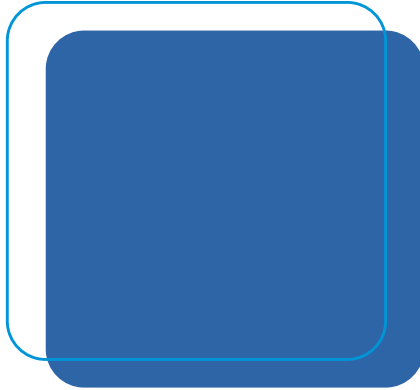
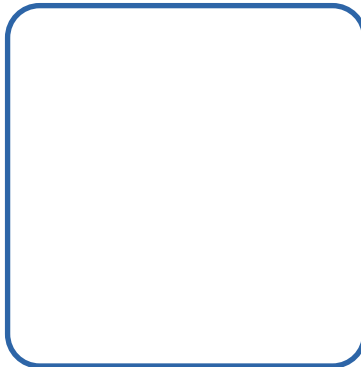




THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA



GENDER PROFILE TANZANIA MAINLAND



AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK GROUP





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This Profile benefited from the general consultations meetings made with officials from the 22 ministries in Tanzania Mainland as well as the two consultative meetings, which involved the ministries' Directors of Policy and Planning (DPPs), Gender Focal Persons (GFPs), and the representatives from selected institutions conducted in Dar es Salaam and Dodoma regions. Therefore,

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AFDB -	African Development Bank
AGI -	African Gender Index
AIDS-	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ANFE -	Adult and Non-Formal Education
CAT -	Court of Appeal of Tanzania
CDOs -	Community Development Officers
CEDAW - Women	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGP -	Country Gender Profile
CHRAGG -	The Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance the Prevention
COBET -	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
CSPs -	Country Strategy Papers (CSPs)
COVID-19 -	Coronavirus Disease of 2019
CPR -	Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
CSE -	Comprehensive Sexuality Education
DHS -	Demographic and Health Surveys
DPG -	GE-Development Partners Group-Gender Equality
DPP -	Directors of Policy and Planning
FGM/C -	Female Genital Mutilation/Cut
FPTP -	First-Past-the-Post
FYDP -	Five-Year Development Plan
GBV -	Gender-Based Violence
GMWG -	Gender Mainstreaming Working Group-Macro Policy
GEWE -	Gender Equality and Women Empowerment
GFP -	Gender Focal Points
GPI -	Gender Parity Index
HBS -	Household Budget Surveys
HIV -	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HLI -	Higher Learning Institutions

ICBAE -	Integrated Community-Based Adult Education
ICCPR -	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ILFS -	Integrated Labour Force Survey
IPOSA -	Integrated Program for Out-of-School Adolescents
IPPE -	The Integrated Post Primary Education
LFS -	Labour Force Surveys
LNOB -	Leaving No One Behind
LRC -	The Law Reform Commission
NBS -	National Bureau of Statistics
NEC -	National Electoral Commission
NGOs -	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPA-VAWC -	The Five-year National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children, 2017/18 – 2021/22
ODL -	Open and Distance Learning
PCCB -	Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau
PO RALG -	President's Office- Regional Administration and Local Government
PSLE -	Primary School Leaving Examination
PSSN -	Productive Social Safety Net
SDG -	Sustainable Development Goals
SIGI -	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SOSPA -	Sexual Offences (Special Provision) Act
STEM -	Science, Technology, and Mathematics
SWASH -	School Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
SWO -	Social Welfare Officers
TPF -	Tanzania Police Force
TPS -	Tanzania Prisons Services
UNDP -	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA -	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNWOMEN -	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
URT -	United Republic of Tanzania
WPS -	Women, Peace, and Security

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 also highlights data gaps that need to be considered for future designing 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 the like-minded local and international NGOs were also utilised. Legal framework analysis, multi-sectoral stakeholders' consultations, and validation meetings further informed the content of this Profile.

Summary Findings and Takeaways

While the presented analysis notes steady progress regarding women's engagement and participation in key sectors, the persisting gender inequalities affect

the realization of women and girls' full potential and how Tanzania gains dividends from women, who constitute half of its population.

The gender inequalities are evidenced by the dire conditions facing women in the following areas:

A. Gender and Education

1. Gender disparity in the enrolment rate at the pre-primary level is negligible.
 2. There is gender parity in the enrolment of boys and girls in primary school. However, more girls are enrolled in secondary schools than boys.
 3. More boys drop out of primary and secondary schools than girls. However, pregnancy and domestic work disproportionately cause more girls to drop out of school.
 4. The net completion rate for primary and secondary schools is higher for girls than for boys. More girls pass primary education compared to boys.
 5. Boys' performance in science subjects in lower and upper secondary school is higher than that of girls.
 6. More boys are selected for secondary school than girls, and more boys are selected for science, mathematics, and technical subjects than girls.
 7. There are slightly fewer girls/women attending and graduating from higher learning institutions than boys/men.
 8. Women are underrepresented in STEM fields in higher learning institutions.
 9. More men attend technical and vocational education and training compared to women.
 10. More Men enrol in adult and non-formal education compared to women.
 11. Most children with disabilities, especially girls, are left out of the primary and secondary education system.
-

B. Gender and the Economy

1. Women form a large part of the illiterate Labour Force.
 2. Women are less likely to be employed compared to men.
 3. Female youth are more likely to be unemployed compared to male youth.
 4. Women with disabilities face even more challenges in accessing employment.
 5. Labour force participation is higher for men than for women in all geographical locations.
 6. Men dominate formal employment in key sectors.
 7. More women work in the informal sector in urban and cities than in rural areas.
 8. Women work fewer hours in formally recognised employment than men.
 9. Women spend three times more in unpaid care work; married women spend even more time.
 10. There is a significant gender pay gap, with average direct wage and salary less for women than men.
 11. Women/wives' cash earnings are lower than men/husbands.
 12. Women have less access to formal financial services.
 13. Female-headed households are less likely to own a variety of assets.
 14. Fewer women own land in Tanzania compared to men.
 15. Across all age groups, men own titles or deeds of houses to a larger extent than women.
 16. Fewer women engage in mining activities.
 17. Women have disproportionately been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic compared to men.
-

C. Gender, Agriculture, and Climate Change

1. Women own less agricultural land than men.
 2. More women farmholders operate at the subsistence level.
 3. Smallholder farmers rely disproportionately on rain-fed plots, of which women are the most vulnerable.
 4. Fewer women use agricultural inputs and technologies, such as agricultural implements, improved seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides.
 5. Men are more likely to be members of producer cooperatives (Agricultural and Marketing Co-operative Societies) compared to women.
 6. Women earn less in the agricultural sector compared to men.
 7. The participation of women in the agricultural sector is further affected by the adverse impact of climate change, which has affected the rain patterns in the country.
-

D. Gender and Infrastructure (Energy, Roads and Water)

1. The country's electrification rate has increased, including for female-headed households.
 2. Most Tanzanians still rely on biomass for their energy needs.
 3. Despite progress, access to clean and safe water remains challenging, especially in rural areas.
 4. Infrastructure development and rehabilitation projects tend to benefit men more than women.
-

E. Gender and Poverty

1. Households with married couples are more likely to be poor than families headed by a single person.
 2. Women-headed families, divorced women, and urban widows are poorer than their male counterparts.
 3. Women-headed households are bigger and poorer than men-headed households.
 4. Lower education levels contribute to higher levels of poverty.
 5. Households headed by young people, i.e., below the age of 35, are less likely to be poor than those headed by older people.
 6. A high percentage of children live in poverty. However, there is no relationship between child poverty and the sex of a child.
 7. Women are central to the Social Safety Net Program.
-

F. Gender and Health

1. Women spend more money on health services than men.
2. Fewer women access contraceptives.
3. The fertility rate is still high.
4. Fewer schools provide Comprehensive Sexuality Education.
5. Maternal mortality is still one of the main triggers of death among women.
6. The proportion of pregnant women who deliver in a health facility is increasing.
7. Adolescent pregnancy rates are decreasing, albeit still high.
8. Parents prefer to register the births of a boy child compared to a girl child.

9. Adolescent pregnancy rates are on the increase.
 10. HIV/AIDS remains a critical public health concern that affects more women than men.
 11. More men use tobacco products.
-

G. Gender-Based Violence

1. Women do not enjoy freedom of movement.
 2. Physical and sexual GBV remains one of the most pervasive forms of abuse, particularly targeting women.
 3. Violence committed by intimate partners is the most widespread.
 4. Wife beating is still considered acceptable in both rural and urban areas.
 5. A girl child is affected by more violence compared to a boy child.
 6. Increasingly, more women survivors of GBV seek help and report GBV incidences.
 7. Female Genital Mutilation/Cut (FGM/C) is still happening in Tanzania, with a prevalence rate of 12 percent.
 8. Teenage pregnancy is still a challenge in the country.
 9. Child marriage is still a challenge in the country.
 10. Bride price is still a dominant practice in the country.
-

H. Access to Justice

1. Women's ability and willingness to resort to the courts and the police are limited.
 2. Discriminatory social norms and attitudes restrict women's ability to access the justice system and to seek redress through Tanzania's legal institutions.
-

I. Gender, Leadership, and Political Participation

1. Men dominate decision-making at the household level.
 2. Fewer women run for election compared to men.
 3. Few women are elected to the parliament. Most women get into the National Assembly and Councils through the Special Seats System.
 4. Few women are elected in villages, hamlets, and streets.
 5. Violence against women during elections is systemic and pronounced.
 6. Progress is noted in the leadership of the National Assembly. However, the Standing Committees are still male dominated.
 7. Women are underrepresented in the executive arm of the state.
 8. The judiciary has witnessed a steady increase in female judicial officers, but overall numbers remain low.
-

J. Gender, Peace, and Security

1. Fewer women are in peacekeeping missions.
2. The number of women in police and defence forces is not available due to its sensitive nature.
3. Few organisations in Tanzania Mainland work focus on Women, Peace, and Security (WPS).

4. There is also a lack of clarity on what amounts to WPS issues. Most organisations focus on advancing general women’s rights and addressing gender-based violence as well as WPS, albeit without going into the depth of WPS issues.
5. Communities grapple with various WPS-related political, economic, legal, environmental, and social issues.

K. Gender, Access to Information, and the Media

1. There are equal numbers of accredited men and women journalists in Tanzania.
2. Senior roles in media houses tend to be less inclusive of women.
3. Women comprise less than a quarter of higher-level management positions in media houses.

L. Policy, legal, institutional, and challenges related to the production of sex-disaggregated data

1. Inadequate or inconsistent application of national, regional, and international law/treaties on gender equality in the Mainland is due to persisting negative social norms, poor political will, and the existence of customary laws, which are often in conflict with the international, regional, and subregional conventions. Minimum capacity and resources for promoting gender and social inclusion initiatives through the existing gender machinery also pose a problem.
2. Production of sex-disaggregated data in all sectors is still at infancy stage.



Key Recommendations

1. Continue advocacy for reforming the Law of Marriage Act to increase the marriage age to 18 for girls and boys to address child marriages, early pregnancies, and dropouts from school. Accelerate revision of Education Act No. 25 (1978) to prohibit child marriage while at school.
2. Undertake legal reforms to criminalise bride price, FGM/C for women of all ages, and marital rape. A comprehensive Gender Based Violence Act to provide a comprehensive definition of domestic violence. The act should cover physical, sexual, psychological, and economic abuse.
3. Address challenges facing a girl and a boy child leading to drop out from school.
4. 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 at schools and colleges.
5. 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.
6. Promote the enrolment of children with disabilities in school and provide comprehensive, inclusive education with accessible facilities, trained teachers, and accessible learning materials.
7. Design programs to address the burden of care and domestic responsibilities for girls and women to ensure boys and men take part in performing domestic responsibilities. In addition, the government and private sector should develop initiatives to assist families with care responsibilities.
8. Invest in public and formal childcare services, such as family day care and out-of-school hours care.
9. Leverage infrastructure development projects to provide communities with enhanced access to basic services – particularly water, electricity, and other renewable energy sources – to reduce women's and girls' share of unpaid care and domestic work.
10. Design an enabling policy framework and state-sponsored incentives – 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.
11. 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.
12. The Employment and Labour Relations Act should be amended to expand existing paid paternity leave schemes and make leave non-transferable. The name maternity and paternity leave should be changed to parental leave. Such leave should be an equal number of days for men and women, including unmarried ones.
13. 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.
14. Address social norms that keep women out of employment in the public and private sectors. Develop and run advocacy campaigns designed to inform communities of the benefits of women's participation in the labour market.
15. Continue to advocate for equal pay for similar work performed by men and women.
16. Continue advocacy for the provision of social protection for men and women working in the informal sector.
17. 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.

18. Strengthen and expand the financial access of women. Encourage the development of financial services in the private sector that are gender sensitive and oriented to improve women's access to capital and funding.
19. Develop mentorship programmes and peer-support groups for women working in various economic sectors to develop valuable business and economic networks. This will ensure that 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.
20. 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.
21. 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.
22. 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.
23. Continue efforts to increase demand for and the accessibility of safe, modern contraceptives and information on sexual and reproductive health among the entire population, especially 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.
24. Continue raising awareness to ensure women report acts of violence and injustices and seek redress from the justice institutions.
25. Reform the electoral system from First Past the Post electoral system to Proportional Representation, reform women's special seats, and strengthen gender and social inclusion provisions in the laws governing political parties and elections. In addition, address challenges about electoral financing and social norms that continue to affect women's effective participation in leadership, political processes, and decision-making processes and platforms.
26. Invest in initiatives to ensure women's effective participation in maintaining peace, security, and the respective platforms and processes.
27. Ratify the - gender-responsive international, regional, and sub-regional conventions and domesticate, implement, and report on the ratified conventions.
28. Invest in ensuring the availability of sex-disaggregated data in all sectors.



CHAPTER

01

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction, Purpose, Methodology, and Limitations

1.0 Introduction

The African Development Bank (AfDB) and UN Women acknowledge the importance Tanzania Mainland places on the promotion of Gender Equality and Women Empowerment (GEWE) and the elimination of all forms of inequalities and discrimination. In doing so, the 2023 Country Gender Profile (CGP) updates the 2005 and 2016 Gender Profiles to provide a comprehensive gender analysis of women and men in Tanzania Mainland. 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 data and analysis on the differences between women and men in their socially assigned gender roles particularly in the access to education, health, energy, and water sources as well as economic opportunities; access and control of productive resources; participation in decision-making processes and positions as well as in peace and security endeavours. Finally, the Profile provides recommendations necessary for closing the existing gender gaps.

1.1 Purpose of the Country Gender Profile

The purpose of the Multisectoral Country Gender Profile is to survey existing official statistics, gender analyses, and country reports with a view to:

1. 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.
2. Assess a country's legal, political, and institutional context related to advancing gender equality, especially in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals.
3. Help to inform the development and review of policies, programs, budgets, plans, and operations of Tanzania Mainland in gender-responsive ways, and to inform the AfDB's Country Strategy Papers (CSPs) as well as the analytical and fieldwork conducted by the UN, UN Women, and other stakeholders.

1.3 Methodology for Country Gender Profile

The CGEP relies on official statistics from the National Bureau of Statistics, which includes quantitative and qualitative data and disaggregates. The data analysis is based on sex, age, disability, and locality (e.g., rural vs. urban) to obtain the nuances of gender equality in the country. Notably, the Profile also highlights data gaps that need to be considered for future designing of surveys, research, assessments, programmes and policies.

The following steps and methods were followed in the development of this Profile:

- **Documentary review:** Statistical and survey reports, 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 reviewed to inform the preliminary content of this Profile.
- **Legal framework analysis:** The international, regional, and sub-regional instruments ratified by Tanzania and the respective national legal and policy commitments on gender equality and the advancement of women were analysed, highlighting progressive areas and areas that need improvement.
- **Multi-sectoral stakeholders' consultations:** Consultations were made with relevant officers from all 22 ministries in Tanzania's Mainland. Two meetings involving the ministries' Directors of Policy and Planning (DPPs) and Gender Focal Persons (GFPs) were conducted in Dar es Salaam and Dodoma regions. Representatives from the ministries provided input on the draft Profile and submitted written contributions. The DPPs and the GFPs also validated and verified the content of the Gender Profile in a validation meeting, which took place in Dodoma.

1.4 Limitations to the Development of the Country Gender Profile for Tanzania Mainland

- Due to the economic, political, social and cultural differences between Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar, this CGP focuses on Tanzania Mainland. However, there is a separately produced Gender Profile for Zanzibar. Hence, only data sources for Tanzania Mainland were utilised. Nevertheless, obtaining specific data for Tanzania Mainland only was a big challenge because most of the available data are derived from the entire United Republic of Tanzania.
- This Gender Profile intends to present the disaggregated analysis based on gender, age, disability, socio-economic status, location (urban/rural), and level of education to inform the Leaving No One Behind (LNOB)/intersectional analysis. However, this is done wherever such data is available. It is noted that the country's production of sex-desegregated data is still in the infancy stage.
- While the Profile has utilised the most current data sources, some facts employed in the Profile are older, dating back to 2012. Although Tanzania undertook its national Census in 2022, comprehensive results are yet to be produced. Furthermore, some sectors have close to non-sex desegregated related data, for instance, climate change, peace and security infrastructures (water, energy and roads), science, technology, and innovation.

DAWATI LA JINSIA NA WATOTO — SITAKISHARI



CHAPTER

02

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Legal and Institutional Frameworks for Gender Equality in Tanzania Mainland

2.1 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 is obliged to ensure equal rights and opportunities for men and women to enjoy social, economic, and political rights without any discrimination. The United Nations Charter under Articles 1, 8, and 55(c)¹ provides universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all based on race, sex, language, or religion.² Tanzania has also ratified the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) in 1976.³ Article 3 of ICCPR state parties to ensure equal rights of men and women to enjoy all civil and political rights.⁴ More importantly, in 1986, Tanzania ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of 1979 (CEDAW). CEDAW 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 exercise and enjoyment of 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.

In the African continent, the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (the African Charter),⁵ also promotes and protects human rights and fundamental freedoms.⁶ The Charter enshrines the foundational principles of non-discrimination and equality of men and women before the law.⁷ Like CEDAW, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol),⁸ calls states parties to combat all forms of 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 women's rights instruments.

Further, the African Agenda 2063 shares the framework for inclusive growth and sustainable development for Africa. Aspiration 6 of the Agenda recognises that development is not only people-driven

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 23rd July 2022. 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.'

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%3AyolQ56j7ag8mlhc9Ilt0CLdKO_MICpFOU6IBsbdwGvgWoez4f9DPxUnVbP03S5mXGE4NtHFhxXP6Qw..

but also relies on the potential of African people, especially women, and youth. Its implementation plan, Agenda 2063, foresees economic growth with expanded job opportunities, especially for youth and women. Goal 17 of the African Agenda 2063 aims to ensure full gender equality in all spheres of life. It has two priority areas: women and girls' empowerment and violence and discrimination against women and girls.

At the sub-regional level, through the East African Community's objectives, member states must mainstream equality between men and women in all aspects. Members also commit to ensuring women's role in cultural, social, political, economic, and technological development.⁹ Article 6 of the Treaty identifies gender equality among the key fundamental principles in the functioning of the Community. In 2018, the East African Community adopted the East African Gender Policy, which calls upon member states to realise equal participation of men and women in all spheres of life. Consequently, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) under goal 5 seeks to achieve gender equality and empowerment of women and girls. Similarly, Goal 10 aims to reduce inequalities within and between nations.

The human rights and the women-specific international and regional conventions affirm that human rights, including women's rights, are universal, inalienable, interdependent, and indivisible. The conventions encourage member states to make deliberate efforts to attain, promote, and protect gender equality and the advancement of women by ensuring equal rights of men and women in the enjoyment of all civil, political, economic, and cultural rights. The Conventions further acknowledge that the non-realization of gender equality parameters negatively affects a country's welfare and development prospects.

Under the recent United Nations' Generation Equality Forum (2021),¹⁰ 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 the creation of 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.

2.2 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.¹¹ In addition, the National Vision 2025 seeks to awaken, coordinate, and direct people's efforts, minds, and national resources towards core sectors that will enable the country to achieve

9 The Treaty was signed on 30 November 1999 and entered into force on 7 July 2000. 'Tanzania overview of EAC.' Accessed on 27 December 2022. <http://www.eac.int/about/overview>.

10 *ibid.*

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

national development goals. Part Three of the 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.¹²

There are also laws related to specific aspects of gender equality and women's rights, albeit with some shortcomings. The 1999 Land and Village Land Acts provide equal opportunity for men and women to own land. Counterintuitively, the National Land Policy of 1997 reinforces customary practices of property ownership, which, in most cases, discriminates against women and girls. The 1971 Law of Marriage Act relates to marriage, personal and property rights between husband and wife, separation, divorce, and other matrimonial-related matters. Section 56 provides for the rights and liabilities of married women, giving them the same right as a man to acquire, hold, and dispose of property and the same right to contract, the same right to sue, and the same liability to be sued in contract. The major challenge of the Law of Marriage Act is that it allows girls between 14 and 15 years old to be married off if there is parental or court consent. The law is yet to be amended despite the 2019 decision by the Court of Appeal ordering the age of marriage for boys and girls to be 18. In addition, the 1998 Sexual Offences (Special Provision) Act (SOSPA) safeguards women's integrity, dignity, liberty, and security by prohibiting sexual-related offenses. However, SOSPA has not criminalised marital rape and offers no specific definition for FGM/C. The act also allows women over 18 years to be circumcised.

In the political sphere, the Elections Act Cap 343 regulates presidential and parliamentary elections in Tanzania Mainland. It allows both men and women to engage in elections and make provisions for women's special seats, which are allocated to political parties with more than five percent of parliamentary votes. Furthermore, the 1992 Political Parties Act and its 2019 Amendment require good governance, non-discrimination, gender, and social inclusion to be observed in managing political parties, nominating candidates, electing party leaders, and formulating party governing documents. The Act, however, does not provide a threshold regarding the number or percentage of women the political party should have as its members, leaders and/or candidates, thus limiting the extent to which political parties comply to the Act.

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.

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

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 percent of internal revenues to support the economic activities of women (4 percent), youth (4 percent), and persons with disabilities (2 percent). More men seem to benefit more from municipal loans. Between 2015/16 and 2019/20, 47.8 percent of the disbursed loans have been received by women, while 52.2 percent have benefited men.¹³

The Five-year National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children (NPA-VAWC 2017/18 – 2021/22), which is currently being evaluated, 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.

2.3 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 ministry, agency, department, region, and district authority has not only a designated Gender Focal Person (GFP) but is also mandated to set up a gender committee to oversee gender, women, and disability issues. The execution of this role is hampered by the ministry’s minimum technical and financial capacity responsible for gender issues to strengthen the gender capacity of Gender Focal Persons. The GFPs are also overstretched as they have other primary responsibilities other than overseeing gender issues. Similarly, most ministries, departments, and institutions hardly plan and budget for gender priorities unless required by development partners through donor-funded projects.

A Gender Mainstreaming Working Group-Macro Policy (GMWG) established in 2008 is mandated to promote gender mainstreaming. MCDGC manages it as a government representative and UN Women as a Development Partners Group-Gender Equality (DPG-GE) representative. The Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance (CHRAGG), the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau (PCCB), the Judiciary, The Law Reform Commission, the Tanzania Police Force (TPF), and the Tanzania Prisons Services (TPS) also play a crucial role in promoting and protecting 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.¹⁴ These challenges undermine the ability of these institutions to respond to the unique needs of women and other vulnerable groups.

¹³ Ministry of Trade and Industry’s Budget Speech 2021/2022.

¹⁴ 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>.

In the National Assembly, the Parliamentary Committee on Social Welfare and Community Development is presumed to deal with gender issues. However, the Committee is overwhelmed with overseeing sectors, such as education, health, arts, and information. Thus, the Committee cannot pay sufficient attention to supporting other Committees and the Parliament in general on gender issues. In addition, the Permanent Standing Orders of 2020, which guide the operation of the National Assembly and the law-making process, are not gender responsive. Although the National Assembly has made some progress concerning inclusion and gender-responsive budgeting, the gender blindness of the Standing Orders negatively affects the making of gender-responsive budgets and laws.

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 percent of the required number of SWOs. The shortage of CDOs stands at 45 percent.¹⁵ 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 in higher learning institutions.¹⁶ 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.

Data related to gender is collected through the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). Through censuses and surveys, NBS collects national sex-disaggregated data on population, health, agriculture, and the economy. Time-use data were collected for the first time in 2006 through the Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS). The Tanzania Statistical Master Plan 2009/10 - 2013/14 recognises the importance of producing sex-disaggregated statistics that capture and measure gender-related issues and concerns. The national statistical system has progressed in entrenching and mainstreaming gender data within its main surveys. It has also managed to generate regular key sex-disaggregated indicators, notably through Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), Household Budget Surveys (HBS) and/or Labour Force Surveys (LFS). Gender Focal Points in each ministry, region, and municipality are also responsible for keeping sex-disaggregated data.

Within NBS, the oversight of gender and social inclusion is under the Social and Demographic Statistics Department, which oversees surveys related to the Household Baseline Survey, Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, Education Surveys, School Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (SWASH), the Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) surveys, Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) to mention the most obvious. The Social and Demographic Statistics Department has gender-focal persons. However, their influence, capacity, and interest in bringing about gender transformation by undertaking surveys is minimal. Further, NBS is yet to have its own Gender Policy and/or Strategy and/or Action Plan to govern its work, which is linked with the National Gender Policy. The Statistical Needs, Methods, and Standards department oversees statistical standards across all other standards. Efforts have not been made to transform this department's way of developing survey tools and standards to ensure gender-responsive data collection have not been made. Recently, SDG indicators have been used to inform the surveys and census. However, baseline information is non-existent. It is worth noting that NBS has, for the first time, conducted and produced a specific survey on Social Institution and Gender Index (SIGI) through UN Women and OECD Development Centre support. Released in 2022, the SIGI report measures discriminatory social institutions, such as unequal inheritance rights, child marriage, violence against women and girls, and unequal land and property rights.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDEC)'s Budget Speech for 2021/2022.

2.4 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 140th out of 162 countries (United Nations Development Programme, 2020). In 2019, Tanzania scored 63 percent 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 (AfDB and UNECA, 2020).¹⁷

Tanzania has ratified and domesticated various international, regional, and sub-regional 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 conventions 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:

1. Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1987.
2. International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, 2003.
3. African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance, 2007.
4. International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2010.
5. Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1976.
6. Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant and Political Rights, aiming to abolish the death penalty, 1991.
7. Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2013.
8. Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 2006.
9. Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a communications procedure, 2011.
10. Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Africa of 2018.¹⁸

Other challenges facing the implementation of international, regional, and subregional conventions include the application of customary laws, the Constitution, and other national legislations. The Tanzanian customary laws are codified in the Customary Law (Declaration) Order No. 436 of 1963. The Order not only still exists but is also applied alongside the Constitution and other legislations. This consequently causes a conflict of laws and hinders 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.¹⁹ 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.

The persistent gender equality gaps and challenges stem from deeply entrenched discrimination in social institutions, namely the established set of formal and/or informal norms and practices that govern societal behaviour. They also represent key challenges to the country's development and the

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

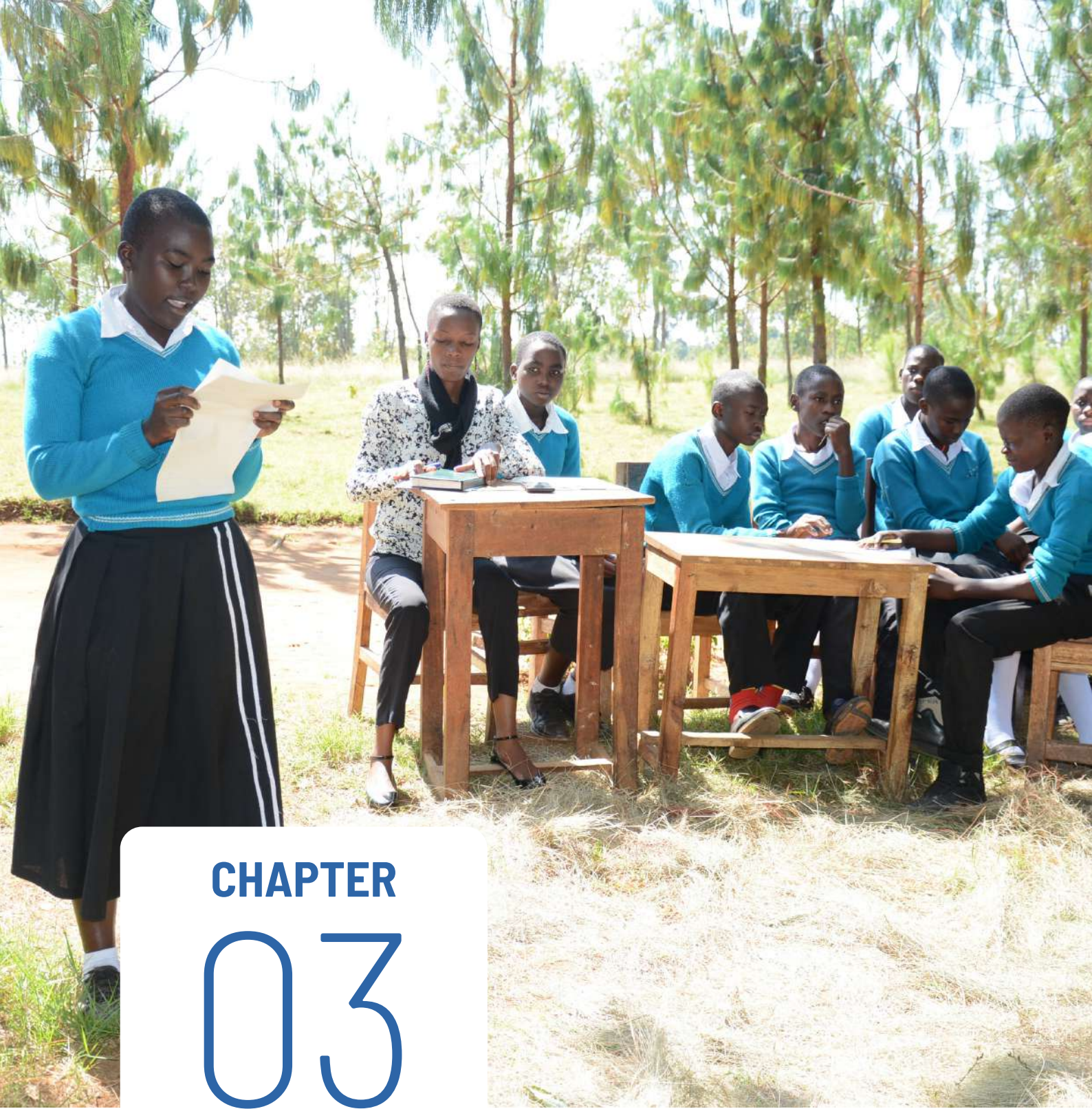
18 Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection, and the Threat Posed by Covid-19 in Tanzania 2020.

19 Ibid.

achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) by Tanzania. The results from the 2022 Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) in Tanzania show that women and girls in Tanzania Mainland face high levels of discrimination in social institutions, with a score of 35.4. Likewise, discrimination in social institutions faced by women and girls is more acute in rural areas (38) than in urban areas (32). Most of the population lives in rural areas, so a large share of Tanzanian women experience high levels of social discrimination.²⁰ 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 45.²¹ 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.

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>.



CHAPTER

03

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 The State of Gender Equality in Tanzania Mainland - Sectoral Analysis

3.1 Introduction

The need to achieve gender equality cuts across all sectors and is central to achieving all SDGs. Based on the status of men/boys to women/girls, including those with disabilities, and the respective situations across the geographical areas, this section provides data and reasons on the state of gender equality in Tanzania Mainland in key sectors, such as education, economy, agriculture, health, environment, and infrastructure. It also interrogates progress in areas such as poverty reduction, leadership, violence against women, and peace and security.

3.2 Gender and Education, Training

SDG 4 ensures inclusive and equitable education and promotes lifelong learning opportunities for all. Its ten targets ensure equal access to pre-primary, primary, secondary, vocational, technical, and higher education for boys/men and girls/women. This includes those with disabilities and those living in rural areas. While more boys are enrolled in pre-primary schools than girls, there is parity in enrolment of girls and boys at primary, and more girls are enrolled at secondary schools than boys. Marginal differences are seen in high schools and universities where more boys are enrolled than girls. Fewer women pursue STEM subjects and attend technical, vocational, and Adult and Non-Formal Education (ANFE) programs than men. There is minimum access to education for children with disabilities: boys with disabilities access more educational opportunities than girls with disabilities. Men remain the household's primary decision-makers, including critical decisions about children's education.

3.2.1 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 percent), while the number of girls was 702,786 (49.39 percent). The leading region with more enrolment is Mwanza 108,077 (7.6 percent), followed by Kagera 93,338 (6.6 percent), while the region with less enrolment is Katavi 21,319 (1.5 percent).

3.2.2. 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 percent and 49.44 percent for girls, representing a Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 97.8 percent. Similarly, boys make up 49.98 percent of the school-going population at the primary school level, while girls make up 50.02 percent.²² The total enrolment for both girls and boys has constantly increased since 2016. The increase is mainly attributed to the introduction of 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. Of 2,185,037 students enrolled in Forms I-IV in 2019, girls were 52.2 percent, while boys were 47.8 percent.

3.2.3 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 percent), and 29,709 (44.9 percent) were girls. Truancy is the leading cause of pupils (girls and boys) dropping out of primary education. For instance, 94.0 percent 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 percent). 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 percent) 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.²³ 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. Some of these barriers include those that prevent pregnant girls or young mothers from attending formal schooling.²⁴ Similarly, in 2018, a total of 1,214 pupils (two percent) dropped out of primary schools due to domestic work, most of them being girls (775 equals 63.8 percent) compared to boys (436 equals 35.9 percent). Also, in 2017, out of 77 pupils, more girls (57) dropped out of primary schools than boys (20) due to domestic work.²⁵ In 2027, 65,700 pupils (34079 boys and 31621 girls) dropped from secondary schools. Form two has the highest dropout rate (5.3 percent). About 3.4 percent of students enrolled in Government and Non-Government Secondary Schools in 2017 dropped out of schools due to truancy (87.8 percent), pregnancy (8.3 percent), Indiscipline (3.0 percent), and death (0.9 percent). Tabora region reported the highest dropout rate than other regions (7.4 percent). Dropouts in lower-level secondary schools are higher than in upper-level secondary schools due to puberty-related factors.²⁶

Table 1:
Number of Dropouts in Government and Non-government Primary Schools by Reason, Grade, and Sex, 2017.

Reasons for Dropout	Grade														Grand Total			% Dropout by Reasons
	Standard I		Standard II		Standard III		Standard IV		Standard V		Standard VI		Standard VII		Male	Female	Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female						
Death	333	240	352	285	298	199	240	148	127	91	154	145	71	72	1575	1180	2755	4.2
Indispline	7	6	5	7	21	19	16	16	7	7	37	23	20	15	113	93	206	0.3
Pregnancy	0	2	0	21	0	25	0	80	0	138	0	370	0	404	0	1040	1040	1.6
Truancy	6344	5622	7290	6401	6066	4751	4955	3548	2906	2034	5142	3605	2043	1434	34746	27395	62141	94.0
Grand Total	6684	5870	7647	6714	6385	4994	5211	3792	3040	2270	5333	4143	2134	1925	36434	29708	66142	100.0

Source: BEST, 2017

3.2.4 Net completion rate for primary and secondary schools is higher for girls than for boys:

Although there is gender parity in enrolment, the primary school (standard seven) completion rate for girls is higher than that of boys. In 2018, the Net completion rate was 31.1 percent for girls compared to boys at 25.6 percent. In 2017, the total number of those who completed secondary school was 353,067. Of those, 174,355 were boys (49.3 percent), while girls numbered 178,712 (50.6 percent). Most boys drop

23 Men and Women Facts of 2018.

24 World Bank Statement on the Announcement by Government of Tanzania on Equal Access to Education for Pregnant Girls and Young Mothers. Accessed on 1 December 2021. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/statement/2021/11/24/world-bank-statement-on-the-announcement-by-government-of-tanzania-on-equal-access-to-education-for-pregnant-girls-and-y>.

25 BEST, 2018.

26 Ibid.

out of school because they engage in fishing, farming, industrial work, and mining at an early age to navigate high poverty levels.

3.2.5 Also, most girls pass primary education compared to boys. In 2017, 662,035 students passed primary school exams. Of those, 341,020 were girls (51.5 percent), while boys numbered 321,015 (48.4 percent).

3.2.6 The performance of boys in science subjects in lower and upper secondary is higher than that of girls: Boys’ performance than that of girls: Boys’ performance in science subjects in lower secondary is higher than that of girls. In 2017, data show that 67, 23, 50, and 60 percent of boys passed biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry subjects, respectively, compared to 55, 15, 31, and 45 percent of girls.²⁷ However, girls’ performance in Kiswahili was 78.9 percent in 2016 and 87.0 percent in 2017, exceeding that of boys by 2.4 percent in 2016 and 5.2 percent in 2017. This indicates that girls have better competence in this subject than boys. The same pattern is seen in upper secondary school. Records show that boys have higher pass rates in science subjects while girls have higher pass rates in arts subjects. In 2017, it was reported that 95, 76, 86, and 89 percent of boys passed biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry subjects, respectively, compared to 94, 71, 83, and 86 percent of girls.

3.2.7 More boys are selected in high school than girls, and more boys are selected for science, mathematics, and technical subjects compared to girls: There is a poor transition rate for girls from Ordinary level secondary education (Form I – IV) to Advanced level secondary school (Form V-VI). However, the gap is narrowing year by year.²⁸ In 2019, girls constituted 41 percent, while boys constituted 59 percent of those selected to join high school education. In 2018, a total of 91,193 (57.8 percent) boys were enrolled in high schools, while girls were 66,252 (72.6 percent) out of 157,445 pupils (42 percent).²⁹ Teen pregnancies and early marriages affect girls’ transition to high school. On the other hand, boys constitute 58 percent while girls comprise 42 percent of those selected for science and mathematics-related subjects. There is parity between girls and boys selected for art and commercial-related subjects.

Table 2:
Number of Students Selected to Join Form V and Technical Education in 2019

Description	Female %	Male %	Total
Candidates sat for CSEE 2018	51	49	100%
Qualified to be selected for Form V and Technical Education	41	59	100%
Selected for Science and Mathematics subjects	42	58	100%
Selected for Arts and Commercial subjects	50	50	100%
Total selected for Form V	46	54	100%
Selected for Technical Education at ATC, DIT, MUST & WDMI	25	75	100%
Selected to join Technical Education under NACTE ³⁰	36	64	100%
Total selected for Technical Colleges	36	64	100%
Total selected to Form V and Technical Colleges	42	58	100%
Qualified students not selected	0	100	100%

Source BEST, 2019

27 Ibid.

28 URT (2019), Education Sector Reform, Tanzania Mainland. <https://www.globalpartnership.org/sites/default/files/2019-04-gpe->

tanzania-esp.pdf.

29 BEST, 2019.

30 National Education Council of Tanzania-NECTA

3.2.8 There are slightly fewer girls/women attending and graduating from higher learning institutions than boys/men: The higher education enrolment rate is at 8.2 percent, of which boys/men constitute 4.5 percent while girls/women constitute 3.7 percent. The number of those graduating from tertiary education is 60,940, of which boys/men are 34,513 (56 percent), while girls/women are 26,427 (54 percent). This is partly caused by most girls dropping out of secondary school due to teen pregnancies and early marriages.

3.2.9 Women are underrepresented in STEM fields in higher learning institutions: In Tanzania, the participation of female students in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) disciplines in Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs) is low. The number of those graduating from tertiary education is 60,940, with 36 percent graduating from science and engineering programs. Although progress has been steady, there are still beliefs that girls/women are not wired for hard subjects, such as those related to science and technology. Also, there are beliefs that they need to take courses leading to flexible careers to perform wifely roles.

3.2.10 More men Attend Technical and Vocational Education and Training compared to women. In 2018/2019, 46 percent of TVET students were women, while 54 percent were men. The gap keeps on decreasing. For instance, in 2016/17, 62 percent of males and 38 percent of females attended vocational and technical training in 2016/17.

Table 3:
Enrolment Trend in Vocational Education by Sex, 2016/17 – 2018/19.

	2016/17%	2017/18%	2018/19%
Male	62	67	54
Female	38	33	46
Total	100	100	100

Source: VETA 2019

3.2.11 More Men Enrol in Adult and Non-Formal Education Compared to Women: Adult and Non-formal Education (ANFE) refers to providing education to out-of-school children, youth, and adults outside the formal education system. More out-of-school boys/men attend nonformal education programs than girls/women. This is partly due to poor economic conditions, domestic and care burdens, and lack of autonomy over decisions about their lives, including education.



Table 4:
Summary of Total Enrolment in ANFE 2018 -2019³¹

Programme	Ownership	Total Enrolment 2019		
		Male	Female	Total
COBET	Government	(58%)	(42%)	100%
	Non. Gov.	(49%)	(51%)	100%
ICBAE	Government	(43%)	(57%)	100%
	Non. Gov.	(38%)	(62%)	100%
IPPE	Government	(64%)	(36%)	100%
	Non. Gov.	(42%)	(58%)	100%
ODL	Government	(73%)	(27%)	100%
	Non. Gov.	(72%)	(28%)	100%
IPOSA	Government	(99.8%)	(99.2%)	100%
	Non. Gov.	(0.2%)	16%	20%

Source BEST, 2018 and 2019

3.2.12 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).³² Only 49,655 children 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.³³ Also, a higher share of boys with disabilities (52 percent) attend secondary schools than girls with disabilities (48 percent) across all types of disabilities. An exception is noted for children with low vision, where more girls with low vision (56 percent) attend secondary school than boys (44 percent). The table below shows that, across disabilities, a higher share of boys versus girls are enrolled in primary school.

31 Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET). Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE). The Integrated Post Primary Education (IPPE). Integrated Program for Out of School Adolescents (IPOSA). Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE). Open and Distance Learning (ODL).

32 BEST, 2018.

33 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>.



Table 5:
Pupils with Disability in Primary Schools, 2018-2019.

Type of Disabilities		
	% for Boys	% for Girls
Visual Impairment	58	42
Hearing Impairment	54	46
Physical Disability	61	39
Intellectual Impairment	59	41
Albinism	50	50
Deaf Blindness	54	46
Autism	59	41
Low Vision	57	43
Total		

Source BEST, 2019

Table 6:
Pupils with Disabilities in Secondary Schools, 2018-2019

Type of Disabilities	Number of Students		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Visual Impairment	(57%)	(43%)	100%
Hearing Impairment	(51%)	(49%)	100%
Physical Disability	(59%)	(41%)	100%
Intellectual Impairment	(64%)	(36%)	100%
Albinism	(52%)	(48%)	100%
Deaf-Blindness	(61%)	(39%)	100%
Autism	(64%)	(36%)	100%
Low Vision	(44%)	(56%)	100%
Total	(52%)	(48%)	100%

Source BEST, 2019

While steady progress has been made regarding how girls and boys access basic education, challenges remain for children with disabilities. It is noteworthy that higher poverty levels, teen pregnancies, and girl-child marriage continue to be major causes of girls' dropouts. Across Tanzania, men remain the household's primary decision-makers, including decisions related to education. Social norms also require women to pursue educational goals that would still make them flexible to execute their motherly and wifely roles. Hence, fewer women enrol in STEM, technical, vocational, and ANFE-related programs.

3.3. Gender and the Economy

SDG 8 calls for sustained, inclusive, sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work. Target 8.5 calls upon countries to achieve full and productive employment, decent jobs

for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value. Under Goal Five on Gender Equality, Target 5.4 calls for recognising and valuing unpaid care and domestic work, while Target 5 calls for reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources. While Tanzania has made some progress in these areas, gaps remain. Women not only form a large part of the illiterate labour force and are less likely to be employed; they are also more likely to face long-term unemployment and create a large part of the inactive population. Female youth are more likely to be unemployed compared to male youth. Women with disabilities face even more challenges accessing employment than men with disabilities. In addition, men have a higher percentage of labour force participation than women. Evidence shows that men dominate formal employment, with more women working in the informal sector.

Further, women work fewer hours in formally recognised employment than men. Women also spend three times more on unpaid care work and domestic responsibilities. There is a significant gender pay gap: the average direct wage and salary are less for women than men. Finally, COVID-19 has exacerbated women’s marginalised position in the economy.

3.3.1 Women form a large part of the illiterate Labour Force: Women form most of the work force who never attended school at 21.3 percent while men are at 14.1 percent. While the workforce with primary education is almost similar between men and women, men form most of the workforce with secondary school education (17 percent) while women are at (13.8 percent). Also, men comprise most of the work force who attended vocational training (1.5 percent) while women are at (1.1 percent). Further, men form most of the work force who attended tertiary education (1.6 percent), while women are at (1.1 percent). Furthermore, men form most of the work force who attended university (2.1 percent) while women are at (1.3 percent).³⁴

Table 7:
Percentage of Illiterate Persons 15+ Years in the Labour Force by Area and Sex

Area	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural	19.1	33.7	26.4	19.1	33.8	26.5	16.7	29.8	23.1	18.2	27	22.6	18.3	27.2	22.7	11.8	21.4	16.3
Other Urban	5.2	13.1	8.8	5.3	12.3	8.9	3.4	6.8	5.0	3.9	9.9	7.0	4.1	10.2	7.3	1.5	4.7	3.0
DSM	1.8	5.3	3.5	1.8	5.3	3.5	-	-	-	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.1	2.0	1.5	-	-	-
TOTAL	13.7	24.9	19.4	13.7	25.1	19.5	10.9	20	15.3	13.9	21.1	17.6	14.1	21.3	17.8	6.9	13.3	9.9

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.2 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 percent of men and 74.6 percent of women), in urban areas (79.4 percent of men and 66.8 percent of women) as well as in the cities (69.5 percent of men compared to 53.1 percent of women). Evidence shows that the unemployment rate is higher for women than for men. More women (9.3 percent) are unemployed in rural areas than men (5.2 percent). This is the same in urban areas, where the unemployment rate is 14.6 percent for women and 4.6 percent for men. In Dar es Salaam, 28.6 percent of women are unemployed compared to 11.8 percent of men. More women with university education are unemployed (12.7 percent) compared to men (5.7 percent). Also, women are more likely to face long-term unemployment, at 48.3 percent across, compared to 39.4 percent for men.³⁵ Further, women are more likely to form part of the inactive population, the

34 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21.

35 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21.

proportion of working-age people who are neither employed nor unemployed. This group includes retirees, patients, persons living with disabilities, full-time school attenders, and those with care responsibilities. In rural areas, women constitute 17.8 percent, while men constitute 11.8 percent of the inactive population. In urban areas, women constitute 21.2 percent, while men constitute 16.8 percent of the inactive population. In Dar es Salaam, women constitute 25.7 percent, while men constitute 21.2 percent of the inactive population. Although there is a high unemployment rate among youth between 15 and 24 at 14.7 percent, 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 percent, while for young men is at 8.1 percent. This translates to eight percent lower. Further, women are highly unemployed across the age groups, at 12.2 percent, compared to men at 5.7 percent. 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 percent of the population agrees that women should ask for their husband's permission to have a paid job outside the home.³⁶

Table 8:
Unemployment Rates: (National Definition)

Area	2014									2020/2021									
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ			
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Area	Rural	7.9	9.0	8.5	8.0	8.9	8.4	5.7	15.2	10.3	5.2	9.6	7.4	5.2	9.3	7.2	5.8	22.8	16.3
	Other Urban	7.5	13.6	10.7	7.2	12.5	9.9	14.1	40.3	26.8	5.4	16.0	11.0	4.6	14.6	9.9	15.6	37.0	3.0
	DSM	11.3	32.2	21.5	11.3	32.2	21.5	-	-	-	11.8	28.6	20.5	11.8	28.6	20.5	-	-	-
	TOTAL	8.2	12.7	10.5	8.2	12.3	10.3	9.3	25.9	17.4	5.8	12.7	9.3	5.7	12.2	9.0	10.4	29.7	19.7
Education Level	Never attended	8.1	11.0	10.0	8.3	10.9	10.0	4.6	12.7	9.7	4.5	7.1	6.1	4.5	7.0	6.1	3.1	12.9	9.4
	Primary Education	7.8	12.3	10.0	7.8	12.2	9.9	8.0	23.9	15.0	5.1	12.5	8.8	5.0	12.4	8.7	6.9	25.5	14.7
	Secondary Education	11.0	18.8	14.6	10.9	17.2	13.8	11.7	34.3	22.3	8.5	20.1	13.8	8.1	18.2	12.7	2.8	37.3	24.5
	Vocational Training	6.5	10.6	8.0	6.5	10.2	7.9	6.6	29.4	16.8	8.1	16.4	11.7	7.9	15.7	11.3	11.5	27.9	19.4
	Tertiary/ Non-University	5.2	5.6	5.4	5.1	4.5	4.9	7.2	17.5	13.0	9.5	14.1	11.4	8.9	13.4	10.7	22.3	21.0	21.6
	University	5.4	12.3	7.4	5.4	11.9	7.2	6.4	18.3	10.9	8.3	14.1	10.6	8.3	14.0	10.5	7.8	16.5	11.3
	TOTAL	8.2	12.7	10.5	8.2	12.3	10.3	9.3	25.9	17.4	5.8	12.7	9.3	5.7	12.2	9.0	10.4	29.7	19.7
Age	15-35	9.0	15.0	12.1	8.9	14.5	11.7	14.4	34.4	24.6	8.3	16.7	12.6	8.1	16.1	12.2	15.5	40.7	27.6
	36-64	6.9	9.3	8.1	7.0	9.2	8.1	3.6	15.2	9.0	2.9	8.4	5.6	2.9	8.1	5.5	4.7	18.2	11.3
	65+	9.3	12.4	10.7	9.3	12.5	10.8	6.0	6.9	6.4	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.7	4.6	3.4
	TOTAL	8.2	12.7	10.5	8.2	12.3	10.3	9.3	25.9	17.4	5.8	12.7	9.3	5.7	12.2	9.0	10.4	29.7	19.7

3.3.3 Women with disabilities face even more challenges in accessing employment: Employment among people with disabilities has increased from 59.1 percent in 2014 to 63.2 percent in 2020/21. Also, unemployment for people with disabilities has decreased significantly from 12.4 percent in 2014 to 6.0 percent in 2020/21.³⁷ Introducing a special credit window for people with disabilities (2 percent of local

36 Ibid.

37 Ibid.

council revenue) might have contributed to job creation for people with disabilities. However, women with disabilities are less likely to be employed (60.4 percent) than men with disabilities (68.0 percent). Consequently, most women with disabilities are likely to be unemployed (7.0 percent) compared to men with disabilities (4.3 percent). Similarly, more women with disabilities are completely out of labour force (35.1 percent) compared to men with disabilities (29.0 percent). 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.

Table 9:
Participation in Economic Activities for Persons with Disabilities by Area and Sex, 15+ (National Definition)

Economic activity status	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Employed	64.6	55.3	59.1	64.7	55.3	59.3	57.4	47.0	51.8	67.6	60.1	63.2	68.0	60.4	63.5	48.4	39.7	43.4
Unemployed	9.5	14.6	12.4	9.5	14.6	12.4	8.4	14.9	11.7	4.4	7.2	6.0	4.3	7.0	5.8	16.0	21.7	19.1
Out of labour force	28.6	35.2	32.5	28.4	35.0	32.3	37.4	44.8	41.4	29.2	35.3	32.8	29.0	35.1	32.5	42.8	49.2	46.4

3.3.4 Labour force participation is higher for men than women in all geographical locations: 82.2 percent of women in rural areas participate in the labour force compared to men, at 88.2 percent. In urban areas, 78.2 percent of women participate in the labour force, compared to 83.3 percent 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 percent) than men (78.8 percent).³⁸

Table 10:
Labour Force Participation Rates

C	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural	91.9	87.5	92.1	87.7	89.8	87.2	80.3	83.7	88.0	82.0	84.9	88.2	82.2	85.1	85.1	83.5	71.0	77.1
Other Urban	86.4	81.7	86.8	82.3	84.4	78.9	70.0	74.3	82.9	77.6	80.0	83.2	78.2	80.4	80.4	79.6	70.3	74.8
DSM	81.3	71.5	81.3	71.5	76.2	-	-	-	78.8	74.3	76.4	78.8	74.3	76.4	76.4	-	-	-
TOTAL	89.2	84.0	89.4	84.2	86.7	83.4	75.6	79.4	86.1	80.3	83.1	86.3	80.6	83.3	81.6	81.6	70.7	76.0

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.5 Formal employment in key sectors is dominated by men: Fewer women work in central and local government (1.9 percent) than men (2.8 percent). Similarly, fewer women work in parastatal organisations (0.2 percent) than men (0.5 percent). In addition, women are less likely than men to work in political parties, NGOs, religious organisations, or foreign embassies.

Table 11:
Formal employment in key sectors

Sector	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Central and local Government	3.9	2.8	3.3	3.6	2.6	3.1	13.9	9.5	12.0	3.0	2.1	2.6	2.8	1.9	2.4	10.5	11.1	10.7
Parastatal Organization	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Political parties, NGO, religious organizations	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	2.5	1.2	1.9	2.6	1.2	1.9	1.3	0.9	1.1
International organization or foreign embassy	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	-	-	-
Private business (non-farm)	29.4	23.8	26.6	28.9	23.3	26.1	47.5	45.2	46.5	24.1	21.1	22.7	23.4	20.6	22.0	48.5	47.3	48.0
Partnership or cooperative	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	1.6	0.5	1.1	1.6	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.6	2.4
Own or family farm	63.8	70.0	66.8	64.5	70.5	67.5	37.1	43.3	39.8	56.6	60.3	58.4	57.4	60.9	59.1	30.3	29.5	29.9
Household(s) domestics worker	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.8	7.2	5.5	3.9	7.3	5.6	1.0	3.4	2.0
Household-Other economic activities	1.5	2.7	2.1	1.5	2.8	2.1	0.9	1.5	1.2	7.7	7.4	7.6	7.8	7.4	7.6	5.5	6.2	5.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

Further, women are twice as less likely than men to work as legislators, administrators, and managers, at 0.2 percent and 0.5 percent of overall employment, respectively. In addition, women are twice as less likely to work as professionals (0.5 percent) compared to men (1.0 percent), twice as less likely to work as technicians and associate professionals (0.4 percent) compared to men (0.7 percent), and slightly less likely to work as clerks (0.5 percent) compared to men (0.6 percent).

Table 12:
Percentage of the Total Employment by Occupation

Occupation	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Legislators, administrators, and managers	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4
Professionals	1.4	0.4	0.9	1.3	0.4	0.9	2.0	1.1	1.6	1.1	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	2.6	2.7	2.6
Technicians and associate professionals	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.2	5.1	6.4	5.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.6	4.8	7.5	6.0
Clerks	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.7	1.7	2.0	1.8	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.8	1.4
Service workers and shop sales workers	9.7	10.2	9.9	9.5	10.1	9.8	18.6	11.0	15.2	9.4	18.5	13.8	9.2	18.4	13.7	17.2	23.2	19.7
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	62.5	68.8	65.6	63.2	69.4	66.3	38.5	44.6	41.2	58.1	57.9	58.0	59.1	58.7	58.9	23.1	21.8	22.6
Craft and related workers	9.6	3.0	6.4	9.4	2.8	6.1	15.3	14.7	15.0	10.7	5.7	8.3	10.5	5.5	8.0	16.5	16.8	16.6
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	5.2	0.2	2.7	5.2	0.2	2.7	6.2	0.4	3.7	4.5	0.6	2.6	4.5	0.6	2.6	3.3	0.0	1.9
Elementary Occupations	8.2	13.9	11.0	8.1	13.7	10.9	11.8	19.5	15.2	14.4	15.4	14.9	13.9	15.1	14.5	30.8	26.0	28.8
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

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 percent and 60.9 percent, respectively. Fewer women work in the manufacturing industry (4.3 percent) than men (11.1 percent). More women work in the services industry (34.8 percent) compared to men (26.3 percent), especially in the wholesale and retail sector and accommodation and food services.³⁹ In self-employment, men are likely to be own account workers (59.8 percent) compared to women (48.2 percent). Men are slightly more likely to own private businesses (23.4 percent) than women (20.6 percent). Fewer women work in partnerships (0.5 percent) than men (1.6 percent).

Furthermore, women are more likely to work on their own or family farms (60.9 percent) than men (57.4 percent). Evidence also shows that women are twice as likely to work as domestic workers (7.3 percent) compared to men (3.9 (7.3 percent)). Finally, women are twice as likely to work as family contributing members (41.1 (7.3 percent)) compared to men (18.6 (7.3 percent)). 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.⁴⁰

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

40 Ibid.

Table 13:
Percentage of total employment by status in employment by 2020/2021

Status	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Employees	18.4	9.8	14.1	17.9	9.6	13.8	32.8	17.9	26.3	19.0	9.4	14.3	18.6	9.1	14.0	32.5	21.1	27.7
Employers	4.0	1.7	2.8	3.9	1.7	2.8	7.9	1.2	5.0	2.3	1.2	1.8	2.2	1.1	1.7	6.4	2.4	4.7
Own account workers	56.6	37.8	47.4	56.7	37.1	47.0	53.4	69.2	60.3	59.7	48.6	54.3	59.8	48.2	54.2	55.4	64.7	59.3
Members of producer cooperative	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	1.0	0.6	0.8
Contributing family workers	21.0	50.7	35.6	21.5	51.6	36.3	5.8	11.7	8.4	18.1	40.4	29.0	18.6	41.1	29.5	4.3	10.6	6.9
Workers not classifiable by status (apprentice intern etc)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.6 More women work in the informal sector in urban areas and the cities than in rural areas:

Slightly more women (29.4 percent) work in the informal sector than men (28.4 percent). In urban areas of Tanzania's Mainland, more women (57 percent) work in the informal sector than men (48 percent). Likewise, in cities such as Dar es Salaam, more women (68.4 percent) work in the informal sector than men (56.6 percent). This suggests that women are more engaged in employment with less security than men, which makes them benefit less from the economy. In rural areas, slightly more men work in the informal sector (20.2 percent) than women (18.5 percent).

Table 14:
Percentage of the Total Employment in the Informal Sector 15 (National Definition)

Status	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Employees	60	54	58	61	55	59	52	41	49	58	54	57	59	54	57	51	42	48
Employers	61	57	60	62	57	60	55	41	53	60	57	59	61	58	60	54	44	52
Own account workers	46	38	43	46	38	43	46	30	38	46	40	43	46	40	44	46	31	39
Members of producer cooperative	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	54	39	50	55	42	52	46	25	40
Contributing family workers	37	35	35	37	35	35	21	23	22	37	32	34	37	32	34	26	27	26
Workers not classifiable by status (apprentice intern etc)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49	40	45	49	40	45	46	34	41
TOTAL	47	38	43	47	38	43	47	31	40	47	38	43	47	38	43	47	33	41

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21



3.3.7 Women work fewer hours in formally recognised employment than men: As employees, men work for an average of 65 hours per week compared to 59 hours worked by women. As employers, men work an average of 70 hours per week compared to 67 hours women work. 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.

Table 15:
Average Usual Hours of Work per Week (National Definition)

Status	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Employees	65	59	63	66	59	63	60	48	56	65	58	63	65	59	63	61	46	57
Employers	71	64	69	71	64	69	65	51	63	70	66	69	70	67	69	67	52	64
Employers	60	52	57	60	52	57	58	42	50	59	49	55	59	50	55	57	41	50
Members of producer cooperative	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	58	48	56	58	52	56	60	31	51
Contributing family workers	45	45	45	45	45	45	30	31	31	47	43	44	47	43	44	35	32	33
Workers not classifiable by status (apprentice intern etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56	46	52	55	47	52	61	37	51
Total	58	49	54	58	49	54	57	42	51	58	48	53	58	48	53	58	41	51

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.8 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.⁴¹ In addition to the disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work shouldered by women, they also undertake a large amount of paid work across all regions and areas. The imbalance between men and women in terms of time spent on unpaid care and domestic work is huge for tasks related to the care of children or basic household duties, such as cleaning and cooking. On the one hand, at the national level, women spend, on average, around seven times more than men on feeding or bathing the children or as well as on cooking for the household. Similarly, they spend about four times more on cleaning the household as well as in the bathroom or toilets than men. On the other hand, the only unpaid task on which men spend more time than women is repairing the house. In the context of a large informal sector, and in the absence of a strong social protection system providing support through subsidised childcare facilities, the care for children massively falls on women's shoulders.⁴²

More than 60 percent of the population considers cooking for the household, cleaning the household, cleaning the bathroom/toilet, and washing clothes as women's exclusive responsibilities. This is in comparison to 1 percent of the population who believed that these tasks are the sole responsibility of men. In the former, the share of the population declaring that these household tasks are the exclusive responsibility of women is higher in rural areas than in urban areas.

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² Ibid.

Table 16:

Mean time spent by the population of age 15 years and above per day (24 hours) by activity and sex

Activity	Rural			Urban		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
SNA Activities	4	2.6	3.3	4.8	2.3	3.4
1. Employment and related activities	1.6	0.8	1.2	4.2	1.9	2.9
2. Production of goods for own final use	2.4	1.9	2.2	0.6	0.3	0.4
Unpaid Domestic and Care Work (UCW)	1.7	4.6	3.2	1.2	4.4	3
3. Unpaid domestic services for household and family members	1.5	3.9	2.7	1	3.7	2.5
4. Unpaid caregiving services for household and family members	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.5
Other Activities	4.6	3.2	3.8	5.3	3.9	4.5
5. Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.3
6. Learning	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.7
7. Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practices	1.6	1.2	1.4	1.9	1.6	1.7
8. Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	1.9	1.2	1.5	2.1	1.6	1.8
9. Self-care and maintenance*	13.7	13.5	13.6	12.7	13.4	13.1
Total	24.0	24.0	24.0	23.9	24.0	24.0

*Self-care and maintenance includes sleeping, eating & drinking, personal hygiene & care, receiving personal health care and travels related to self-care & maintenance; ** ** W=Women; M=Men, T=Tanzania Mainland

Source: Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.9 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).

Table 17:

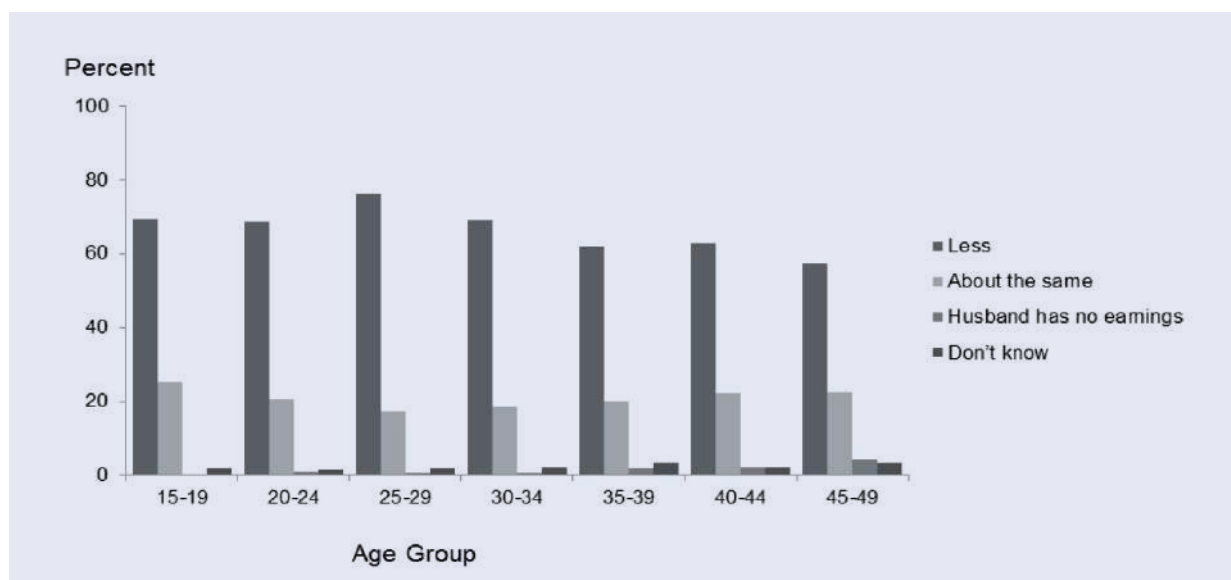
Average Direct Wage and Salaries of Paid Employees 15+(National definition)

Area	2014									2020/2021								
	URT			TZM			ZNZ			URT			TZM			ZNZ		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural	231,475	251,484	236,344	230,434	254,614	236,315	252,331	189,455	236,919	327,905	298,066	319,545	326,872	297,613	318,629	363,531	319,524	353,760
Other Urban	331,673	237,990	296,584	329,986	236,656	294,694	354,952	261,732	325,083	416,347	386,405	405,800	416,669	389,384	407,065	412,919	355,173	392,407
DSM	472,623	321,635	418,392	472,623	321,635	418,392	-	-	-	580,004	528,062	560,434	580,004	528,062	560,434	-	-	-
TOTAL	328,741	264,927	307,872	329,452	265,940	306,585	313,122	238,493	291,359	396,885	378,469	390,992	397,008	378,728	391,471	393,893	346,436	379,197

Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21

3.3.10 Women/wives' cash earnings are lower than men/husbands: More than 50 percent of women aged 15–49 reported earning less than their husbands, while less than 30 percent reported earning almost the same as their husbands. These findings suggest that women depend much on their husbands regarding household income contribution issues, which might impact decision-making regarding key aspects of their families and personal lives.

Percent Distribution of Wife and Husbands Cash by Age, Tanzania, 2015–16



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, *The Demographic Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey*, 2015–2016.

3.3.11 Women have less access to formal financial services: In 2017, 60 percent of women in the United Republic of Tanzania had access to formal financial services, 9 percent had access to informal financial services, and 30 percent had no access to financial services. In the same period, 70 percent of men had access to formal financial services.⁴³ Less than half of women (43 percent) in Tanzania have saved or borrowed in the past 12 months.⁴⁴ The ‘State of the Industry Report on Mobile Money of 2021’ showed that about 40,000 groups in the United Republic of Tanzania have signed up to M-Koba,⁴⁵ with women constituting most members. The gender gap persists in the banking system, with 45 percent of women having bank accounts, microfinance accounts, or mobile money services compared to 57 percent of men.

3.3.12. 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 percent) than women-headed households (56 percent).⁴⁶ Likewise, radios are owned by 68 percent of men-headed households compared with 49 percent of women-headed households. It was further observed that although a bicycle was owned by 40 percent of all the households, the asset was not common among women-headed (26 percent) compared with men-headed households (48 percent).⁴⁷ Similarly, fewer women own televisions, computers/laptops and have less access to internet facilities. This implies that women have less access to information.

43 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.

44 Ibid.

45 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.

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

47 Ibid.

Table 18:

Distribution of Households by type of Information asset and sex of household head.

Assets	No. of Households	Household Headship		
		Both Sexes	Male	Female
Radio	5,714,351	61.6	67.9	49.1
Landline Phone	100,909	1.1	1.1	1.0
Mobile Phone	5,926,802	63.9	67.6	56.4
Television	1,448,489	15.6	16.3	14.3
Computer/ Laptop	254,212	2.7	3.0	2.2
Internet Facility	437,956	4.7	5.0	4.1

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2014)

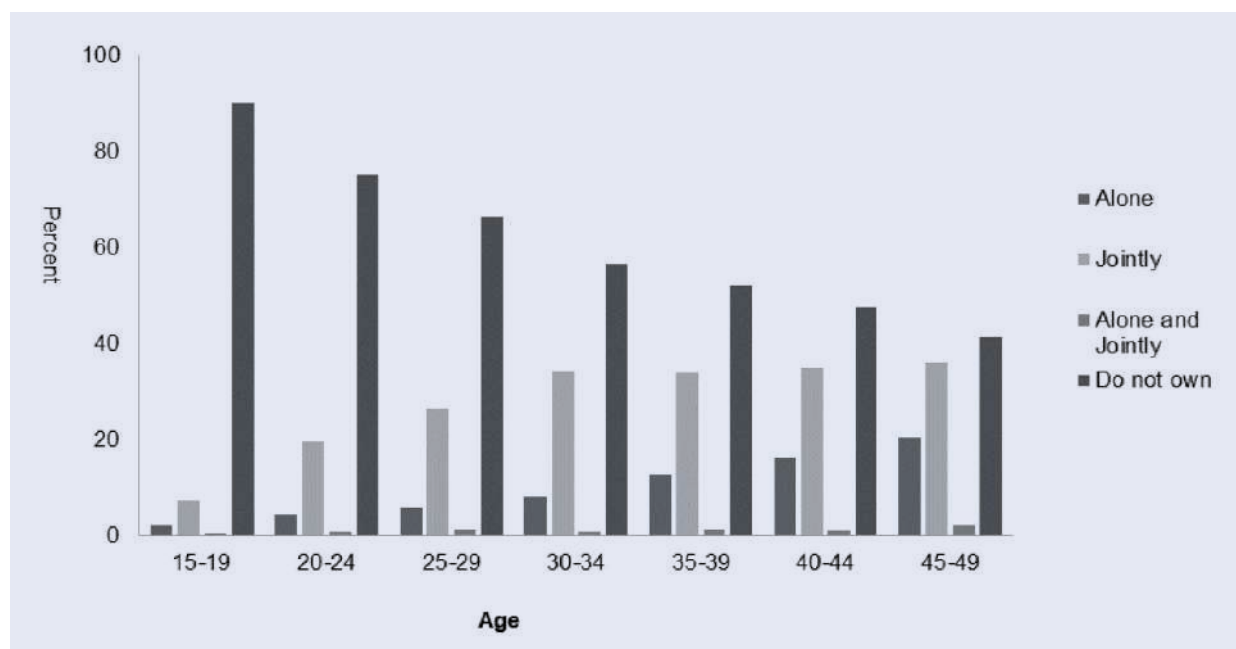
3.3.13 Fewer women own land in Tanzania compared to men.

According to the 2015-16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey (TDHS), 38 percent of women own a house either alone or jointly with someone. Similarly, 34 percent of women reported owning land alone or jointly. Joint ownership of these assets is more common among women than sole ownership. Only 9 percent of women own a house or land alone.

Men aged 15-49 are slightly more likely to own a house (41 percent) or land (37 percent), alone or jointly, than women. Unlike women, men are more likely to be sole owners than joint owners of either asset: 33 percent of men own a house alone, and 30 percent own land alone. Owning a house or land alone becomes more common as men and women grow older. While 9 percent of women aged 15-19 own a house and 10 percent own land, 68 percent of women aged 45-49 own a house, and 59 percent own land. This can be attributed to the delay in developing the power of decision on engaging in economic activities and what to do with their earnings. Social norms guide women to depend on men as their providers and protectors. Also, discriminatory social norms are at the root of serious inequalities in land ownership. Customs stipulating that land must be owned and controlled by men shape persistent land ownership and inheritance practices by favouring sons over daughters and other men in the family over widows. Women are also frequently excluded from specific processes related to land use planning, parcelling, and land registration, which effectively obstructs their involvement in the overall process of land administration and the provision of land titles. Tiring bureaucratic land administration processes associated with high related costs and extended period also impose limitations and limits women's land ownership. Women's access to and ownership of land affect other aspects of their economic empowerment, such as access to financial services and the ability to seek and obtain credit.

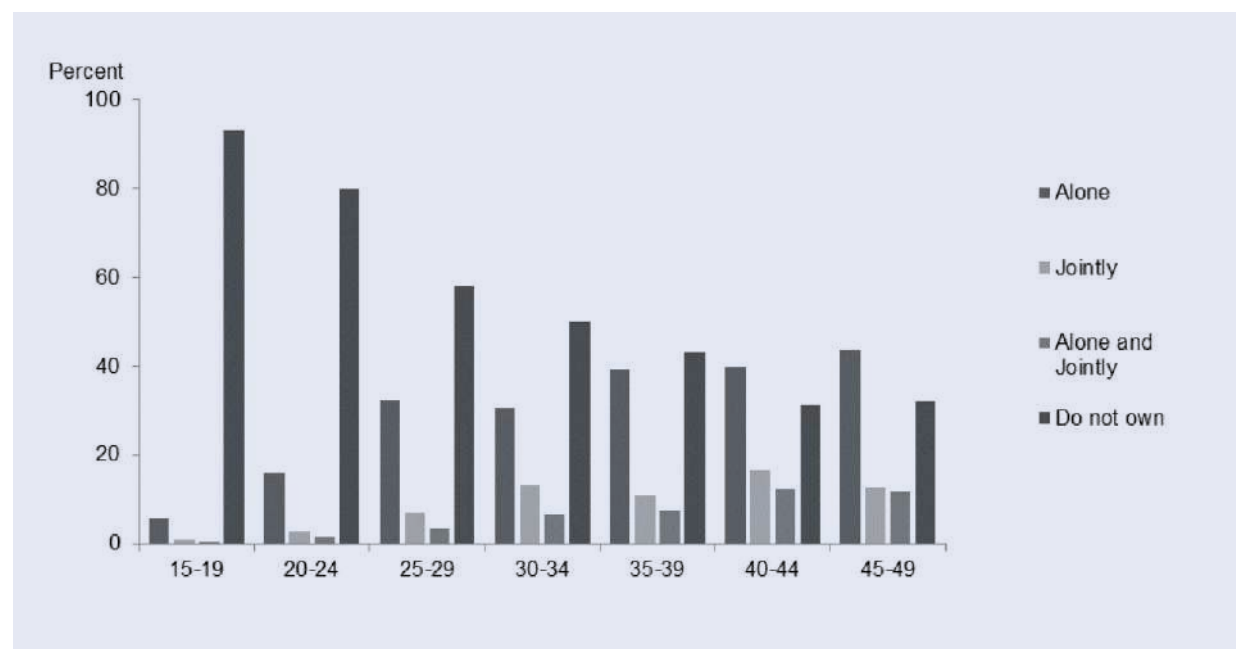
The legal framework is also a challenge. The Land Act No. 4 of 1999 and the Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999 provide for ownership of land for women and men. However, the National Land Policy of 1997 states that inheritance of clan land will continue to be governed by customs, which is not contrary to the Constitution.⁴⁸ 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.

Figure 3:
Percentage Distribution of Women Owning Land Alone, Jointly, Alone and Jointly and Those Who Do Not Own Land by Age, Tanzania, 2015-16



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

Figure 4:
Percentage Distribution of Men Owning Land Alone, Jointly, Alone and Jointly by Age, Tanzania, 2015-16



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

3.3.14 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 percent of the men own titles or deeds of houses compared to 7 percent 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.

Figure 5:
Percentage of Men and Women of Age 15–49 Owning Titles or Deeds of houses.

Age	Men	Women
15-19	10.3	9.6
20-24	13.7	5.4
25-29	15.0	5.8
30-34	18.0	9.5
35-39	14.6	8.9
40-44	21.2	6.9
45-49	18.0	8.3

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, The 2015–16 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey

3.3.15 Fewer women engage in mining activities: By 2022, 11,532 women (13 percent) and 74,695 (87 percent men) were among 86,227 mining license owners.

3.3.16 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.⁴⁹ Women are overrepresented 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.

In Tanzania, the challenges facing women’s access to education and the minimum human capital investments limit women’s access to quality jobs, formal employment, and their role in the economy and how they benefit from it. In the past, men had more experience in education, training, and work than women. While women have made substantial advances in these areas, gaps remain. This partly explains why men still dominate the economic spheres to date. While there is steady progress, social norms make some employers prefer male to female employees. In some instances, men still determine whether their female partners/wives can work outside the home. Social norms make some women choose to take care of the family and undertake domestic, care work, and forfeit work. Discriminatory social norms, educational barriers, and traditional views of gender roles undermine women’s economic status and position. 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 percent of the population agrees that women

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

should ask for their husband's permission to have a paid job outside the home.⁵⁰ Such traditional practices and beliefs also reinforce women's responsibilities for unpaid care, domestic work, and paid labour. These practices and beliefs limit their ability to pursue economic and educational activities aimed at advancement.

3.4 Gender, Agriculture, and Climate Change

Given fewer economic opportunities, most women resort to agriculture. Agriculture is the main economic activity in Tanzania and accounts for one-third of Tanzania's GDP and two-thirds of all employment. However, women are highly marginalised in the agricultural sector. Women own less agricultural land, engage more in subsistence farming, own less livestock, and make up most casual farm labourers and unpaid family helpers compared to men. Women depend not only on rain-fed plots; they also do not take advantage of agricultural inputs and technologies, such as agricultural implements, improved seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides. Data also show that men are more likely to be producer cooperative members than women. Due to their marginalised status, women earn less in the agricultural sector than men.

3.4.1 Women own less agricultural land: Women own 33 percent of agricultural land compared to 47 percent for men.⁵¹ 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.⁵²

Plots owned by women tend to be smaller. 93 percent of the plots owned by women are smaller than five acres (around two hectares),⁵³ and only 11 percent of plots larger than women own five acres.⁵⁴

3.4.2 More women farmholders operate at the subsistence level: On the one hand, 92 percent of women operate at the subsistence level compared to men at 89 percent.⁵⁵ Farmholders cultivate between two and three crops on average (mainly maize, beans, and cotton) with no significant differences between sexes.⁵⁶ On the other hand, men own 18 times more cattle and four times more chickens than women.⁵⁷

3.4.3 Women depend on rain-fed plots: 90 percent of women compared to 60 percent of men) in agriculture depend on rain-fed harvesting. Most of the plots are irrigated by flooding (71 percent) and buckets (18 percent). However, 92 percent and 8 percent of the plots held by women are irrigated by flooding and buckets, respectively, as opposed to 63 percent and 37 percent of men's plots.⁵⁸

3.4.4 Fewer women take advantage of agricultural inputs and technologies, such as agricultural implements, improved seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides:⁵⁹ Organic/inorganic fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides are used in only about 10 percent of the plots. This is regardless of the farmer's activity (whether market-oriented or subsistence farming). There is a 12 percent gender gap between women and men in applying pesticides and an 8 percent gap in using farm implements.⁶⁰

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

51 Ibid.

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

53 Ibid.

54 Ibid.

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

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

57 Njuki, Jemimah and Sanginga C. Pascal, (2013). "women, livestock and markets". International Livestock Research Institute and the International Development Research Centre, Canada. <https://www.idrc.ca/sites/default/files/openebooks/928-6/index.html#ch03>

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

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

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

Furthermore, both men and women farmers tend to use more female casual labour than males. Also, significant shares of women (48 percent) and men (34 percent) workers in rural areas have multiple occupations. However, women are overrepresented in unpaid employment, particularly in their second occupation. Most women work as unpaid family workers in second jobs. Hence, they do not generate extra monetary income from having two jobs. Women make up most unpaid family helpers in agriculture.⁶¹

3.4.4 Men are more likely to be members of producer cooperatives (0.2 percent) compared to women (0.1 percent).⁶²

3.4.5 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 compared to men. Women's mean monthly income in the agricultural sector (TZS 92,882) is lower than men's (TZS 150,665).⁶³ 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.⁶⁴

Access and control of land, including agricultural land, is essential for improved livelihoods, food security, and nutrition.

3.4.6 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 and environmental sustainability is a fundamental element of the SDGs and are captured primarily through three Goals: Goal 13, which is geared to take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts; Goal 14, which seeks to conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development; and Goal 15, which intends to protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss. Climate change and environmental degradation have a greater impact on those communities and groups whose livelihoods rely more on natural resources and those who have less capacity to respond to climate-induced hazards. Women comprise a more significant proportion of the poor, vulnerable, and dependent on agriculture as their main economic activity. Thus, women are more likely to face the risks related to climate change and environmental pressures. They are also more likely to bear the burden of the impacts, compounded by their roles as primary caregivers in most communities and households.⁶⁵ Women are often side-lined from decision-making spaces and processes that would give them a voice in shaping the plans, policies, and implementation of mitigation and adaptation measures.

There is a lack of comprehensive data on how many men and women are affected by climate change and the mitigation and adaptation measures they employ. However, the adverse impacts of climate change, such as droughts and floods, are already evident in almost all sectors of the Tanzanian economy, leading to significant economic costs and loss of life and properties.⁶⁶ Since 2008, Tanzania has witnessed severe floods and drought spells in different parts of the country – Dar es Salaam,

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

62 Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21.

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

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

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

66 The National Climate Change Statistics Report, Tanzania Mainland, 2019. <https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/Environment/NCCSR%202019.pdf> Pg. 18. Accessed on May 2021.

Kilosa, Mpwapwa, and Kilombero – that resulted in severe destruction and displacement of people. As social norms expect women to oversee domestic responsibilities, climate change has complicated access to water, agricultural produce, and energy, placing more burden on women’s shoulders. Women have responded to climate change hazards by collaborating in informal self-help groups during crises, such as food shortages. Some common response options at the household level include reducing the number of meals a day and seeking alternative income-generation activities, such as off-farm activities, casual labor, and emigration, which have sometimes exposed women and their households to deeper risk.⁶⁷ However, women’s adaptive capacity is hampered because of minimum gender-responsive response initiatives, high poverty levels, and gender inequality in decision-making and resource ownership.

3.5 Gender and Infrastructure (Energy, Roads, and Water)

The SDGs cover the infrastructure needs of countries and communities across three goals: Goal 6 seeks to ensure the availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all; Goal 8 is geared toward ensuring access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all; and Goal 9, seeks to build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation. Progress towards these goals has been patchy. Poor households have tenuous access to clean, reliable energy and water and access to all-weather road infrastructure. Social norms that put women in charge of domestic and care responsibilities make women bear the responsibility of meeting the household’s energy and water needs. The burden even increases when clean and reliable water and energy are difficult to access due to the adverse impact of climate change. Infrastructure is often considered a ‘male’ dominion, meaning that women are usually not included in decision-making around the design, development, and maintenance of road infrastructure in their communities. However, it is critical for their ability to perform their tasks as key players in the economy. 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.⁶⁸

Evidence shows that, although the rate of electrification in the country has increased, most Tanzanians still rely on biomass for their energy needs, particularly for cooking and other domestic needs. Also, despite some progress, access to clean and safe water remains a challenge, especially in rural areas. Data also show that infrastructure development and rehabilitation projects benefit more men than women.

3.5.1 The rate of electrification in the country 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 percent in 2012 to 67.5 percent in 2016.⁶⁹ The proportions of households connected to electricity were slightly higher among male-headed households (32.9 percent) than female-headed households (32.3 percent).⁷⁰

3.5.2 The majority of Tanzanians still rely on biomass for their energy needs: An estimated 85 percent 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

67 The National Climate Change Statistics Report, Tanzania Mainland, 2019. Accessed on May 2021. <https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/Environment/NCCSR%202019.pdf>.

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

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

70 URT (2018). Ministry of Energy, Tanzanian’s Sustainable Energy for all; Gender Action Plan. Pg. 21.

health-related challenges.⁷¹ Only 38 percent of urban households and a measly 2 percent of rural households use electricity for cooking, lighting, heating, and cooling. In contrast, 94 percent of rural and 25 percent of urban households reported using firewood or dung for cooking.⁷²

3.5.3 Despite some progress, access to clean and safe water remains a challenge, 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 percent in 2015 to 70.1 percent by March 2020. In urban areas, access to water had risen from 74 percent in 2015 to 84 percent by March 2020. About 6 to 10 households in the country obtain their drinking water from improved sources. Most such households are in urban areas. 9 to 10 persons in the urban Mainland (86.4 percent) obtained their drinking water from improved sources, while half of those in the rural Mainland did not. Only 54 percent of the population has access to improved water supplies, and 24 percent have access to adequate sanitation. Women and children spend over two hours a day collecting water. This figure increases to up to seven hours in remote areas. This affects school attendance, participation in economic and governance activities, and how women practise good hygiene behaviours.

3.5.4 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. In countries like Tanzania, infrastructure projects are often considered public works opportunities that can create employment amongst the poor and unskilled populations. However, employment creation disproportionately benefits men, with data showing that out of 17,837 jobs created through various projects of the Ministry of Works, only 1,403 went to women, while men took 16,434.

Table 19:
Employment data from the Transport Sector

No	Project Department	Region	Job creation Jan-December 2021		
			Men	Women	Total
1.	Modernisation of Ports along coast and lakes (TPA)	DSM	1,362	250	1,612
2.	Rehabilitation of communication infrastructure at the Airport (TCAA)	DSM	170	30	200
3.	Infrastructure Development and Training Equipment (NIT)	DSM	221	98	319
4.	Rehabilitation of Terminal building, Construct security fence, and to service and maintain electrical Plants (TAA)	DSM	161	83	244
5.	Installation of Weather Radars and Meteorological Instruments (TMA)	DSM	179	38	217
6.	Rehabilitation of airport Infrastructure (KADCO)	ARUSHA	28	6	34
7.	Construction of SGR and Rehabilitation of MGR (TRC)	DSM	14,285	935	15,220
8.	Building and Rehabilitation of vessels (MSCL)	MWANZA	138	12	150
9.	Renovation of Hangar and construction of cargo warehouse (ATCL)	DSM	13	10	23
	TOTAL		16,557	1,462	18,019

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

Constraints and structural discrimination facing girls and women in accessing education and economic opportunities, high burden of domestic responsibilities, and limited access to energy sources and safe water, exacerbated by the negative impact of climate change, make women experience high poverty levels compared to their male counterparts.

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

72 URT 2013. National strategy on Gender and Climate. Pg. 42.

3.6 Gender and Poverty

SDG Goal 1- End Poverty in All Its Forms Everywhere acknowledges that women's experience of poverty differs and their pathway out of it may vary with that of men. The SDGs further acknowledge that without tackling gender inequalities and discrimination, development and poverty reduction will not be achieved. Thus, two distinct SDGs were developed to address gender inequalities and inequities: SDG Goal 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls and SDG Goal 10 on reducing inequality within and among countries. Along with the global trend, Tanzania is behind in progress toward these two goals. It has witnessed further erosions due to the COVID-19 pandemic and, more recently, the rise in the cost of living caused by the Russia-Ukraine war and climate-related crises.

Women remain disproportionately affected in all dimensions of poverty. This is further exacerbated if the woman is young and has disabilities. Evidence shows that households with married couples are likelier to be poor, and polygamy exacerbates poverty. Also, women-headed families, divorced women, and urban widows are poorer than their male counterparts. Further, women have bigger households. Thus, women experience higher levels of poverty. It is also noted that lower education levels contribute to women's higher poverty levels. Evidence shows that households headed by young people are less likely to be poor than those headed by older people. While a high percentage of children live in poverty, there is no relationship between child poverty and the sex of a child.

3.6.1 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 be basic needs and food poverty poor than households headed by heads with other marital statuses.⁷³ More than a quarter (27.2 percent) of households headed by married household heads had basic needs poor compared to less than one-sixth (16.8 percent) of households whose heads were single. However, 8.6 percent of households whose heads were married were food-poor compared to 0.6 percent of households whose heads were single. Poverty among married couples is also exacerbated by 18 percent of women being in polygamous marriages, with at least one co-wife. Polygamy is most common among uneducated persons (31 percent), poorest households (29 percent), and in rural areas (21 percent). 9 percent of men have more than one wife, which is common amongst men in poorer families (13 percent).⁷⁴ Married couples, including those under polygamous marriages, tend to have more dependants, such as their children and other dependants from both sides, due to the extended nature of African families compared to unmarried men and women.

3.6.2 Similarly, women-headed families, divorced women, and urban widows are poorer compared to men: Poverty rates are only negligibly higher in women than in men-headed families. According to the HBS 2017/18 findings, 26 percent of men-headed households and 27.4 percent of women-headed households are poor by basic poverty measurement, while 8.1 percent of men-headed and 7.9 percent of women-headed households are food-poor.⁷⁵ However, other indicators depict higher poverty prevalence among women than men. For example, more women-headed households in urban areas are poor (20.3 percent) than men-headed ones (14 percent). Single and divorced women are poorer than men by about 11 percent, with the gap being high in rural and urban areas. Urban widows are also poorer than urban widowers by about 14 percent.⁷⁶

73 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

74 National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2019. Tanzania Mainland Household Budget Survey 2017-18, Key Indicators Report. Dodoma, Tanzania.

75 Ibid.

76 Ibid.

Table 20:
Incidence of Poverty (percent) by Sex of Household Head, Mainland

Characteristic	Basic Needs Poverty			Food Poverty		
	Incidence	Gap	Severity	Incidence	Gap	Severity
Sex of Household Head						
Male	26.1	6.2	2.1	8.1	1.4	0.4
Female	27.4	6.1	2.1	7.9	1.3	0.4

Source: 2017-18 HBS

3.6.3 Women-headed households are bigger and poorer compared to men-headed households

Poverty is lowest in one-person households (0.1 percent for food poverty and 1.7 percent for basic needs poverty). The highest poverty rate is found in households with seven or more household members (12.9 percent for food poverty and 38.7 percent for basic needs poverty).⁷⁷ Results of the HBS 2017/18 show that both food and basic needs poverty rates increase with increasing proportions of dependants. In HBS 2017/18, the food poverty rate increased from 2.9 percent to 11.4 percent when the proportion of dependants ranged from 0 to 0.25 and 0.75 to 1, respectively. Similarly, the basic needs poverty increased from 12.8 percent to 39.8 percent as the proportions of dependants ranged from 0 - 0.25 to 0.75 - 1, respectively. The poverty level associated with big households affects women more than men. The 2012 National Census depicts that women-headed households were twice as big as those headed by men: the average number of persons per household in women-headed households was 7.3 compared to 3.5 for men-headed households.⁷⁸

3.6.4 Lower education levels contribute to higher poverty levels: The HBS 2017/18 findings indicated that poverty was inversely correlated with the household head's educational attainment. Both food and basic need poverty levels were highest for households headed by less educated persons and declined with increased levels of education of the household head. The basic needs poverty rate for households headed by persons with no education was 35.7 percent, six times more than those headed by persons with secondary or higher levels of education (5.9 percent). A similar pattern is observed for food poverty. The 2012 Census showed that men have a higher literacy rate than women. Adult literacy for men was 83 percent in 2012, significantly higher than that of women (73 percent).⁷⁹ With lower literacy rates, women are more likely to be poor than men.

3.6.5 Households headed by young people are less likely to be poor than those headed by older people: In Tanzania's Mainland, households headed by persons younger than 35 years are less likely to be both basic needs and food poor than households headed by persons of older ages.⁸⁰ Nearly 2 in 10 (19.1 percent) of households headed by younger persons are basic needs poor compared to almost 3 in 10 (29.4 percent) households whose heads are 65 years or older. A similar pattern is also observed for food poverty. In Rural Areas, 2 in 10 (22.5 percent) of households headed by younger heads are basic needs poor compared to almost 3 in 10 (32.2 percent) households whose heads are 65 years or older. The situation is different in Urban Areas whereby households headed by persons aged less than 35 years and those aged between 50 and 64 years have the same basic needs poverty rates (12.2 percent each) compared to heads of other age categories.⁸¹

77 World Bank Group, 2015. TANZANIA Mainland Poverty Assessment. Accessed on 5 May 2021. <https://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/document/Africa/Tanzania/Report/tanzania-poverty-assessment-05.2015.pdf>

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

79 Ibid.

80 Ibid.

81 Ibid.

3.6.6 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 percent of children aged 0 to 17 years had basic needs poor, and 9.4 percent were food-poor.⁸² The basic needs poverty for children under age 18 was higher in Rural Areas (34.5 percent) than in Urban Areas (18.7 percent).⁸³ A similar pattern was observed in food poverty, with 11.0 percent of children under 18 years old in Rural Areas against 5.4 percent in Urban Areas. The survey results depict no relationship between child poverty and the sex of a child. Basic needs poverty was 30.1 percent for both boys and girls, while the food poverty rate was 9.5 percent for boys and 9.4 percent for girls. Across the regions, Rukwa region (47.6 percent) had the largest percentage of children aged 0 to 17 who were basic needs poor, and Dar es Salaam (9.6 percent) had the smallest percentage. Child extreme poverty for children under age 18 was highest in Rukwa region (21.2 percent) and lowest in Mara region (1.9 percent).⁸⁴

3.6.7 Women are central to the Social Safety Net Program: One of the key strategies for operationalising social protection in Tanzania is through the Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) programme, which aims to improve access to income-earning opportunities and socio-economic services. The third iteration of the PSSN programme, TASAF III, has integrated gender and women into the programme design and implementation. By design, more women are recipients of cash payment through PSSN (83 percent), and by default, they participate more in public work programmes (84.6 percent) and savings group formation (85.3 percent). Women are involved in the program's leadership and decision-making, form most recipients (56 percent) of the conditional cash transfers on behalf of households, and female-headed households make up 61 percent of all active households. Women have been successfully encouraged to participate in the public works scheme, in initiatives for young and adolescent girls, and in ensuring child attendance at school, child nutrition, and attendance at ante-natal and post-natal clinics.

Social norms that cause women to experience lower education levels, fewer economic opportunities, and high poverty affect women's health.

3.7 Gender and Health

Men remain the primary decision-makers within the household, including on critical decisions related to women's health. These imbalances stem directly from deeply entrenched discriminatory attitudes and traditional views of women's and men's roles in the household. Health statistics demonstrate that despite declining fertility and mortality rates, the situation is still alarming. Data also show that fewer women have access to contraceptives. Adolescent pregnancy rates are on the increase. While the proportion of pregnant women who deliver in a health facility is increasing, maternal mortality is still one of the main triggers of death among women. HIV/AIDS remains a critical public health concern that affects more women than men.

3.7.1 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.

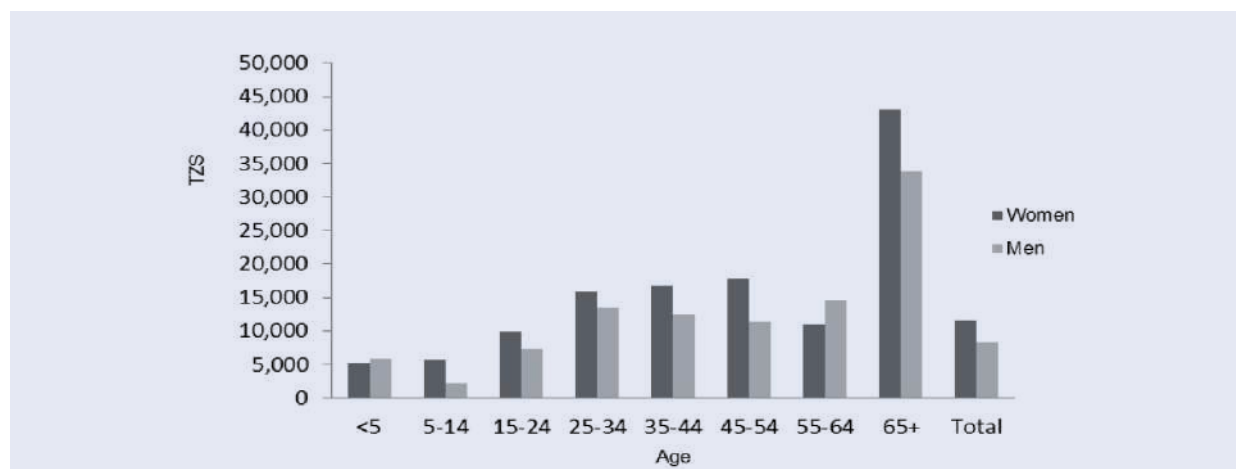
82 Ibid.

83 Ibid.

84 Ibid.



Figure 5
Spending on health services for men and women



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

3.7.2 Fewer women access contraceptives: In 2022, the contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) using modern methods among married women (aged 15-49) was 31.1 percent.⁸⁵ This was a decrease from the rate of 36 percent recorded in 2020.⁸⁶ The CPR varies geographically, ranging from 13 percent in Geita to 52 percent in Lindi.⁸⁷ Among young married women between 15 and 24 years old, the CPR using modern methods is low at 15.2 percent,⁸⁸ which is also lower than the 16 percent recorded in 2016.⁸⁹ 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 percent.⁹⁰ Thus, women not trying to have a child with their partner are not using contraceptives to avoid or delay pregnancy. The share of women with an unmet need for family planning drops as their educational attainment increases. 24.9 percent of women without any formal education report unmet needs. This percentage decreases to 16.9 percent for women who have completed secondary education. 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 percent 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 percent and 34 percent, respectively). More men (39 percent) than women (34 percent) believe women should not have the right to choose contraception.⁹¹

3.7.3 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 recorded in 1999. The high fertility rate is associated with low levels of female education, limited sexuality 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.⁹²

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

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

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

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

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

90 Ibid.

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

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

3.7.4 Fewer schools provide Comprehensive Sexuality Education (CSE): On the one hand, about 45.5 percent of 17,562 primary schools provide CSE. The leading CSE offered in many schools is education on infection and preventive measures for HIV (67.0 percent). The percentage of schools with trained teachers on CSE is low (29.8 percent on average). On the other hand, an average of 48.4 percent of all secondary schools reported to have CSE in 2017. The leading type of CSE is education on new infections and preventive measures for HIV (64.7 percent). The number of schools with trained teachers on CSE is low (31.6 percent).

3.7.5 Maternal mortality is still one of the main triggers of death among women: The maternal mortality rate⁹³ 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).⁹⁴ Maternal deaths represent 18 percent of all deaths of women aged 15–49. The leading direct causes of maternal death are haemorrhages, infections, unsafe abortions, hypertensive disorders, and obstructed labour. HIV/AIDS and malaria exacerbate the presence of these causes.⁹⁵

Figure 21

Direct estimates of maternal mortality rates for the 10 years preceding the survey by five-year age groups, Tanzania DHS-MIS 2015–16

Age	Percentage of female deaths that are maternal	Maternal deaths	Exposure years	Maternal mortality rate
15-19	18.5	11	42,486	0.26
20-24	31.5	35	45,230	0.77
25-29	30.1	43	41,721	1.04
30-34	16.2	29	35,047	0.84
35-39	20.3	36	26,357	1.38
40-44	18.3	29	17,434	1.64
45-49	13.4	16	10,345	1.56
15-49	21.0	200	218,620	0.94

Source DHS-MIS 2015–16

3.7.6 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 percent in 2010 to 81 percent of all live births in 2022.⁹⁶

3.7.5 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 2015⁹⁷ and finally to a low of 43 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2022.⁹⁸

93 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

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

95 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

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

97 Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children, (2014), Tanzania Country Gender Profile.

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

3.7.6 Parents prefer to register the birth of a boy child than a girl child: Only 14 percent of children had birth certificates, and 12 percent of children did not have birth certificates although they had been registered. In total, 26 percent of children under the age 5 had been registered with the civil authority.⁹⁹ Boys under age 5 were slightly more likely to have been registered (29 percent) than girls (25 percent). A birth certificate is essential for different social-economic aspects such as job search, enrolment in schools, and accessibility to different identification cards like the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) and passports.¹⁰⁰

3.7.7 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 2022,¹⁰¹ compared to a rate of 132 per 1,000 in 2018.¹⁰² Overall, 22 percent of women aged 15-19 have ever been pregnant. However, there is a large geographical variation, with Songwe Region experienced the highest rate of 44.7 percent.¹⁰³

3.7.8 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.¹⁰⁴ The prevalence of HIV among adults (ages 15 to 64 years) in 2016 was 5.0 percent: 6.5 percent among females and 3.5 percent among males. The percentage of HIV positivity peaks is in the age group 35-39 for men (7.1 percent infected with HIV), while for women, the peak is later in life at 40-49 years (10.2 percent).¹⁰⁵ The difference in prevalence by population groups is also quite significant among divorcees and those aged between 23 and 24 years old, with a higher prevalence among women in these groups. Evidence shows that completing secondary education reduces the risk of HIV infection and early pregnancy. This improves the livelihoods and prosperity of girls and young women. In 2016, the government extended fee-free education to secondary schools partly as part of its efforts to keep boys and girls free from HIV. The fee-free education was extended to high school educational levels in 2022.

3.7.9 More men use tobacco products: Tobacco is more commonly used by men (14 percent) than women (1 percent). The percentage of men who smoke has declined, from 22 percent in 2004 to 11 percent in 2010 and 14 percent in 2015-16.¹⁰⁶ Cigarette smoking is most common among men in the Southern zone (23 percent), followed by the Northern zone (18 percent). Smoked tobacco is used by 12.9 percent of men and 1.1 percent of women. And smokeless tobacco is used by 2.1 percent of men and 2.3 percent of women.

One of the major health threats for Tanzanian women is gender-based violence. It remains widespread, with more than half of all women in Tanzania experiencing violence in their lifetime.

3.8 Gender-Based Violence

SDG Goals 5 and 10 and their targets, such as target 5.2, call for eliminating all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres. Target 5.3 calls for eliminating harmful practices: child, early and forced marriage, and female genital mutilation. Violence against women and children remains widespread, with more than half of all women in Tanzania experiencing violence

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

100 Ibid.

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

102 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

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

104 National Bureau of Statistics, Tanzania Men and women, Facts and Figures (2018). https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/WomenAndMen/Women_and_Men2018.pdf

105 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>

106 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>

in their lifetime. Violence against women and children is perpetuated by power imbalances between men and women at family and community level. It is a manifestation of entrenched discriminatory norms that create restrictive masculinities and high levels of acceptance of gender-based violence. Evidence shows that physical and sexual GBV remains one of the most pervasive forms of abuse, with violence committed by intimate partners most widespread and wife beating considered acceptable. A girl child is affected more by violence than a boy child, with female Genital Mutilation/Cut (FGM/C), child marriage, and teen pregnancy affecting a girl child more than a boy child. Increasingly, more women survivors of GBV seek help and report GBV incidences.

3.8.1 Women do not enjoy the freedom of movement: Data show that 68 percent of the population who do not feel safe walking alone at night are women. This pattern is consistent across urban and rural areas. The situation is most acute in Singida, Dodoma, and Kagera, where 75 percent or more women feel unsafe. At the national level, the three most cited reasons why women do not feel safe are fear of robbery (66 percent), physical assault (57 percent), and rape (51 percent). Men mostly do not feel safe because they are afraid to be robbed (69 percent), physically assaulted (68 percent), or to be kidnapped (36 percent). Discriminatory attitudes towards women's freedom of movement are extremely high and are widespread throughout the country. More than 90 percent of the population shares the opinion that a woman should ask her husband or partner for permission if she wants to go to at least one of the following places: a marketplace, a cinema, a restaurant, a bar, a hospital or health centre, a sports field, a place of religious worship or a community meeting.¹⁰⁷

3.8.2 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.¹⁰⁸ 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.¹⁰⁹ Almost four in ten women have experienced physical violence, and one in five women report having experienced sexual violence in their lifetime.¹¹⁰ Differently put, 40 percent of women aged 15–49 years have experienced physical violence, and 17 percent of the women have experienced sexual violence.¹¹¹ Many women suffer multiple forms of violence in their lifetime, committed by multiple perpetrators.¹¹²

3.8.3 Violence committed by intimate partners is most widespread: 48 percent of married women who experienced sexual violence reported perpetrators as their current or most recent husbands and/or partners, while 40 percent reported perpetrators as their former husbands and/or partners. Although men are less exposed to Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) throughout their lives, the rate of non-partner violence is higher, with 44 percent of Tanzanian men having survived some form of violence. IPV takes various forms, with physical and psychological violence being the most pervasive. Half of all married women have experienced spousal violence, including physical violence (39 percent), emotional violence (36 percent), and sexual violence (14 percent). 8 percent of women who have been pregnant have experienced physical violence during pregnancy. 31 percent of unmarried women experience sexual violence from friends and acquaintances.¹¹³ Men are equally exposed as women to non-partner violence. At the national level, 34 percent of men have experienced non-partner violence at least once in their lifetime, compared to 30 percent of women. Younger women, women

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

108 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).

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

110 Ibid.

111 Ibid.

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

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

with children, women who were married before age 18, and women in polygamous marriages are more likely to experience IPV.¹¹⁴ Women suffer primarily from psychological and emotional violence (e.g., humiliation or insults by their husbands or partners), followed by physical and sexual violence (e.g., forced sexual intercourse). Education plays an important role in protecting women against gender-based violence. Women who have at least secondary education are less likely to experience violence.¹¹⁵

3.8.4 Wife beating is still acceptable in rural and urban areas: Social acceptance of violence against women in Tanzania remains very high. It is closely associated with higher rates of IPV. 62.1 percent of respondents in rural areas and 50.8 percent in urban areas agree that wife beating is an acceptable act towards women. 29 percent of women experienced three or more types of marital controlling behaviours by their husbands and partners. The most common was jealousy or anger if they talked to other men (60 percent) and insisted on knowing where they were always (57 percent).¹¹⁶ Further, wife beating is often associated with women failing to fulfil the gender roles assigned to them.¹¹⁷ Half of Tanzania's population agrees that a husband is justified in hitting or beating his wife. Social acceptance of violence against women also tends to be higher among women than men. A larger share of women than men consider that a husband can beat a woman if she burns food, goes out without telling him, neglects the children, or argues with him.

3.8.5 A girl child is affected more by violence than a boy child: One out of five girls aged 15–19 years has experienced physical violence since the age of 15, and one out of 10 girls aged 15–19 years has experienced sexual violence. 28 percent of girls and 13 percent of boys experienced some form of sexual violence before reaching the age of 18 years. Only one out of 8 females and less than 1 out of 20 males who sought assistance received support services for their experiences of sexual violence before the age of 18.¹¹⁸

3.8.6 Increasingly, more women survivors of GBV seek help and report GBV incidences: Although there is a significant underreporting, more than half of women (54 percent) who have reported having experienced physical or sexual violence confirmed that they have sought help. One-third of women (34 percent) have never sought help or told anyone. Survivors of both physical and sexual violence are more likely to seek help (64 percent) than survivors of physical violence only (53 percent) or sexual violence only (29 percent). The survivor's family was the most common source of help (56 percent), irrespective of the type of violence.¹¹⁹ 9 percent of women who sought violence-related help reported to the police. The rest (35 percent) have sought help in other services such as health facilities, legal facilities, and religious places. 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 percent). 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 percent jump).

3.8.7 Female Genital Mutilation/Cut (FGM/C) is still happening in Tanzania, with a prevalence rate of 12 percent: The national rate of FGM/C in Tanzania is at 12 percent but hides significant regional variations.¹²⁰ Prevalence is very high in the Central zone (45.6 percent) and the Northern zone (21.7 percent). More than 2 million Tanzanian women report having been excised or having experienced FGM/C. However, the practice is being progressively abandoned. The regions of Manyara, Dodoma,

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

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

116 Ibid.

117 Ibid

118 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016, TDHS Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2015/2016. <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR321/FR321.pdf>

119 National Bureau of Statistics, 2016, TDHS Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2015/2016. Accessed at <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR321/FR321.pdf>

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

Arusha, Mara, and Singida have prevalence rates of FGM/C between 30 percent and 60 percent. Women in rural areas are more than twice as likely to be mutilated as those in urban areas (12.7 percent versus 5.3 percent). Between 2005 and 2015, the FGM/C prevalence among women aged 15–19 decreased from 9.1 percent to 4.7 percent, while among those aged 20–24 years, it declined from 13.7 percent to 7.3 percent.¹²¹ However, almost 4 in 10 girls aged 20–24 years underwent FGM/C before the age of 5 years.

Perceptions of FGM/C as a practice are closely related to customs entrenched in certain parts of the country. Although only a minimal share of the population (6 percent) considers the practice to be mandated by religion, a large proportion regard FGM/C as part of traditional customs (79 percent). FGM/C is rooted in beliefs about sexually appropriate behavior and norms for women. It is performed as part of a rite of passage marking a girl's transition to womanhood with implications for marriage. Some communities continue to believe that FGM/C preserves virginity, prevents promiscuity, and ensures faithfulness in marriage. In some communities, FGM/C is a prerequisite for marriage. As a result, women and girls often face social pressure to undergo FGM/C; the practice can also impact the bride price given for her marriage.

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. Nevertheless, the law does not offer a specific definition for FGM/C, and it remains legal for women over 18 years to be cut. Positively, most of the population supports the abandonment of FGM/C. On average, the vast majority (91 percent) of the population agrees that excision should be abandoned. This is evidenced by the age profile of those experiencing FGM/C, which has changed over time. At the national level, 20 percent of women aged between 60–69 years have been subjected to FGM/C. This rate decreased to 17 percent and 18 percent for women aged 50–59 and 40–49, respectively.

Furthermore, this rate drops to 10 percent for women aged 30–39. Among the youngest generations – women aged 15 to 19 and 20 to 29 – the share of women who have been excised is just 5 percent and 6 percent, respectively. This statistically significant downward trend across generations suggests that FGM/C is being progressively abandoned as a harmful practice.¹²²

3.8.8 Teenage pregnancy is still challenging: 26.7 percent of girls aged 15–19 had given birth or were pregnant with their first child. When a girl becomes pregnant, her life can change radically. Her education ends, and her job prospects diminish. She becomes more vulnerable to poverty and exclusion, and her health often suffers. Therefore, it results in a cohort of young girls with little education and limited economic opportunities who cannot contribute to the country's development. It harms not only individual girls and women but also their families, communities, and countries.¹²³

3.8.9 Child marriage is still a challenge in Tanzania: Child marriage is prevalent in Tanzania and affects primarily girls. In 2021, 16 percent of Tanzania's women aged between 20 and 24 years had been married, divorced, or widowed before 18 years. In contrast, only 2 percent of men aged 20 to 24 years were in the same situation. The girl-child marriage rate reaches 24 percent in rural areas compared to 3 percent in urban areas. Moreover, in four regions – Mara, Morogoro, Shinyanga, and Simiyu – the girl child marriage rate is above 30 percent. When looking at all women, the data show that 19 percent of Tanzanian women aged 15 years and older have been married before 18 years. The spousal age differences can impact power imbalances in the context of marriage, promoting unequal decision-

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

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

123 Fact Sheet: Teenage Pregnancy. Accessed on 2 December 2021. https://tanzania.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/factsheet_teenage%20pregnancy_UNFPA_14oct.pdf.

making power between men and women and even IPV.¹²⁴ Women whose age at first marriage is low tend to have early childbearing and high fertility.

The Marriage Act¹²⁵ 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 Act¹²⁶ 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. Widespread social acceptance of the practice perpetuates the girl-child marriage. A significant proportion of the population considers it appropriate for a woman to marry before the age of 18 years. At the national level, 19 percent of Tanzanians consider it appropriate for a girl to marry under 18, a share rising to 24 percent in rural areas. With lower educational attainment, girl child marriage impacts girls' health, notably through adolescent pregnancies and increased maternal mortality, morbidity, and infant mortality risks.¹²⁷ This, in turn, curbs women's and girls' empowerment, decision-making power, financial independence, and ability to contribute to the socioeconomic development of their households, communities, and society.

3.8.10 Bride price is still a dominant practice in Tanzania: Bride price is one factor that highly contributes to child marriage in Tanzania. Data reveal that girls are often perceived as a source of income due to bride price, and families sometimes seek marriage for their daughters for economic reasons. First, the bride's family will receive the bride price in monetary or in-kind valuable assets; second, marrying off a daughter may free up resources within the household that were formerly used to sustain the girl/bride. Rural families with girls and boys prioritise marrying off their girls to get a bride price to help their brothers marry. At the national level, bride price has played a role in the marriages of 90 percent of married women. In most cases (84 percent), the bride's parents receive the payment, made either by the groom's parents or by the groom himself. 92 percent of the population believe a marriage requires a bride price. Three-quarters of the population agree that a man gains ownership of his wife by paying the bride price in rural areas. Conversely, men and women are equally likely to hold attitudes, considering that a man who pays the bride price owns his wife. Underpinning these attitudes are strong norms of restrictive masculinities that promote men's role as protectors and guardians of household members, particularly women in their families.

3.9 Gender and Access to Justice

3.9.1 Women's ability and willingness to resort to the courts and the police are limited: In situations of conflict, only 20 percent of women would seek access to the lowest court in the judicial hierarchy (Primary Courts in Mainland), and just 25 percent would seek help from the police. Likewise, only 27 percent 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 percent 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 court or police to settle a conflict than in rural areas.

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

125 The Marriage Act of 1971.

126 The Marriage Act of 1998.

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

Discriminatory social norms and attitudes restrict women's ability to access the justice system and to seek redress through Tanzania's legal institutions. Although a large majority of the population believes that men and women should have equal opportunity to file a complaint at a police station, more than three-quarters hold the opinion that a woman needs her husband's or partner's permission if she wants to contact the police (77 percent) or a court (83 percent). These attitudes reflect norms of restrictive masculinities that promote men's role as protectors and guardians of the household but are also internalised by society, including women themselves. Consequently, norms opposing women's representation in the system as judges remain high. At the national level, 39 percent of the population agrees or strongly agrees that men make better judges than women.

3.10 Gender, Leadership, and Political Participation

Women's participation in the public sphere and benefits derived from the same often reflect their participation and power in the private sphere, including at the family and household level. Despite progress over the past decades in Tanzania, women's political participation and leadership remain influenced by discriminatory norms that hinder women in other sectors. Women are still confronted with violence, gendered stereotypes, and a lack of resources, including time, which limits their ability to effectively compete, participate, and benefit from political leadership. This results in women being underrepresented in decision-making platforms that determine their access to and benefits derived from resources and services.

Therefore, women's political leadership and participation remain essential for tackling gender inequalities 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 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.¹²⁸ In Tanzania, fewer women still take part in leadership positions.

3.10.1 Men Dominate Decision-Making at Household Level: Less than 40 percent of married women reported that their husbands make major household purchases. This means that in most Tanzanian households (60 percent), decisions regarding children's health or education are made together by both parents. However, in more than one-quarter of all households, the father makes such decisions without consulting the mother. For instance, in 32 percent of rural households, the father is the sole maker of children's education and does not seek the mother's opinion. Married men reported that more than 50 percent of their major household purchases are done by themselves. The evidence also depicts that 37 percent of Tanzania's population identifies the male household head as the sole decision maker for basic purchases, such as food or clothes. Moreover, more than 40 percent of the population identifies the male household head as having the last word on important decisions, such as choosing farm inputs, buying or renting a house or purchasing vehicles. The situation is perpetuated by social norms that place a man as head of the family and owner of the household and those living in it, including the wife and the children. It is also noted that the discriminatory attitudes related to decision-making power within the household are also more acute for individuals with lower levels of education. While 79 percent of the population without formal education believe that men should have the final word on important decisions in the home, this proportion falls to 65 percent among those with a completed secondary education and 56 percent among those with a university-level education. These dominant and widespread discriminatory attitudes undermine women's independence and status beyond the scope of pure household decisions, limiting their ability to exercise their opinion in life-determining areas, such as their health, education, or job choices. It also affects how women participate in the decision-making in the local and national governance structures and the political spaces.

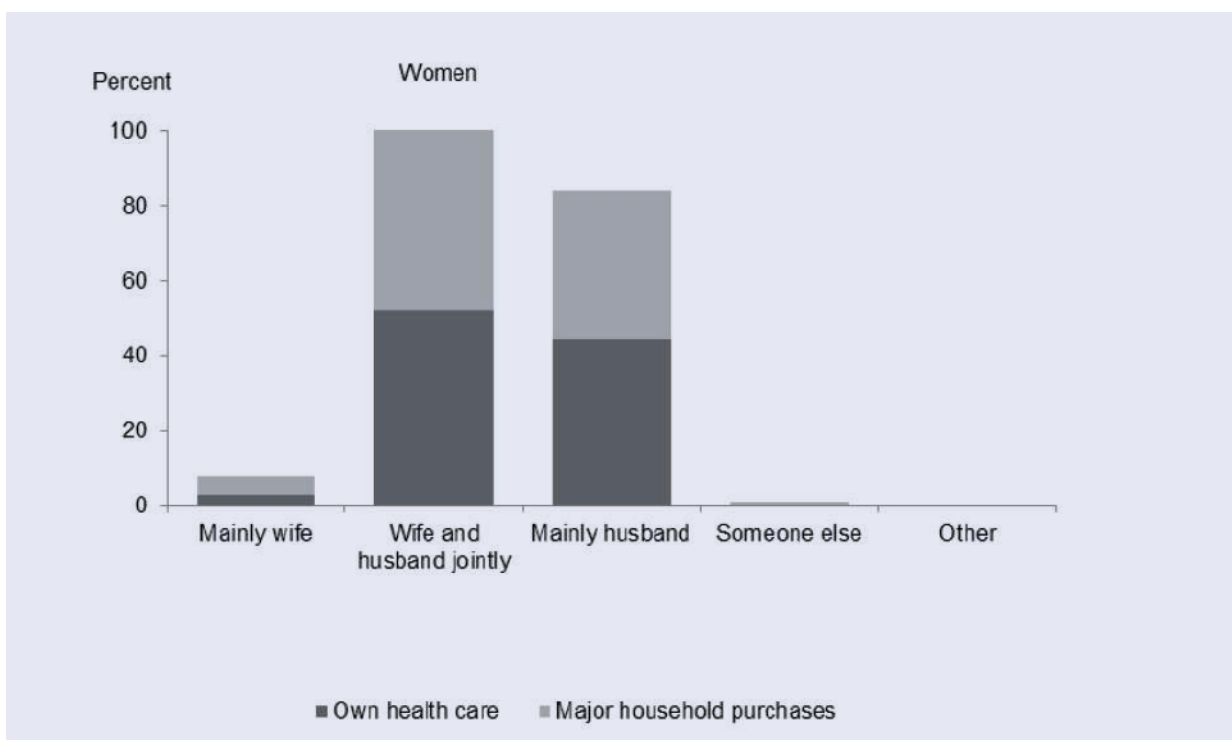
128 United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Sustainable Development). <https://sdgs.un.org/goals/goal5>.

Figure 6:
 Percentage Distribution of Married Men Aged 15-49 Reporting on Persons Who Usually Make Decisions about Various Issues



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, The 2015-2016 Demographic Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey

Figure 7:
 Percentage Distribution of Married Women Aged 15-49 Reporting Persons Who Usually Make Decision about Various Issues, Tanzania, 2015-16



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, The 2015-2016 Demographic Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey.



3.10.2 Fewer women run for election compared to men. As of November 2022, the National Assembly is comprised of 36.9 percent women and 63.1 percent 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 percent) were women, while the number of male candidates was 959 (76 percent). This represents a slight increase from the 2015 election, where women constituted 19 percent (233 out of 1,218) of nominated candidates, while male candidates were 985 (80.9 percent). 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.¹²⁹ A lower number of women candidates stems from the social norms that women are domestic and apolitical beings and leadership is a male domain.

3.10.3 Few women are elected to parliament; most women 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 both at the national and local levels.¹³⁰ 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 percent of women are directly elected by constituents, while others are appointed through special seats and/or are appointed 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).

3.10.4 Few women are elected in villages, hamlets, and street level: At the ward level, women make up 29.24 percent of councillors, with only 6.5 percent of women councillors being directly elected from wards. There are more than 12,000 streets/hamlets/villages. Women make 2.1 percent, 12.6 percent, and 6.7 percent of the village, streets, and hamlets chairpersons, respectively.¹³¹ 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 (TAMISEMI). Therefore, this makes data collection and collation very difficult.

3.10.5 Violence against women during elections is systemic and pronounced: In a study conducted in 2015,¹³² 69 percent of women electoral candidates reported having experienced abusive language, 17 percent reported physical attacks, and 13 percent reported receiving demands for sexual favours.¹³³ In the same study, over half of the women voters interviewed post-election (53 percent) 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.¹³⁴ 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,¹³⁵ there was little remedial action on such violence.

3.10.6 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, of which two have been women.¹³⁶ In 2000, the National Assembly obtained its first female Chairperson, Honourable Anna Makinda. She later became the first female Deputy Speaker in 2005 and

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

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

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

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

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

134 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>.

135 Ibid.

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

eventually the first female Speaker in 2010. Currently, the National Assembly is headed by a female Speaker, Honorable Tulia Ackson Mwanasasu. The Clerk of the National Assembly is also a woman, Ms. Nenelwa 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 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 consists of Crosscutting Committees: 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.¹³⁷

3.10.7 Women have been underrepresented in the executive arm of the state: At the executive level, Tanzania obtained its first female Vice President, Samia Suluhu Hassan in 2015. In March 2021, Samia Suluhu Hassan became the first female President following the untimely demise of President John Pombe Magufuli.¹³⁸ Since independence, Tanzania has had 11 Prime Ministers, but none of them has been a woman. Currently, 36 percent of the ministers are women. Women are also underrepresented among permanent secretaries and deputy permanent secretaries. Women comprise 11 percent of Permanent Secretaries and 22 percent of Deputy Permanent Secretaries.¹³⁹ While Zanzibar has just obtained its first female Chief Secretary, Tanzania Mainland has never had a female Chief Secretary since independence.¹⁴⁰

Since independence, only two women have been ministers of finance,¹⁴¹ and only three have been ministers of foreign affairs.¹⁴² For the first time in 2021, a female was appointed minister in the Ministry of Defense and National Services.¹⁴³ Women make up 21 percent of all ambassadors representing Tanzania in various countries.¹⁴⁴

Men dominate the positions of the commissioners and directors within the ministries. Women constituted 26 percent of all directors compared to men and 40 percent of all assistant directors. In addition, there were 13 percent women commissioners and 15 percent female deputy commissioners.¹⁴⁵ At the regional level, women constitute 23 percent of the Regional Commissioners and 42 percent of the Regional Administrative Secretaries. At the district and municipal levels, women comprise 16 percent of the District Executive Directors, 15 percent of the District Administrative Secretary, and 29 percent of District Commissioners.¹⁴⁶

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

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

139 Directorate of Presidential Communications-State House, United Republic of Tanzania, Press Release released on 4th April 2021.

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

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

142 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/>.

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

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

145 Ibid.

146 Ibid.

3.10.8 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.

Figure 22:
Representation of men and women in public service 2020-2022

	2020				2021				2022			
	F	M	TOTAL	F%	F	M	TOTAL	F%	F	M	TOTAL	F%
Ministers	4	15	19	21	9	16	25	36.0	9	16	25	36.0
Deputy Ministers	7	19	26	27	6	19	25	24.0	6	19	25	24.0
Members of Parliament	26	238	264	10	141	243	384	36.7	141	243	384	36.7
Elected female MP	26	238	264	10	24	240	264	9.1	24	240	264	9.1
Appointed MPs	4	3	7	58	4	3	7	57.1	4	3	7	57.1
Special Seats MPs	133	0	133	100	113	0	113	100.0	113	0	113	100.0
Councillors	260	1,634	1,894	14	1,611	3,742	5,353	30.1	1,611	3,742	5,353	30.1
Special Seats Councillors	1,374	0	1374	100	1,407	0	1,407	100.0	1,407	0	1,407	100.0
Elected councillors	260	3,692	3,952	7	204	3,742	3,946	5.2	204	3,742	3,946	5.2
Permanent Secretaries	5	24	29	18	3	23	26	11.5	3	23	26	11.5
Deputy Permanent Secretaries	4	15	19	22	5	17	22	22.7	5	17	22	22.7
Directors in the Ministries	41	165	206	20	48	134	182	26.4	48	134	182	26.4
Deputy Directors	88	169	257	35	162	239	401	40.4	162	239	401	40.4
Commissioners	2	13	15	13	2	13	15	13.3	2	13	15	13.3
Deputy Commissioners	9	48	57	16	9	48	57	15.8	9	48	57	15.8
Regional Commissioners	4	22	26	16	6	20	26	23.1	6	20	26	23.1
Regional Administrative Secretaries	7	19	26	27	11	15	26	42.3	11	15	26	42.3
District Commissioners	44	91	135	33	41	97	138	29.7	41	97	138	29.7
District Executive Directors	36	155	191	19	30	153	183	16.4	30	153	183	16.4
District Administrative Secretary	45	147	192	24	21	113	134	15.7	21	113	134	15.7
Ambassadors	8	25	33	25	9	33	42	21.4	9	33	42	21.4
Judges	33	53	96	45	40	62	102	39.2	40	62	102	39.2
Heads of departments in the ministry	463	1931	2394	19	463	1,931	2,394	19.3	463	1,931	2,394	19.3
All public officials	-	-	-	-	228,291	301,266	529,557	43.1	228,291	301,266	529,557	43.1

Source: President Office, Public Service Management and Good Governance, in November 2022.

The factors behind women’s low participation in decision-making positions are multi-faceted:

The low number of women in leadership positions is attributed to various systemic challenges, such as social norms, which perceive leadership roles as a male domain, the unfriendliness of First-Past-the-Post (FPTP) electoral system, weak legal frameworks governing political parties’ compliance to gender and social inclusion, and the challenges facing the implementation of women special seats system. Furthermore, the massive presidential appointment powers are unguided by gender and social inclusion principles. Issues of confidence, women’s burden of care work, education, and financial constraints make women less competitive and continue to hinder the effective and substantive participation of men and women in leadership and political positions.¹⁴⁷ These challenges are even stronger for men and women with disabilities, thus limiting their access to decision-making positions.

147 Lihiru, V (2019). Participatory Constitutional Reforms vs. Realization of Equal Representation of Men and Women in the Parliaments: A Study of Kenya, Rwanda and Tanzania. Faculty of Law, Department of Public Law. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/11427/31508>. Available at <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/31508>.

3.11.1 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 percent) were women. The number of women in police and defence forces is unavailable due to its sensitive nature.

Mapping undertaken by UN Women in August 2022 depicts that only 26 organisations in Tanzania Mainland focus on Women, Peace, and Security (WPS).

A few organizations, such as the Global Peace Foundation, Mwalimu Nyerere Foundation, Legal and Human Rights Centre, Search for Common Ground, and *Bright Jamii* Initiative, have WPS as their core mandate. The rest of the organizations implement WPS-related interventions as cross-cutting activities, along with other mandates, such as climate change and environment, civic engagement, innovation and technology, Governance, women's economic empowerment and/or Sexual Reproductive Health.

There is also a lack of clarity on what amounts to WPS issues as most organisations focus on advancing general women's rights and addressing gender-based violence, claiming to focus on WPS as well, albeit without going to the depth of WPS issues.

Communities grapple with various WPS-related political, economic, legal, and social issues. The politically inclined WPS issues relate to an increase of radicalized groups and recruitment of children and youth, as well as border conflicts and their implications on women and children. There is also a low level of women's participation in peace and security platforms and other local and national decision-making platforms and low participation of women in peacebuilding missions. Other issues are related to the low participation of women in security organs in the country, such as in the police force, army, etc., as well as violence against women in elections, politics, and media.

The economic-related WPS issues include human trafficking due to unemployment, violence against women due to economic dependence on men, land ownership and inheritance issues, and related conflicts. Youth unemployment, livelihood issues, particularly with the increase in high cost of living as part of the impact of COVID-19, the Russia-Ukraine war, and climate change-related impacts, also pose security challenges.

There are also environmental-based WPS issues, which include climate change and food insecurity. Furthermore, the legal challenges related to WPS issues relate to gaps in the legal and policy framework governing problems of peace and security and the gender insensitivities of the frameworks. Finally, the identified social WPS issues include family, separation, divorce, child maintenance issues, child abuse, GBV towards women with disabilities, and drug abuse.

3.12 Gender, Access to Information, and the Media

Media can play an important role in society in relation to gender. Media can influence gender equality in the workplace by hiring and promoting women in media houses. It can also influence the representation of women and men through the media outputs. Women's employment and participation in the media are rising globally, but there are still significant disparities in Tanzania. The absence of women in the media houses, especially in decision-making, impacts the content itself. Women are more likely to represent women's needs and perspectives and to build confidence in other women to engage with the media.

The role of media as an institution supporting sustainable and inclusive development is captured primarily under SDG Goal 16. Indicator 16.10 refers to ensuring public access to information and protecting fundamental freedoms following national legislation and international agreements. Media is also instrumental in ensuring that the delivery of the SDGs is accountable, transparent, and includes the views and needs, especially of vulnerable groups.

3.12.1 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 387.¹⁴⁸ This figure, however, does not capture most unaccredited freelance journalists who tend to face more vulnerable employment and risks in the course of duty. It also does not cover other employees of media houses, including producers and technical specialists, technical professions that tend to be dominated by men overall (more information in sections below).

Table 23:
Proportion of accredited journalists by sex and age

Accredited Journalists	Total	805
Local Journalists		773
a). Sex		
<input type="checkbox"/> Male		386
<input type="checkbox"/> Female		387
Foreign Journalists		
		32
<input type="checkbox"/> Male		27
<input type="checkbox"/> Female		5
b). Age		
		Between 24 -55 years

3.12.2 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.¹⁴⁹ Only five 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.

Table 24:
Proportion of Media Editors by age and disability

Media Editors	Newspapers 26
Newspapers	Radio 12
Radio and	Television 18
Television	Total 56 Media Editors
a). Age	Between 24 -55 years
b). Disability	None

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

149 Ibid.

Table 25:
Proportion of Senior Managers at Media Houses by sex, age and disability

Senior Managers	30
a). Sex	
<input type="checkbox"/> Male	25
<input type="checkbox"/> Female	5
b). Age	Between 25 - 60
c). Disability	Non

3.12.3 Women make up less than a quarter of higher-level management positions in media houses:

Data from the Glass Ceiling Tanzania Report,¹⁵⁰ which combines both Tanzania Mainland and Tanzania, reveals that in Tanzania, women make up 21 percent of those in top management and 20 percent 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 percent of media workers in Tanzania. However, only 28 percent of women were doing journalistic work. The highest proportion of women work as TV reporters and TV presenters (over 40 percent). Women are least represented as print journalists (25 percent). Gender Links report reveals a very interesting detail: men make up 80 percent of journalists reporting on gender issues. According to the Global Media Monitoring Project, women have been moving from 2 traditional “soft issues” to covering topics such as mining, natural disasters, and economics.¹⁵¹

Table 26:
Number of Women in the media organizations.

Position	Number of Women	Percentage
Reporter	27	67.5
Senior Reporter	8	20
Line Editor (News, features, sports, business)	2	5
Camera Woman	1	2.5
Assistant Marketing Manager	1	2.5
Missing Value	1	7.5
Total	40	100

Source: Glass Ceiling Report (2019)

Women occupy low to middle-level positions in newsrooms. This makes it very difficult to attain decision-making positions even if they are better educated and experienced than their male counterparts. Women in newsrooms are discriminated against in getting promotions, and they are more likely to be paid less than their male counterparts with the same qualifications (or even less) and experience. Women are still confined to reporting “soft news” assignments by design or accident, such as entertainment, family issues, and health, compared to men, who would be assigned cushy assignments covering high-level politics, economics, investigative journalism, and volatile situations.

¹⁵⁰ The report covers reached nine media outlets on the Mainland and at least five media outlets in Zanzibar

¹⁵¹ Women in the media in Tanzania (2019), Challenging the glass ceiling, study of women in the newsroom in Tanzania. Pg. 12

In addition, it is also revealed that women in newsrooms are susceptible to sexual harassment and gender-based violence (GBV) that also affects their career paths.

Women's traditional roles and domestic responsibilities reduce their opportunities to participate in more challenging assignments. This impacts negatively on their career paths. Lack of self-confidence adversely affects women journalists' career success. There are fewer women journalists in newsrooms than men, even though more women than men graduate with degrees in journalism from tertiary colleges and universities. Also, the perception of danger inhibits skill-building opportunities for female journalists. Most media houses do not have gender policies, and even those who have do not put them to use.



CHAPTER

04

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 Closing Gender Gaps

4.1 Introduction

Gender Equality and Women Empowerment (GEWE) is essential for human development. The lack of opportunities for girls and women entails high economic costs not only for them but also for their households and countries. The World Bank estimates that, on a per capita basis, gender inequality in earnings could lead to losses in wealth of \$23,620 per person globally. Globally, the loss in human capital wealth due to gender inequality is estimated at \$160.2 trillion in 141 countries if we assume that women would earn as much as men. This is about twice the value of GDP globally. Put differently, human capital wealth could increase by 21.7 percent globally and total wealth by 14.0 percent with gender equality in earnings.

Achieving gender equality would dramatically benefit women and girls' welfare and agency. This, in turn, would not only greatly benefit their households and communities; it would also help countries reach their full development potential. In addition, it would reduce fertility in countries with high population growth, as well as reduce under-five mortality and stunting. This would eventually contribute to ushering in the demographic transition and the associated benefits from the demographic dividend.

Gender equality also has a spill over effect on child health and well-being. Research in developing countries shows that compared to income or assets in the hands of men, income or assets in the hands of women are associated with larger improvements in child health and larger expenditure shares of household nutrients, health, and housing. In turn, children who are better nourished and educated are likely to be more productive adults.

Similarly, educational attainment for girls is associated with positive outcomes in six domains of interest: (1) earnings and standards of living; (2) child marriage and early childbearing; (3) fertility and population growth; (4) health, nutrition, and well-being; (5) agency and decision-making; and (6) social capital and institutions. Lower earnings for women in adulthood due to low educational attainment lead to losses in human capital wealth. Human capital wealth is defined as the present value of the future earnings of the labour force. The loss in human capital wealth incurred today because many adult women did not benefit in their youth from universal secondary education (defined as 12 years of schooling) is estimated to range between US\$ 15 trillion to US\$ 30 trillion globally. The gains in human capital per capita that could result from lower population growth with universal secondary education could be initially smaller than those estimated for women's earnings, at more than US\$ 3 trillion in the first year after achieving universal secondary education. These gains could, however, accumulate over time, rivalling within a decade the losses from women's lower earnings due to low educational attainment.¹⁵²

152 <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/29956/HighCostOfNotEducatingGirls.pdf?sequence=6&isAllowed=y>.

4.2 Closing the 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.

There are several GEWE-related international and regional conventions that 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 should also hasten the domestication process of GEWE-related laws and ensure the automatic application of international and regional conventions upon signing and ratification. Furthermore, Tanzania should allocate resources for implementation and report progress on the implementation of international, regional, and subregional conventions. The country should also implement and reform the existing laws and policies in line with the international and regional conventions. Discriminatory customary laws should be discarded. Closing the gender gaps in Tanzania Mainland can also be assisted by criminalizing marrying off girls at a young age, bride price, FGM for women of all ages, and marital rape.

Progress in achieving gender equality will also be realised when there is an adequate number of gender-responsive government officials in all sectors. These officials should have a technical and programmatic understanding of GEWE commitments enshrined in the international and regional commitments; take part in the making and execution of GEWE-related laws, policies, plans, programs, and budgets; remain nimble and have resources to execute the GEWE plans. The gender mainstreaming platforms at national and subnational levels should be well-equipped and coordinated to avoid duplication of efforts and redundancy.

Consistent community awareness raising, outreach, and sensitization, interventions that promote positive masculinity in men and boys, and targeting traditional, religious, and influential community leaders remain vital in bringing about the desired gender transformation. In addition, communities need to be free from discriminatory practices, such as burdening a girl child and women with domestic work. Efforts should be taken not only to ensure boys and men take part in domestic and care work but also to ensure that there are services at national and subnational levels to help families with care work.

Investing in human capital endowments (education and health) also shapes the ability of girls and boys, men and women, to reach their full potential. More specific interventions are needed for more girls to access better health care, water, and sanitation; education and -building opportunities; leverage technology and digital opportunities; participate in leadership and decision-making processes; equally access public, private, and self-employment; get equal pay and escape time poverty. Corruption in health and education provision compromises girls' and women's access to quality schools and clinics, their own social and economic empowerment, and their country's prospects for economic and social development. Mainstreaming gender in anti-corruption initiatives and enhancing accountability mechanisms ensures that women are represented at all stages of service delivery. Thus, they are less vulnerable to corruption. Practical ways of improving accountability in service delivery include gender-sensitive mandates that bring gender equality into remitting every public service, incentives to reward responsive performance, sanctions for neglect of women's needs, performance measurements, and monitoring to ensure that outputs benefit women. Sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive

indicators are essential for delivering gender-sensitive services that recognize women's and men's different roles, needs, and situations.

Women are not a homogeneous group and tend to have varied needs. Thus, the principle of 'nothing about us without us' and universal design must be central in the making, implementing, and evaluating of GEWE interventions. The country needs to make strategic decisions on how foreign aid, donors, and development partners can be coordinated, streamlined, and complement the national efforts on GEWE.

4.3 Key Priority Recommendations

1. 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.
2. 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.
3. Address challenges facing a girl and a boy child leading to drop out from school.
4. 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.
5. Design programs to promote 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.
6. Promote the enrolment of children with disabilities in school. Provide comprehensive, inclusive education with accessible facilities, trained teachers, and accessible learning materials.
7. 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.
8. Invest in public and formal childcare services, such as family day care and out-of-school hours care.
9. 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.
10. 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.
11. 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.
12. The Employment and Labour Relations Act should be amended to expand existing paid paternity leave schemes and make leave non-transferable. The name maternity and paternity leave should be changed to parental leave, and such leave should be an equal number of days for men and women, including unmarried ones.
13. 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.

14. 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.
15. Continue to advocate for equal pay for similar work performed by men and women.
16. Continue advocacy for the provision of social protection for men and women working in the informal sector.
17. 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.
18. 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.
19. 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.
20. 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.
21. 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.
22. 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.
23. 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.
24. Continue raising awareness to ensure women report acts of violence and injustices and seek redress from the justice institutions.
25. 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.
26. Invest in initiatives to ensure women's effective participation in maintaining peace, security, and the respective platforms and processes.
27. Tanzania should ratify the gender-responsive international, regional, and sub-regional conventions and domesticate, implement, and report on the ratified conventions.
28. Invest in ensuring the availability of sex-disaggregated data in all sectors.

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