73</sup> Among young married women between 15 and 24 years old, the CPR using modern methods is low at 15.2 per cent,<sup>74</sup> which is also lower than the 16 per cent recorded in 2016.<sup>75</sup> The unmet need for family planning for currently married women aged 15 to 49 – those women who want to space or limit births but are not currently using contraception – is 21 per cent.<sup>76</sup> Data show that the limited use of contraceptives is partly caused by discriminatory attitudes towards women's use of contraception. At the national level, 32 per cent of the population disagrees or strongly disagrees with a woman having the right to decide whether to use contraception. These discriminatory attitudes are more widespread in rural than urban areas (38 per cent and 34 per cent, respectively). More men (39 per cent) than women (34 per cent) believe women should not have the right to choose contraception.<sup>77</sup>

**The fertility rate is still high but decreasing.** The total fertility rate was recorded at 4.8 births per reproductive woman in 2022, a decline from 5.6 births per woman in 1999. The high fertility rate is associated with low levels of female education, limited sex education, and limited participation of women in the formal labour market. The fertility rate is higher in rural areas than in urban areas at 5.5 children per woman in rural Tanzania Mainland and 3.6 children per woman in urban Tanzania Mainland.<sup>78</sup>

**Maternal mortality is still one of the main triggers of death among women.** The maternal mortality rate<sup>79</sup> among women aged 15-49 is 0.94 deaths per 1,000 woman-years of exposure. The maternal mortality rate is highest among women in their 40s (1.6 deaths per 1,000 woman-years of exposure) and lowest among women aged 15-19 (0.3 deaths per 1,000 woman-years of exposure).<sup>80</sup> Maternal deaths represent 18 per cent of all deaths of women aged 15-49. The leading direct causes of maternal death are hemorrhages, infections, unsafe abortions, hypertensive disorders, and obstructed labour. HIV/AIDS and malaria exacerbate the presence of these causes.<sup>81</sup>

69

Ibid.

70

Ibid.

71 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.

72 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDEC)'s Budget Speech for 2021/2022

73 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.

74 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.

75 The 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey.

76 Ibid.

77 OECD (2022), SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

78 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.

79 Maternal deaths are a subset of all female deaths and are defined as any deaths that occur during pregnancy or childbirth, or within 2 months after the birth or termination of a pregnancy. Estimates of maternal mortality are therefore based solely on the timing of the death in relationship to the pregnancy

80 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016, Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 2015/16. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/fr321/fr321.pdf>.

81 The Power of Choice - Reproductive Rights and the Demographic Transition. State of World Population 2018. UNFPA, reports that 132 of every 1,000 live births in Tanzania are to adolescents. Available at: [https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA\\_PUB\\_2018\\_EN\\_SWP.pdf](https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA_PUB_2018_EN_SWP.pdf)

**The proportion of pregnant women who deliver in a health facility is increasing.** The proportion of pregnant women who deliver in a health facility increased from 50 per cent in 2010 to 81 per cent of all live births in 2022.<sup>82</sup>

**The child mortality rate is decreasing.** The under-5 mortality rate that is caused by limited health facilities in rural areas and delivery-related health issues has declined from 147 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1999 to 67 deaths in 2015<sup>83</sup> and finally to a low of 43 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2022.<sup>84</sup>

**Parents prefer to register the birth of a boy child than a girl child.** Only 14 per cent of children had birth certificates, and 12 per cent did not have birth certificates, although they had been registered. In total, 26 per cent of children under the age five had been registered with the civil authority.<sup>85</sup>

**Adolescent pregnancy rates are decreasing, albeit still high.** The adolescent fertility rate is decreasing, reaching a low of 112 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19 in 2022,<sup>86</sup> compared to a rate of 132 per 1,000 in 2018.<sup>87</sup> Overall, 22 per cent of women aged 15-19 have ever been pregnant. However, there is a large geographical variation, with Songwe Region experiencing the highest rate at 44.7 per cent.<sup>88</sup>

**HIV remains a critical public health concern affecting more women than men: Approximately 1.4 million people aged 15 to 64 live with HIV (PLHIV) in Tanzania.**<sup>89</sup> The prevalence of HIV among adults (ages 15 to 64 years) in 2016 was 5.0 per cent; 6.5 per cent among females and 3.5 per cent among males. The percentage of HIV positivity peaks is in the age group 35-39 for men (7.1 per cent infected with HIV), while for women, the peak is later in life at 40-49 years (10.2 per cent).<sup>90</sup>

## GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

**Physical and sexual GBV remains one of the most pervasive forms of abuse.** Approximately 7 out of 10 men and women experience physical violence during childhood.<sup>91</sup> Overall, more than half of all Tanzanian women have survived some form of violence at some point. Women's experiences of violence cut across socio-demographic factors, with the rates of physical, sexual, and psychological violence higher in rural areas and among the less educated.<sup>92</sup> Almost four in ten women have experienced physical violence, and one in five women report having experienced sexual violence in their lifetime.<sup>93</sup> Differently put, 40 per cent of women aged 15-49 years have experienced physical violence, and 17 per cent of the women have experienced sexual violence.<sup>94</sup> Many women suffer multiple forms of violence in their lifetime, committed by multiple perpetrators.<sup>95</sup>

**Violence committed by intimate partners is most widespread and wife beating is still acceptable in rural and urban areas in Tanzania.** Social acceptance of violence against women in Tanzania remains very high. Wife beating is often associated with women failing to fulfil the gender roles assigned to them.<sup>96</sup>

**Increasingly, more women survivors of GBV seek help and report GBV incidences.** Although there is a significant underreporting, more than half of women (54 per cent) who have reported having experienced

82 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report  
83 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children, (2014), Tanzania Country Gender Profile.  
84 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.  
85 The 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey.  
86 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.  
87 The Power of Choice - Reproductive Rights and the Demographic Transition. State of World Population 2018. UNFPA, reports that 132 of every 1,000 live births in Tanzania are to adolescents. [https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA\\_PUB\\_2018\\_EN\\_SWP.pdf](https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA_PUB_2018_EN_SWP.pdf)  
88 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2022 - Key Indicators Report.  
89 National Bureau of Statistics, Tanzania Men and women, Facts and Figures (2018). [https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/WomenAndMen/Women\\_and\\_Men2018.pdf](https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/WomenAndMen/Women_and_Men2018.pdf)  
90 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children, (2014). Tanzania Country Gender Profile. <https://data.em2030.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/TZ-Country-Gender-Profile-004.pdf>  
91 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016. TDHS Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2015/2016. The regions with highest GBV prevalence include Mara (78 percent), Shinyanga (76 percent), Tabora (71 percent), Kagera (67 percent), Geita (63 percent), and Simiyu (62 percent). The regions with the lowest prevalence include: Tanga (25 percent).  
92 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016. TDHS Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2015/2016  
93 Ibid.  
94 Ibid.  
95 OECD (2022). SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.  
96 Ibid

physical or sexual violence confirmed that they have sought help. The number of GBV-related cases reported to the Police Gender Children Desks rose from 29,507 in 2018 to 36,284 in 2020 (an increase of 23 per cent). In Tanzania, the number of GBV-related cases reported to health facilities, including One-Stop Centres, increased from 123,771 in 2018 to 164,725 (a 33 per cent jump).

### **Female Genital Mutilation/Cut (FGM/C) is still happening in Tanzania, with a prevalence rate of 12 per cent.**

The national rate of FGM/C in Tanzania is at 12 per cent but hides significant regional variations.<sup>97</sup> Prevalence is very high in the Central zone (45.6 per cent ) and the Northern zone (21.7 per cent). More than two million Tanzanian women report having been excised or having experienced FGM/C. However, the practice is being progressively abandoned. The regions of Manyara, Dodoma, Arusha, Mara, and Singida have prevalence rates of FGM/C between 30 per cent and 60 per cent. Women in rural areas are more than twice as likely to be mutilated as those in urban areas (12.7 per cent versus 5.3 per cent). Between 2005 and 2015, the FGM/C prevalence among women aged 15-19 decreased from 9.1 per cent to 4.7 per cent, while among those aged 20-24 years, it declined from 13.7 per cent to 7.3 per cent.<sup>98</sup>

Legal frameworks on FGM/C in Tanzania do not have a comprehensive law on FGM/C. Under SOSPA/PC, individuals with custody, care, or charge over a girl under 18 years face criminal penalties if they cause her to undergo FGM/C. The offense is subject to imprisonment and/or fines, and the law provides for the victim's compensation by the perpetrator.

The Marriage Act<sup>99</sup> sets the minimum age at 18 for boys and 15 for girls with parental consent. It also permits girls and boys to marry at 14 with a court's permission. The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act<sup>100</sup> criminalizes all sexual activity with girls under 18. However, the Act provides exceptions for those at least 15 years old and married. In 2019, the Court of Appeal gave an order to Parliament to amend the Law of Marriage Act to raise the minimum age of marriage for girls to 18 years. The law is still unchanged.

## **GENDER AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE**

**Women's ability and willingness to resort to the courts and the police are limited.** In situations of conflict, only 20 per cent of women would seek access to the lowest court in the judicial hierarchy (Primary Courts in Mainland), and just 25 per cent would seek help from the police. Likewise, only 27 per cent of them would turn to religious or traditional leaders. In contrast, about two-thirds of women in Tanzania would turn to relatives or friends. About 70 per cent of women also declare they would turn to local government authorities in case of conflict. Overall, men and women living in urban areas are significantly more likely to solicit the help of a court or police to settle a conflict than in rural areas.

## **GENDER, LEADERSHIP, AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION**

Women face violence, stereotypes, and resource constraints, hindering effective political participation. Underrepresentation in decision-making limits access to resources. Women's leadership is vital to address gender disparities and poverty. Progress against target 5.5 of the SDGs ensures women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all political, economic, and public decision-making levels, which is critical in attaining all other SDGs. However, at the current pace, it would take another 40 years for women and men to be represented equally in political leadership globally.<sup>101</sup>

97 OECD (2022), SIGI Country Report for Tanzania, Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/06621e57-en>.

98 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016, TDHS Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2015/2016.

99 The Marriage Act of 1971.

100 The Marriage Act of 1998.

101 United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Sustainable Development), <https://sdgs.un.org/goals/goal5>.

**Fewer women run for election compared to men.** As of November 2022, the National Assembly is comprised of 36.9 per cent women and 63.1 per cent men. Women are still less likely to run for election compared to men. Of the 1,257 parliamentary candidates in the 2020 elections, 298 (or 24 per cent) were women, while the number of male candidates was 959 (76 per cent). This represents a slight increase from the 2015 election, where women constituted 19 per cent (233 out of 1,218) of nominated candidates, while male candidates were 985 (80.9 per cent). Moreover, in the 2020 general election, the National Electoral Commission (NEC) nominated 9,231 candidates for councillor positions, of whom 8,562 were male and 661 were female.<sup>102</sup> A lower number of women candidates stems from the social norms that women are domestic and apolitical beings and leadership is a male domain.

**Few women are elected to Parliament and most get into the national assembly and councils through the special seats system.** The introduction of the quota system (a special seats system for women) in 1985 has increased the number of women in political decision-making bodies at the national and local levels.<sup>103</sup> This system has enabled most women to get into Parliament as part of the women's special seats system. Data show that only 9.8 per cent of women are elected directly by constituents, while others are appointed through special seats and/or by the President. The 2020 general election brought in eight parliamentarians with disabilities (six women who got into Parliament through the special seats system and two men who won the constituencies).

**Few women are elected in villages, hamlets, and street level.** At the ward level, women comprise 29.24 per cent of councillors, with only 6.5 per cent of women councillors being elected directly from wards. There are more than 12,000 streets/hamlets/villages. Women make 2.1 per cent, 12.6 per cent, and 6.7 per cent of the village, streets, and hamlets chairpersons, respectively.<sup>104</sup> There is a gap in the data on the gender breakdown of local-level leadership at hamlet, village, and street levels. Elections at this level are decentralised through the President's Office: Regional Administration and Local Government. Therefore, this makes data collection and collation very difficult.

**Violence against women during elections is systemic and pronounced.** In a study conducted in 2015,<sup>105</sup> 69 per cent of women electoral candidates reported having experienced abusive language, 17 per cent reported physical attacks, and 13 per cent reported receiving demands for sexual favours.<sup>106</sup> In the same study, over half of the women voters interviewed post-election (53 per cent) said they did not vote due to various factors, including fear of violence often geared toward them. In the 2020 general election, acts of electoral violence against women were rampant, with women candidates experiencing verbal and physical violence.<sup>107</sup> Although the Electoral Code of Conduct prohibits using abusive language, harassment, threats, or language inciting violence or discrimination based on gender, disability, colour, or body structure in the election campaigns,<sup>108</sup> there was little remedial action on such violence.

**Progress is noted in the leadership of the National Assembly; however, the Standing Committees are still male-dominated.** Since independence, the National Assembly has had seven speakers, two of whom are women.<sup>109</sup> In 2000, the National Assembly obtained its first female Chairperson, Honourable Anna Makinda. She later became the first female Deputy Speaker in 2005 and eventually the first female Speaker in 2010. Currently, the National Assembly is headed by a female Speaker, Honourable Tulia Ackson Mwansasu. The Clerk of the National Assembly is also a woman, Ms. Nanelwa J. Mwiambi. Article 96(1) of the Constitution of Tanzania provides for establishing various Parliamentary Standing Committees as the National Assembly may deem appropriate to discharge its functions better.

The composition and functions of the Standing Committees established pursuant to these provisions are set out in the Standing Orders of the National Assembly. There are two major types of Parliamentary Committees: sectoral and non-sectoral. On the one hand, there are ten sectoral committees dealing with (i) industry, trade, and environment; (ii) constitutional and legal affairs; (iii) foreign affairs, defence, and security; (iv) local

102 National Electoral Commission, 2020, Observers' Briefing on the Preparedness for Tanzania's 2020 General Elections.

103 Meena, Ruth (1995). *Politics of Transition, Women, Gender issues in Tanzania*, TGNP, Dar Es Salaam. Pg. 2

104 Data Obtained from President Office, Public Service Management and Good Governance, in November 2022.

105 Tanzania Women Cross-Party Platform (2015). Violence against women in elections. Tanzania General election. Pg.13

106 Violence Against Women in Elections: Evidence From 2015 Tanzania General Elections, by Tanzania Women Cross-Party Platform

107 Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid-19 In Tanzania 2020. <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.

108 Ibid.

109 The Parliament of Tanzania. Accessed on 5 May 2021. <https://www.parliament.go.tz/pages/history>.



government authorities; (v) public service and community development; (vi) lands, natural resources, and tourism; (vii) agriculture, livestock, and water; (viii) infrastructure; (ix) subsidiary legislation; and (i) mineral and energy. All MPs, except the Attorney General, Ministers, and Deputy Ministers, must be in any of these committees. On the other hand, there are three arms of non-sectoral committees. The first arm deals with Housekeeping Committees: Steering Committee, Standing Orders Committee, and Parliamentary Privileges, Ethics and Powers Committee. The second arm comprises Cross-cutting Committees: the Budget Committee and HIV and AIDS Committee. The third arm comprises Watchdog Committees: Public Accounts Committee, Local Authorities Accounts Committee, and Public Investments Committee. Only three Committees are chaired by female MPs and seven with female deputy chairpersons out of 17 Parliamentary Standing Committees.<sup>110</sup>

**Women have been under-represented in the executive arm of the state.** Tanzania obtained its first female Vice President, Samia Suluhu Hassan, at the executive level in 2015. In March 2021, Samia Suluhu Hassan became the first female President following the untimely demise of President John Pombe Magufuli.<sup>111</sup> Since independence, Tanzania has had 11 Prime Ministers, but none of them has been a woman. Currently, 36 per cent of the ministers are women. Women are also underrepresented among permanent secretaries and deputy permanent secretaries. Women comprise 11 per cent of Permanent Secretaries and 22 per cent of Deputy Permanent Secretaries.<sup>112</sup> While Zanzibar has just obtained its first female Chief Secretary, Tanzania Mainland has never had a female Chief Secretary since independence.<sup>113</sup>

Since independence, only two women have been ministers of finance,<sup>114</sup> and only three have been ministers of foreign affairs.<sup>115</sup> For the first time in 2021, a female was appointed minister in the Ministry of Defense and National Services.<sup>116</sup> Women comprise 21 per cent of all ambassadors representing Tanzania in various countries.<sup>117</sup>

Men dominate the positions of the commissioners and directors within the ministries. Women constituted 26 per cent of all directors compared to men and 40 per cent of all assistant directors. In addition, there were 13 per cent women commissioners and 15 per cent female deputy commissioners.<sup>118</sup>

At the regional level, women constitute 23 per cent of the Regional Commissioners and 42 per cent of the Regional Administrative Secretaries. At the district and municipal levels, women comprise 16 per cent of the District Executive Directors, 15 per cent of the District Administrative Secretary, and 29 per cent of District Commissioners.<sup>119</sup>

**The judiciary has witnessed a steady increase in female judicial officers, but overall numbers remain low.** Tanzania has never had a female chief justice or principal judge. Men are the majority at the magistrate court level, with 582 female and 630 male magistrates. At the High Court and Court of Appeal levels, there are 40 female and 62 male judges.

## GENDER, PEACE AND SECURITY

The Government has provided thousands of UN Peacekeepers, including women, to various countries in conflict worldwide. In 2019 alone, over 2,300 peacekeepers were deployed, out of which 184 (8 per cent) were women. The number of women in police and defence forces is unavailable due to its sensitivity. The UN Women's mapping in August 2022 revealed 26 Tanzanian Mainland organizations focused on Women, Peace, and Security (WPS). A few prioritize WPS, like the Global Peace Foundation and Legal and Human Rights

110 See, Parliament of Tanzania, "Committee Composition." Accessed 14 February 2023. <https://www.parliament.go.tz/polis/committees/>.

111 Prominent Leaders in Tanzania. Accessed on 3<sup>rd</sup> May 2021 <https://www.tanzania.go.tz/profiles/profiles/lists/1/0>

112 Directorate of Presidential Communications-State House, United Republic of Tanzania, Press Release released on 4<sup>th</sup> April 2021.

113 Former Chief Secretaries. Accessed on 2<sup>nd</sup> May 2021. <https://www.chiefsecretary.go.tz/former-cs>.

114 Meghji, Zakia and Mkuya, Salum Saada. Ministry of Finance and Planning. Accessed on 6<sup>th</sup> May 2021. <https://www.mof.go.tz>.

115 Migiro, Asha Rose, Mulamula, Liberata and Tenga, Storgomena. Ministry of Foreign Affairs and East African Cooperation. Accessed on 6 May 2021. <https://www.foreign.go.tz/>.

116 Dr. Storgomena Tenga. Directorate of Presidential Communications-State House, United Republic of Tanzania, Press Release released on 12 September 2021.

117 Data Obtained from President Office, Public Service Management and Good Governance, in November 2022.

118 Ibid.

119 Ibid.

Centre. Others integrate WPS initiatives alongside climate change, governance, and economic empowerment. Environmental concerns like climate change intersect with WPS, while legal challenges arise from gaps and gender insensitivity in policy frameworks. Socially, family, divorce, child abuse, gender-based violence against disabled women, and drug abuse emerge as critical WPS issues needing attention within Tanzania Mainland.

## GENDER, ACCESS TO INFORMATION AND THE MEDIA

Media shapes societal perceptions of gender roles and equality. It impacts workplace dynamics by advocating for women's inclusion and portrayal. Women's media involvement is increasing globally, yet Tanzania faces notable gender gaps. Inadequate representation in decision-making affects content, hindering diverse perspectives. Empowering women in media fosters inclusive narratives and empowers female engagement.

**There are equal numbers of accredited men and women journalists in Tanzania.** The number of Tanzanian journalists in the country between the ages of 24 and 55 is almost equal between men and women, with male journalists numbering 386 and women journalists slightly higher at 387.<sup>120</sup>

**Senior roles in media houses tend to be less inclusive.** Despite the gender parity in accredited journalists in the country, senior editors and managers are men, with a higher age range, and none with a disability.<sup>121</sup> Only 5 of 30 senior managers registered with the Ministry of Information are women. None of the senior managers or editors registered with the Ministry have a disability. This speaks to men's dominance for promotions and decision-making roles in the sector.

**Women comprise less than a quarter of higher-level management positions in media houses.**<sup>122</sup> Data from the Glass Ceiling Tanzania Report,<sup>123</sup> which combines both Tanzania Mainland and Tanzania, reveals that in Tanzania, women make up 21 per cent of those in top management and 20 per cent of those in senior management positions in media houses. The study also showed that men were more likely to be employed in permanent, full-time contracts and assigned to cover different stories than women. When exploring the ratios of all media employees (including, e.g., administration, etc.), women constituted 40 per cent of media workers in Tanzania. However, only 28 per cent of women were doing journalistic work. The highest proportion of women work as TV reporters and presenters (over 40 per cent). Women are least represented as print journalists (25 per cent). Gender Links report reveals a very interesting detail: men make up 80 per cent of journalists reporting on gender issues. According to the Global Media Monitoring Project, women have been moving from two traditional "soft issues" to covering topics such as mining, natural disasters, and economics.<sup>124</sup>

## CLOSING GENDER GAPS

Addressing discriminatory social norms, coherent political will, institutional gender transformative leadership, a transformative legal framework, sex-desegregated data, and allocation of adequate resources of GEWE interventions are key in making deliberate strides to close the existing gender gaps across the sectors in Tanzania's Mainland. Several GEWE-related international and regional conventions should be ratified by Tanzania, including the C190 – Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190), the 2018 African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (African Disability Rights Protocol), and the 2012 African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance.

Tanzania's imperative adoption of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE) laws, aligned with global conventions, necessitates resource allocation and policy alignment. Reforms should eliminate discriminatory practices like early marriage, bride price, FGM, and marital rape. Well-equipped gender-responsive officials across sectors are vital for effective implementation. Coordinated national and subnational gender

120 Data supplied by Ministry of Information and Communication Technology in Tanzania, 2022.

121 Ibid.

122 Glass Ceiling Report (2019)

123 The report covers reached nine media outlets on the Mainland and at least five media outlets in Zanzibar

124 Women in the media in Tanzania (2019), Challenging the glass ceiling, study of women in the newsroom in Tanzania. Pg. 12

mainstreaming avoids duplication. Community awareness, positive masculinity, and leader engagement drive gender transformation, addressing domestic work disparities. Targeted education and healthcare investments combat corruption and aid girls' access. Integrating gender perspectives in anti-corruption initiatives ensures equitable services, reliant on gender-specific data for inclusive development. Acknowledging diverse women's needs through inclusive decision-making and universal design is pivotal. Coordinating foreign aid and partners to complement national efforts is crucial for GEWE progress.

## Programmatic and Policy Implications

- Continue advocacy to reform the Law of Marriage Act to increase the marriage age to 18 for both girls and boys to address child marriages, early pregnancies, and dropping out of school. Accelerate revision of Education Act No. 25 (1978) to prohibit child marriage at school.
- Undertake legal reforms to criminalise bride price, FGM/C for women of all ages, and marital rape. Putting in place a comprehensive Gender Based Violence Act to provide a comprehensive definition of domestic violence and cover physical, sexual, psychological, and economic abuse.
- Promote the elimination of gender stereotypes by introducing specific modules and extra-curricular activities on comprehensive sexual and reproductive health, human and child rights, and gender equality.
- Design programs to encourage girls to undertake Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) and Adult and Non-Formal Education (ANFE) programs. Advocate for the institutionalisation of gender mainstreaming in learning institutions to encourage more young women to pursue subjects and courses where men are traditionally over-represented.
- Promote the enrolment of children with disabilities in school. Provide comprehensive, inclusive education with accessible facilities, trained teachers, and accessible learning materials.
- Design a program to address the burden of care and domestic responsibilities for girls and women, to ensure boys and men take part in performing domestic responsibilities, and that the government and private sector come up with initiatives to assist families with care responsibilities.
- Invest in public and formal childcare services, such as family day care and out-of-school hours care.
- Leverage infrastructure development projects to provide communities with enhanced access to essential services – particularly water, electricity, and other renewable energy sources –to reduce women's and girls' share of unpaid care and domestic work.
- Design an enabling policy framework and state-sponsored incentives (including income support, tariff adjustment, direct subsidies or cross-subsidies) to encourage private actors to provide access to water and electricity services to rural and remote areas.
- Leverage child-related cash-transfer programmes and family allowances to engage fathers in childcare. Ensure that any cash benefits are transferred to the child's primary caregiver instead of automatically to the mother.
- The Employment and Labour Relations Act should be amended to expand existing paid paternity leave schemes and make leave non-transferable.
- Invest in gender-transformative awareness-raising and sensitisation programs that actively engage men and women, traditional and religious leaders, as well as influential members of the communities in identifying and finding solutions for negative social norms.
- Address social norms that keep women out of public and private employment. Develop and run advocacy campaigns designed to inform communities of the benefits of women's participation in the labour market.
- Continue to advocate for equal pay for similar work performed by men and women.
- Continue advocacy for the provision of social protection for men and women working in the informal sector.
- Focus targeted and support measures for recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic, Russia-Ukraine war, and climate crisis on sectors in which women are overrepresented, including wholesale and retail and food and accommodation services.
- Strengthen and expand the financial access of women. It encourages the development of financial services in the private sector that are gender sensitive and oriented to improve women's access to capital and funding.
- Develop mentorship programmes and peer-support groups for women in various economic sectors to develop valuable business and economic networks. This will ensure they can access larger markets, are positioned to take advantage of intraregional trade, and know the processes to follow to sell products on international markets.
- Strengthen existing legal frameworks to ensure gender equality provisions established by the Land Act and the Village Land Act are not undermined by other policies, such as the National Land Policy, or laws, such as the Marriage Act, regarding inheritance practices and the transmission of land.

- Conduct a full review of inheritance laws and regimes in Tanzania and enact uniform legislation that protects the rights of widows and daughters to inherit assets, especially agricultural land.
- Consider implementing quotas to guarantee women's equal representation in land governance bodies such as land tribunals and councils, climate management bodies, and decision-making platforms.
- Continue efforts to increase demand for and the accessibility of safe, modern contraceptives and information on sexual and reproductive health among the entire population, specifically adolescents. Develop programmes to facilitate men's and boys' access to quality information on family planning, reproductive rights, and the use of modern methods of contraception. Support gender-transformative sexual health and reproductive rights programming that targets discriminatory social norms related to women's reproductive autonomy.
- Continue raising awareness to ensure women report acts of violence and injustices and seek redress from the justice institutions.
- Reform the electoral system from First Past the Post electoral system to Proportional Representation, reform women's special seats, strengthen gender and social inclusion provisions in the laws governing political parties and elections and address challenges about electoral financing, as well as social norms that continue to affect women's effective participation in leadership, political processes, and decision-making processes and platforms.
- Invest in initiatives to ensure women's effective participation in maintaining peace, security, and the respective platforms and processes.
- Tanzania should ratify the gender-responsive international, regional, and sub-regional conventions and domesticate, implement, and report on the ratified conventions.
- Invest in ensuring the availability of sex-disaggregated data in all sectors.



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