Tanzania has realised significant achievements in its pursuit for Gender Equality and Women Empowerment (GEWE). This ideal, enshrined in the National constitution (and its subsequent amendments) has informed all key development policies and strategies. Some examples of this achievement are evident in sectors including education, health, and women’s participation in the economy and in political representation. The country’s ratification to major international and regional protocols related to GEWE, specifically the CEDAW, further shows this commitment to develop a country that respects gender equality and upholds democratic rights. The CSO community, academia and the public in general have also been actively engaged as stakeholders in the challenge against gender inequalities and women’s disadvantages in their various manifestations.

The Government has however realised that several challenges have impeded the level of achievement to GEWE. Many of these challenges arise out of the dynamics of the social, cultural, economic and political context, coupled with the unmatched capacity of the policy and institutional framework to address these challenges. Many women and girls remain comparatively more disadvantaged than their male counterparts, evident in a number of areas including inequalities in access to resources, opportunities and decision-making. Inadequate reproductive health services, gender-based violence and harmful traditional practices remain serious constraints to women’s advancement. It is also known that some men and boys too, suffer from serious gender-related abuses. Yet, we still lack a comprehensive framework from which these situations and processes can be adequately appreciated, including a comprehensive data base that touches on the issues central to gender equality.

This Tanzania Country Gender Profile (TCGP) is a result of the need to establish a baseline on which the achievements and challenges regarding GEWE can be presented and assessed in a holistic manner. In addition, the MoHCDGEC, in its mandate to spearhead and coordinate the mainstreaming of gender in development policies, programmes and implementation strategies intends to use the profile as a data base to direct the country towards achieving the ideals set out in the African Vision, Agenda 2063 to realise a people-centred development which is sensitive to gender equality.

It is my hope that the comprehensiveness of information in this TCGP will provide the foundation for a national level data base, and stimulate the needed impetus for more directed GEWE strategies informed by detailed sector-based gender equality assessments on a periodic basis.

Ms. Sihaba S. Nkinga
Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children
Acknowledgements

This 2016 Tanzania Country Gender Profile is a product of collaborative work led by the Gender Mainstreaming Working Group on Macro-Policy coordinated jointly by then Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children (MCDGC) and UN Women. The writing was led by Jane Haile, Rosemarie Mwaipopo, with statistical inputs from Emmanuel Maliti and contributions from the Gender Focal Points from all Sectoral Ministries, PMO-RALG, and the National Bureau of Statistics and from CSO representatives, the UDSM Gender Centre, UN-Women and the members of DPG Gender.

The profile was developed through a commitment by UN Women to the Government, support which is genuinely appreciated. The final outcome is therefore a shared achievement and is jointly owned. The Ministry would like to thank Ms. Maria Karadenizli, Representative (a.i.), UN Women Tanzania, for her leadership in this, and her technical advisory support as well as Ms. Fortunata Temu and Ms. Usu Mallya, senior advisors, UN Women who have supported this process throughout.
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## Acronyms

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<td>ACRP</td>
<td>Agriculture Climate Resilience Plan</td>
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<td>ACT</td>
<td>Artemisinin-Based Combination Therapies</td>
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<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
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<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>ANC</td>
<td>Antenatal Care</td>
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<td>ANGOZA</td>
<td>Association of Non-Governmental Organizations of Zanzibar</td>
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<td>ARV</td>
<td>Antiretroviral</td>
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<td>ASDP</td>
<td>Agricultural Sector Development Program</td>
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<td>ASDS</td>
<td>Agricultural Sector Development Strategy</td>
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<td>ASM</td>
<td>Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining</td>
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<td>ASR</td>
<td>Age Standardized Incidence Rate</td>
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<td>BASATA</td>
<td>National Arts Council of Tanzania</td>
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<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>British Gas</td>
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<tr>
<td>BPfA</td>
<td>Beijing Platform for Action</td>
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<td>BRN</td>
<td>Big Results Now</td>
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<td>CAADP</td>
<td>Tanzania’s Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme</td>
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<td>CBOs</td>
<td>Community-based Organizations</td>
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<td>CCBRT</td>
<td>Comprehensive Community Based Rehabilitation in Tanzania</td>
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<td>CDO</td>
<td>Community development workers</td>
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<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women</td>
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<td>CFS</td>
<td>Child Friendly Spaces</td>
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<td>CHF</td>
<td>Community Health Fund</td>
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<td>CLF</td>
<td>Converged Licensing Framework</td>
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<td>Civil Society Organization</td>
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<td>CUF</td>
<td>Civic United Front</td>
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<td>DP</td>
<td>Democratic Party</td>
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<td>Development Partners Group on Gender Equality</td>
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<td>DSE</td>
<td>Dar es Salaam Stock Exchange</td>
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<td>EGM</td>
<td>Enterprise Growth Market</td>
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<td>EID</td>
<td>Early Infant Diagnosis</td>
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<td>ELRA</td>
<td>Employment and Labour Relations Act</td>
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<td>EMA</td>
<td>Environmental Management Act</td>
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<td>EMAP</td>
<td>Engaging Men in Accountable Practices</td>
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<td>EPOCA</td>
<td>Electronic and Postal Communications</td>
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<td>FEMATA</td>
<td>Federation of Miners Association of Tanzania</td>
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<td>FGM</td>
<td>Female Genital Mutilation</td>
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<td>FLS</td>
<td>Forward Looking Analysis Study</td>
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<td>Frequency Modulation</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>Gender Equality and Women Empowerment</td>
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<td>GFP</td>
<td>Gender Focal Point</td>
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<td>HEAC</td>
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<td>ICGLR</td>
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<td>ICPD</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
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<td>Independent Television</td>
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<td>Power Breakfast</td>
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<td>Poor Dietary Intake</td>
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<td>Post-Exposure Prophylaxis</td>
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<td>Regional Administration Secretary</td>
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<td>RCH</td>
<td>Reproductive and Child Health</td>
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<td>REDD</td>
<td>National Reducing Emission from Deforestation and Forest Degradation</td>
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<td>REPOA</td>
<td>Research on Poverty Alleviation</td>
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<td>RMSMES</td>
<td>Rural Micro, Small &amp; Medium Enterprise</td>
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<td>RMNCAH</td>
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<td>Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa</td>
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<td>SGBV</td>
<td>Sexual and Gender-based Violence</td>
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<td>SIDO</td>
<td>Small Industries Development Organization</td>
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<td>EADB</td>
<td>East African Development Bank</td>
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<td>STI</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Infections</td>
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<td>SWAP</td>
<td>Sector-Wide Approach to Planning</td>
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<td>Tanzania Women Miners Association</td>
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<td>TBA</td>
<td>Traditional Birth Attendants</td>
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<td>TCGP</td>
<td>Tanzania Country Gender Profile</td>
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<td>Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey-Malaria Indicator Survey</td>
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<td>Tanzania Shilling</td>
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<td>TWCC</td>
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<td>TWCP</td>
<td>Tanzania Cross-Party Platform</td>
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<td>USCC</td>
<td>Under 5 Catch-up Campaign</td>
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<td>UDSM</td>
<td>University of Dar es Salaam</td>
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<td>UK</td>
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<td>UN</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>US$</td>
<td>United States Dollar</td>
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<tr>
<td>VAC</td>
<td>Violence against Children</td>
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<td>VAW</td>
<td>Violence against Women</td>
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<td>VICOBA</td>
<td>Village Community Banks</td>
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<td>VMCC</td>
<td>Voluntary Medical Male Circumcision</td>
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<td>Women Legal Aid Centre</td>
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<td>Women Wake Up</td>
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<td>WSDP</td>
<td>Water Sector Development Program</td>
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<td>ZAFELA</td>
<td>Zanzibar Female Lawyers Association</td>
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The Government in collaboration with non-state actors is continuously investing in means to support women entrepreneurs. They range from skills development, financing, sensitization on land laws etc.

The overall poverty incidence which has a bearing on the status of women is on the decline; from 34.4 per cent (2007) to 28.2 per cent (2012). Food poverty incidence for female-headed households has declined as well from 13.4 per cent to 10.4 per cent over the same period.

However, the agriculture sector which mostly involves women is expanding at a slower rate than sectors which are male dominated. Gender gap in agriculture is a development challenge. By closing such gap, Tanzania will raise its total Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and agriculture GDP by US$ 105 million and US$ 85 million per annum respectively. Crop production will rise by 2 per cent and 80,000 people will move out of poverty annually.

While existing laws e.g. labour laws prohibit any kind of discrimination, the prevailing trends is a concern 1) The proportion of unemployed women remains higher than that of men 2) While youth unemployment rate for boys is on the decline, that of girls is on the rise 3) Higher proportion of females is in vulnerable employment and into child labour than males 4) In the formal sector, women are mostly into low paying occupations and earn significantly lower than men 5) Tanzania remains behind the global average and that of Sub Saharan African on the proportion of females owning enterprises.

Sexual abuses and gender-based discrimination remains as critical challenges including degrading conditions in the employent fields such as domestic works, bar/restaurant which mostly engages women.

Remaining challenges

- Inadequate gender mainstreaming in the analysis of the economy results into limited information and understanding of the nature of women’s and men’s engagement including their opportunities and challenges.
- Inadequate GEWE-responsive policy and legislation governing key economic sectors such as employment, property ownership and credit. There is also weak mainstreaming of gender in planning and budgeting at sector level.
- Inadequate gender-disaggregated data in sectors or segments of key economic sectors to reflect the situation of women and gender relations in the sector, and to allow appropriate monitoring.
- Inadequate support systems for women to allow them to contribute to and benefit from the economy.

Key recommendations

- Advocacy for pro-GEWE and pro-poor sectoral economic frameworks to ensure that inclusive growth, sustainable livelihoods and gender equality and justice for all are prioritized.
- Developing strategies for mapping and monitoring mainstreaming of GEWE in the key economic sectors.
sectors. This includes monitoring and reporting framework on employment and unemployment in several sectors of the economy.

- Building capacity and popularizing gender-responsive budgeting in key sectors at the meso and micro level. This includes, introducing means to enhance the capacities of sector gender units to identify mechanisms or strategies that seek to challenge or change the contexts that perpetuate women’s [and girls] disadvantage and abuses.

- Identifying and promote mechanisms that address gender inequities at household level, including women (heavy workload, e.g. children’s care, energy needs). Investment could focus on time-saving infrastructure [and production technologies].

Access to healthcare

Key Trends

- The number of health facilities is on the rise and this has contributed to improved access to health care for many women and the reduction of numbers of new-born deaths. Access to National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) and Community Health Fund (CHF) is also on the rise and is reversing the cost-sharing provisions that had denied many women access to health services. However, both NHIF and CHF started from a very low base.

- The proportion of pregnant women receiving Intermittent Preventive Treatment (IPTp) is on the rise. However, the proportion pregnant women sleeping under an Insecticide Treated bed Nets (ITN) is declining. Another trend is the increasing number of new cases of cancer with the cervical and breast cancer in women and prostate cancer in men among the leading non-communicable diseases.

- Higher proportion of female headed households (11.4 per cent) is food insecure than male headed households (7.2 per cent). Breast feeding is on the rise and child underweight, wasting and stunting are on the decline. The latter, however remains significantly high. Less than one-tenth of children aged 6-23 months are meeting the criteria for a minimum acceptable diet.

- There is a declining HIV prevalence among males and females and the proportion of HIV-infected women receiving ARV for Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) has increased from 34 per cent (2008) to 73 per cent (2013). However, HIV prevalence rate remains nearly twice for women (6.2 per cent) that of men (3.8 per cent).

- The proportion of pregnant women delivering in a health facility is on the rise but less than the set targets. Maternal mortality rate, child, infant and under-5 mortality rates are on the decline with the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target on under-five mortality achieved.

Remaining challenges

- Many of the well designed GEWE strategies in the health sector have been impeded by a low budget, persistent cultural issues, poverty, inadequate information and access to care.

- Lack of a comprehensive programme for Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) is limiting women’s access to quality and timely basic health care and thus contributing to high Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR).

- Inadequate mechanisms for addressing youth’s and adolescents’ sexual and reproductive health interests. Poverty and socio-culturally based factors limit achievement of the 3-zeros in HIV and AIDS.

- Inadequate monitoring of the effectiveness of
CHF and NHIF is affecting access and the cost of health care.

- Culturally-based silence is affecting women’s and men’s access to health care and early diagnosis.

- Inadequate mechanisms to address food security and nutrition from a comprehensive approach.

### Key recommendations

- Developing a comprehensive health sector gender assessment to identify and address key issues. Advocating for and ensuring that an appropriate share of the national budget is allocated to the health sector, and especially to public RCH facilities in order to expand access to quality RCH services.

- For progressive control of IMR and MMR, effective services in RCH facilities are needed to enhance women’s timely access to quality services.

- Enhancing the comprehensive RHC programme by integrating household and community-based education programmes on gender and nutrition/food security. Establishing a multi-sectoral platform which addresses the key issues confronting food insecurity and nutrition.

- Scaling up and strengthening youth and adolescent-friendly Sexual and Reproductive Health (SRH) education.

- Scaling up the multi-stakeholder response at community level to reduce women’s risk to exposure to HIV/AIDS.

- Investing in outreach services in the regions/districts and scaling up the early detection of and screening for cervical, breast and prostate cancer in the country.

### Gender and education

#### Key Trends

- The national budget for the education sector is on the rise in both nominal and real terms. However, its share of the overall national budget is declining.

- Gender parity is achieved in pre-primary and primary education. However, gender differences rise sharply when moving to the secondary and higher education.

- Each year there has been outstanding performance of female students in both Form IV and Form VI. However, male students performed better in science subjects than female students. Completion rate of females in the lower secondary education is lower than that of male indicates that more females are entering the labour force with lower qualifications than males.

- Enrolment of male and female students in higher education is on the rise—reflected by the growing number of universities and colleges. However, the affirmative actions which were instrumental in increasing girls’ participation in the science and engineering specializations have been phased out.

- The adult literacy rate is higher for male than that of female. However, overtime, the proportion of female who are literate is sharply increasing than the case with males.

#### Remaining challenges

- Retention and achievement rates at all levels are still a major challenge. The low catchment base at secondary school and tertiary levels (because of the low rate of retention and poor performance) contributes to low female enrolment at higher levels.
Women’s participation and representation in politics

Key Trends

- Tanzania has made significant strides in terms of women’s representation on decision-making organs. Women’s participation in parliament increased from 16.7 per cent (1995), to 22.6 per cent (in 2000) and 30.4 per cent in 2005 to 36 per cent in 2010 and 37 per cent in 2015. The proportion makes Tanzania as one of 20 countries in the world that have reached or surpassed the 30 per cent mark for women’s representation in Parliament and it ranks 5th on the continent and 20th in the world according to Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) data. However, the increase is mostly driven by Temporary Special Measures (TSM) as provided in the constitution.

- In recent years, it is not uncommon for key public entities to be headed by women. It is the same in the key political positions within the central Government (e.g. vice presidency) and in the parliament (e.g. deputy speaker position). A total of 239 women contested for parliamentary seats in 20105, a rise from 190 during the 2010 election.

- Despite such progress, women representation remains low, particularly in political positions at the level of the Local Government Authority (LGA). During the 2015 election, only 5 per cent of the elected district councillors were women. Women are also grossly under-represented from the top leadership of almost all political parties. This is largely because of the male-dominated decision-making process in political parties and gender-insensitive screening criteria.

- The Government in collaboration with non-state actors continues to put in place programmes aiming at promoting gender equality in leadership and women’s participation in decision-making. Among others are the training and mentoring programmes...
for women candidates and women elected to public office. Civic education on matters that concern women’s lives may have had an impact on their readiness to vote and to some extent increase the number of women vying for political positions.

**Remaining challenges**

- Readiness to vote has yet to be translated into high participation in contesting for leadership positions. As a result, women representation in politics and decision making is still low.

- Patriarchal ideology and its systems still have a strong influence on women’s effective participation in decision-making at all levels (household to national Government).

- Inadequate awareness and enforcement of the Election Act (2010) which constrains women from enjoying the right to make a claim in the incidence of a violation during the electoral process. Hence many simply shy away from contesting.

- Weaknesses exist in institutional mechanisms for promoting GEWE in decision-making structures, within political parties, and across platforms that exist at the grassroots level.

**Key recommendations**

- Up-scaling existing mentoring and coaching programmes on political representation of females at all levels.

- Institutionalizing gender-sensitive voter education and civic education in grassroots leadership structures. This may require developing monitoring and other accountability mechanisms through the elections regulations.

- Improving the institutional mechanism for coordinating the mainstreaming of GEWE in leadership and representation from grassroots structures to the national level.

**Gender based violence**

- Multi-sectorial response to GBV in Tanzania has enabled a multi-dimensional intervention strategy that links different institutions, systems and processes. More women are now breaking the silence, defying customs and traditions by increasingly reporting incidences of GBV and sextortion.

- However, GBV remains as one of the most pervasive forms of abuse in Tanzania. One-third of Tanzanian women have experienced physical violence, while a tenth of women have experienced sexual intercourse against their will.

- FGM is one of the major forms of GBV in the country with a prevalence rate of 14.6 per cent. There have been prosecutions of persons carrying out FGM. However, the fear of prosecution is driving the practice under-ground with limited law enforcement.

- Women are increasingly accessing legal aid run by different organisations. However, the backlog in the justice system and unprofessional handling of sexual violence are affecting women in accessing their rights. Widow inheritance is harming the dignity of women and prevalence of witchcraft-related killings of the elderly remains a serious concern.

- Early marriage is a concern, with the prevalence rate above 30 per cent in 15 regions. Child sexual abuse is also a problem and abuse of younger boys in schools is becoming a great concern. There have been prosecutions of persons carrying out FGM.

- There are increasing reported incidents of SGBV
in refugee camps, with 96 per cent of all incidents affecting women and girls. The most common type of SGBV is denial of resources. Intimate partner violence continues to be the most reported case.

- Increased staffing and outreach of referral services (legal clinics, medical, shelter and security) are making it easier for refugees to report incidents of SGBV.

**Remaining challenges**

- Multiple and inter-related factors are behind the persistence of GBV (e.g. inability of women to challenge harmful traditions, shortcomings in enforcement of the law and inadequate resources). Inadequate mechanism to handle the increasing prevalence of sexual abuses of male adolescents and children is a concern.

- Legal hitches caused by the application of claw back clauses are limiting women and children violated by GBV from receiving justice. Reference is made, for example, on the contradictory clauses between common law and customary law in the law of Marriage Act, 1971. Moreover, the Tanzanian law presumes spousal co-ownership of property although the application of customary and religious laws may deny women’s access to and ownership and use of land.

- Culturally or socially-sanctioned reprisals which limit women in particular from proceeding with cases of GBV. Moreover, access to structures and institutions for addressing gender rights such as the Police Gender and Children’s Desks (GCD) is also challenging (limited number and facilities at the existing Police gender desks is a challenge).

**Key recommendations**

- Strengthening the coordination of cases of GBV between the Police, health facility, and judiciary.

Facilities for victims of GBV such as shelters, safe houses, medical treatment and counselling are also important. Such facilities need to be child friendly.

- Empowering the CGDs and the entire Police Force and para-military members to be proactive rather than being reactive in addressing GBV.

- Promoting and strategizing interventions, including educational packages that address the vulnerability of boys and girls.

- Establishing a monitoring framework for the proposed constitution to ensure the enforcement and implementation of women’s rights with regard to GBV.

**Women’s rights in the Tanzania legal framework and the constitution**

**Key Trends**

- To comply with the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Government is accelerating the law-review process. The 1977 constitutional has also been amended to expand the discrimination criteria to include sex and to increase the number of women in the parliament and local councils.

- Efforts are on-going to ensure gender issues are taken into consideration at all levels. For instance, the Government has directed all LGAs to establish client service charters that articulate gender equality in employment positions. Capacity building programmes and public awareness of the rights of women are on-going as well.

- Notable increase in the number of women accessing courts of law as a result of increasing number of legal aid schemes. However, legal rights of women continue to be constrained due to the application of multiple statutory, customary and religious laws.
• The proposed new 2014 constitution further advances gender equality, for instance, by prohibiting discrimination on the grounds of, inter alia, gender and defines both direct and indirect discrimination in accordance with Article 1 of CEDAW. It also provides for 50-50 political representation in Parliament.

Remaining challenges

• Key challenges include: Legal literacy of communities, slow progress in amending laws on marriage, property and inheritance limited enforcement of the existing laws as well as inadequate measures to raise awareness of rights and ensure access to legal services, especially by the poor marginalized women.

• Gender-disaggregated data is not adequately generated to inform the desired legal sector response and monitor enforcement of women’s rights. Moreover, the gender equality frameworks are not sufficiently used to inform policy, practice and planning in the legal sector and institutions addressing women’s rights.

• Women legal and human rights and women empowerment remained constrained by factors such as the discriminatory application of statutory laws; inadequate legislative protective mechanisms which include, protection orders, barring orders and safety orders; and insensitive investigations and prosecution of cases involving violence against women and children.

Key recommendations

• Developing customized policies, mechanisms and procedures for collecting, reporting and monitoring gender in legal sector institutions. Reference is made to a database of sex-disaggregated data.

• Utilizing gender-equality structures, mechanisms and agreements at all levels (e.g. CEDAW) to intensify efforts to address and promote equality between men and women, boys and girls.

• Developing and enhancing indicative monitoring mechanisms to ensure that progressive provisions of the constitution, including the amendment of gender discriminatory/outdate laws and the 50-50 women and men participation in politics clause are implemented.

• Providing legal literacy and awareness for marginalized communities as well as for the media and training institutions.

Gender and climate change

Key Trends

• Structures and policies are being set up to spearhead interventions and coordinate activities related to climate change. They include: the National Climate Change Strategy (NCCS), the national Reducing Emission from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD) strategy and the national guidelines for mainstreaming gender in climate change adaptation-related policies, plans, strategies, programmes and budgets. In addition, the Government is collaborating with the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to spearhead public communication messages on climate change responses.

• Public expenditure on climate change has increased steadily as a proportion of the total state budget from 4.2 per cent (2009/10) to 6.5 per cent (2012/13). This growth has however mostly driven by donor funding.

• Women have been responding to climate change hazards by collaborating in informal self-help groups during times of crises such as food short-
Some of the common response options at the household level include reducing the number of meals a day; seeking alternative income generation activities such as off-farm activities, causal labour and emigration have sometimes exposed women and their households to deeper risk. In general, women’s adaptive capacity is hampered because of limited response options.

Remaining challenges

- Poverty and gender inequality in decision making and resources ownership is limiting women’s response options. There is also a lack of a comprehensive database on women’s and men’s traditional knowledge and mechanisms for addressing the impacts of environmental and climate change; which consequently limits the integration of traditional knowledge in climate change responses.

- Insufficient financial resources to enable effective mainstreaming of gender equality in climate change interventions. The constraint culminates into weak capacity by some sectors, LGAs and community organisations to identify and address gender-based vulnerability to the impacts of climate change. Also affected is the uptake of gender-specific traditional knowledge for mitigating the impacts of climate change.

Key recommendations

- Improve data collection and analysis on the gender aspects of climate change including traditional knowledge and practices. Enhance the capacity of LGAs for gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation of the impacts of climate change. Up scaling information dissemination on early warning and disaster preparedness.

- Existing legislations and policies on climate change need to sufficiently reflect gender equality commitments made through ratification of CEDAW, Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Enhanced coordination of budgetary allocations for climate change-sensitive sectors which touch on women’s and men’s needs at the local level.

- Enhancing the adaptive capacity of both women and men through the introduction of more climate-resistant production systems and technologies, including supporting viable livelihood options.

- The proportion of males owning information and communication assets is higher than that of females. Reference is made to mobile phones, TV, radio, internet and computer.

- Women reporters are increasingly ‘speaking about women’ in topics related to gender equality and GBV. Media houses are increasingly introducing programmes dedicated to women. However, programmes are still male dominated, and their role in portraying positive gender images is in dire need of a positive change.

- Private-public collaboration in using latest communication technology to support areas that have bearing on women and children. For instance, use of mobile phone facilities in birth registrations.

- The Government plan to introduce online business registration and licensing which will potentially benefit men and women entrepreneurs.

- Weak enforcement and pressures for profit maximisation have given room for negative portrayals of women including indecent and exploitation of female performers in the entertainment industry.
Remaining challenges

- Inadequate integration of gender in the implementation of information and communication related policies. In other words, absence of gender policy to guide for instance the editorial practices of the media including Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)-based, creative and popular media.

- Inadequate sex disaggregated data to monitor the needs as well as the impacts of information and communication sources on women. The growth of the industry has led into unregulated distribution and dissemination of abusive information about women.

- Access to ICT that would inform about GEWE and hence improve women’s situations is limited by affordability and also challenges in usability of ICT products and services especially in non-urban areas.

Key recommendations

- Develop linkages between ICT and the 2005 Women and Development Strategy (2005) in order to enhance gender sensitivity in the implementation of ICT related policies and programmes, for example on use of media to promote GEWE and engendering the ownership of media and information houses.

- Develop sex-disaggregated ICT statistics as well as sensitising regulations regarding permissible content that are not degrading to women.

- Enhance access to ICT products and services through alternative ownership systems or more public avenues such as community TV.
Introduction & Background
1.2 Gender and population

With a population of 43.6 million in Mainland Tanzania in 2012 (from 33.5 million in 2002), and having more females than males in almost all age groups, Tanzania is geared to address a number of gender issues as its demographic, economic and social context evolves.

Despite the declining fertility rate from 5.4 children per woman in 2010 to 5.2 in 2015, the population of Tanzania is growing at 2.7 per cent per annum which is more than twice the global average population growth rate of 1.2 per cent and higher than the 2.5 per cent average rate in Africa. The declining fertility rate can be attributed to, among other things, an increase in the use of modern contraceptives and more females being educated. With a population growth rate of 2.7 per annum, the overall population of Tanzania is expected to double in 26 years. The life expectancy at birth is higher (63 years) for females than that of males (60 years). The structure of the population shows that 44 per cent of Tanzania’s current population is under 15 years of age.

1.2 Rationale for the Tanzania Country Gender Profile (TCGP)

TCGP provides a situational analysis of Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment (GEWE) in Mainland Tanzania. The Government of Tanzania has long recognized that achievement of gender equality is a sine qua non of democratic and sustainable growth and development for the whole nation. It acknowledges that despite many efforts, several inequalities still persist which are impacting on the quality of economic growth and provision of gender rights. TCGP has been developed, taking into account and acknowledging various efforts made by the Government with respect to establishing a legislative, policy and institutional frame-work in support of GEWE, in line with its commitments to international and regional conventions and declarations.

The 1977 constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (as amended from time to time), Vision 2025 and the recently approved second Five Year Development Plan 2016/17 – 2020/21 (FYDP II) envision and guarantee equality between women and men, boys and girls. In addition, gender equality and women’s rights have received increasing attention in the context of the on-going constitutional review process in Tanzania. The development policies reflects the vision enshrined in Agenda 2063 drawn by the African Union in 2013. One of the basic ideals for a truly transformed Africa is to have a people-centred development and gender equality, where women are empowered and all obstacles to women’s full participation in all human endeavours are removed.

The 2000 national Women and Gender Development Policy and the 2005 National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) provide guidelines to Government and non-Government actors on the incorporation of gender equality concerns in all their plans, strategies, programmes and budgets. Moreover, the Big Results Now (BRN) initiative adopted by the Government in 2013 has recognized the need to mainstream gender through its Key Result Areas (KRA) of agriculture, education, water, energy, transport, business environment and resource mobilization. A guideline for gender mainstreaming in the BRN’s KRAs has been produced.

Notwithstanding the on-going Government and civil society efforts to grapple with gender inequalities and efforts to advance women’s rights, the majority of women and girls remain more disadvantaged than their male counterparts. As to be elaborated in this TCGP, this inequality is evident at many levels, including access to resources, oppor-
tunities and decision-making, as well as to social services. Among other issues, poor reproductive health services, gender-based violence and harmful traditional practices remain serious constraints to women’s advancement. The lack of adequate sex disaggregated data across different levels of society limits a comprehensive appreciation of these situations. That having been said, there is increasing recognition that men and boys are also impacted by gender inequality in a variety of ways and that there is a need to incorporate them more actively in the gender equality debate and interventions in all sectors and thematic areas.

In response to these on-going challenges, the Government of Tanzania is taking a more comprehensive approach towards accelerating progress on gender equality targets and benchmarks. Thus collaboration with bilateral and multilateral development partners has been strengthened primarily through the Development Partners Group on Gender Equality (DPG-GE) and with Civil Society Organizations (CSOs).

Greater emphasis is being placed upon infusing the policy and planning processes with up-to-date sex-disaggregated data as well as more qualitative information. Currently statistical and other information on gender is gathered by a range of different institutions, such as the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), and through a variety of surveys, censuses and studies, including other gender profiles previously compiled through donor support and civil society.

1.3 Earlier efforts to develop national gender profiles

The development of earlier gender profiles is acknowledged as valuable sources of reference on gender issues in Tanzania. These include the 1997 and 2007 profiles developed by the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP), the multi-sectorial country gender profile supported by the African Development Bank (AfDB) in 2005, and the 2007 agricultural sector gender profile. Several other existing documentary resources have also proved very useful for policy-making and programming, but none of them is truly comprehensive, nor do they incorporate newly emerging evidence on the situation of women and gender equality. Furthermore, this critical evidence is not collated in one reference document or in a common repository, making it hard to access even by interested stakeholders, thereby reducing its utility and utilization. This profile attempts to provide a one common and shared document on the gender equality situation in Tanzania.

Since 2013, discussions between the Government and Development Partners (DPs), led by UN Women, together with the Canadian High Commission, the Embassy of Ireland and the EU, have focused on the need to develop a comprehensive TCGP, as a structured and analytical compilation of information on gender equality issues and actions across sectors. This TCGP is intended to provide both a strong advocacy tool, and a basis for evidence-based policy making, programming and budgeting for all stakeholders who will participate in the process. It is also expected to strengthen gender networking and coordination.

This TCGP in its comprehensiveness will also provide a baseline against which to measure progress towards national gender priorities as well as inputs to feed into the discussions on resource mobilization and national strategic planning processes. In addition, the material is organized so as to enable users in the Government, CSOs, academia, donor agencies and DPs to have easy access to the practical information and guidance they need.

1.4 Methodology for developing the TCGP

Key elements in the development of the TCGP have been Government leadership and ownership of the process and the broad participation of other stake-
process and the broad participation of other stakeholders and partners. A taskforce reporting to the Gender Mainstreaming Working Group on Macro-Policy (GMWG-MP) was established in 2013 to lead the process of developing the TCGP.

Key members of the taskforce leading the process of developing the TCGP were drawn from the NBS, the University of Dar es Salaam’s (UDSM) Gender Centre, the Ministry of Finance and Planning (MoFP), the Prime Minister’s Office (PMO), the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Vocational Training (MoESTVT), the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment (MoITI), and the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries (MoALF), along with the TGNP and UN Women. The TCGP has been developed with the support of consultants who led the review of documents and interacted with key stakeholders.

The information and analysis of data was informed by the rights-based approach to gender equality and women’s empowerment, which articulates the demands by individuals to live in an equitable and secure environment as a legitimate claim. Gender rights from this approach are to be understood from a holistic perception where the interlinked conditions for social justice, voice and social and economic empowerment are secured legitimately and not as basic needs. The rights-based approach also places responsibilities on the ‘duty holders’ to ensure that gender rights are secured for all individuals irrespective of age, sex, social status and other factors. Hence the duty holders become obliged to develop mechanisms that would ensure the pursuit of these rights.

The steps taken in detail were as follows: 1) A desk review of key documents 2) Training on data gathering with Ministries Departments and Agencies (MDAs) 3) Identification of key thematic areas in consultation with MDAs 4) Compilation of national statistics in collaboration with the NBS 5) Interviews to elaborate information and show-casing case studies 6) Consultative forums with Gender Focal Points (GFP) from MDAs.

The TCGP does not claim to be a compilation of all existing data on GEWE issues in Tanzania, but is intended to serve as a means of highlighting priority themes and challenges in different sectors and domains and of presenting some recommendations for action by different stakeholders. It is expected that this TCGP will provide an opportunity to identify issues for further research and analysis on GEWE.

1.5 Organization of the TCGP

Each chapter provides:

- Situational analysis of GEWE in each thematic area highlighting key issues at macro level (policy and legislation), meso level (institutional and service delivery structures) and micro (community, family, individual) level.

- Key remaining challenges.

- Key recommendations for action needed to address these challenges in the future.

1.6 TCGP monitoring and up-dating

As the TGCP is designed as a living document and as a practical guide and resource for all people involved in enhancing GEWE in Tanzania, the material in the profile will also be stored in sectorial data-banks or ‘repositories’ to be managed, monitored and regularly updated at sectorial level. The TCGP itself should be updated at least every 5 years.
Commitment to international and regional initiatives
A. The 1979 CEDAW

Tanzania signed CEDAW on 17th July 1980 and ratified it on 20th August 1985. The Government has also ratified the CEDAW optional protocol. In 2008 the state party submitted its fourth, fifth and sixth consolidated periodic reports on CEDAW. The consolidated seventh and eighth reports were submitted in September 2014.

In preparing the consolidated reports wide consultations were held involving MDAs NGOs that included the Tanzania Women Lawyers Association (TAWLA), Women in Law and Development in Africa (WiLDAF), Women legal Aid Centre (WLAC), Zanzibar Female Lawyers Association (ZAFELA), Association of Non-Governmental Organizations of Zanzibar (ANGOZA) and other relevant international organizations such as United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and UN Women.

Monitoring indicators for CEDAW were developed in 2001 with the CEDAW document translated into Kiswahili in 2012, raising its accessibility to many Tanzanians. GFPS and other stakeholders that participated in developing the CEDAW monitoring indicators were sensitized as to their use and are now applying them.

A. The 1995 BPfA

Whilst committing to all 12 areas of critical concern, the Government has chosen to concentrate on four themes identified as priority after the 1995 Beijing conference. The four areas are:

- Enhancement of women’s legal capacity.

- Economic empowerment of women and poverty eradication.

- Women’s political empowerment and decision making, and;

- Women’s access to education and employment

The Government, NGOs, DPs and CSOs have worked in partnership to implement the areas and their respective strategic objectives identified.

B. The 2000 Millennium Declaration and MDGs

Through the introduction of the MDGs acceleration framework, Tanzania made a number of progress across different MDGs including MDG2 (universal primary education), MDG3 (promoting gender equality and empowerment), MDG4 (reducing child mortality), MDG6 (combating HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases) and MDG8 (developing a global partnership for development). The MDGs that lagged behind were MDG5 on maternal mortality and MDG1 on poverty and hunger.

The NSGRP II which has been succeeded by FYDP II, was an MDG-based national development framework and recognized the cross-sectorial contribution to outcomes and inter-sectorial linkages and synergies. It emphasized mainstreaming cross-cutting issues which include gender and HIV/AIDS. It also integrated the MDGs into cluster strategies and adopted a five-year implementation period to give ample time for implementation and monitoring. It also provided for a greater role of private sector, economic growth and good governance; and it recognized the need to address vulnerability, human rights and social protection issues.

Gender mainstreaming will receive another impetus through the FYDP II and the BRN initiative, which is being rolled out across KRAs in the education, agriculture, energy, water, transport, health, labour and employment, and business environment sectors. 
C. Gender and the SDGs

On 25th September 2015, the 193-member UN general assembly to which Tanzania participated, formally adopted the new 17 global SDGs and the accompanying 169 targets. The SDGs embrace a gender specific goal, Goal 5 ‘Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls’ consisting of 9 targets and 14 monitoring indicators. Sex disaggregation of indicators for the remaining 17 goals has been highly emphasized during the formulation of the goals and their respective indicators. The aim for sex disaggregated data comes from a strong realization this time around that GEWE is crucial in achieving progress across the remaining goals and targets. Discussions on the localization of SDGs are currently ongoing involving different stakeholders including the Government, research institutions, CSOs and DPs.

D. Other international conventions, declarations and plans having a bearing on GEWE

Tanzania is also party to a number of other key international conventions, declarations and action plans which have a bearing on gender equality and women’s empowerment. These include:

- The 1951 ILO Convention on Equal Remuneration for work of Equal Value.
- The 1981 ILO Convention on Workers with Family Responsibilities.
- The 2004 Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA).
- The 2008 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development.
- The 2006 UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

2.1 Tanzania’s participation in the regional gender initiatives

E. Africa Union’s (AU) Agenda 2063

Tanzania is party to Agenda 2063, the plan for Africa’s structural transformation by the year 2063. One of the plan’s priorities is inclusive growth and also prioritises a people-centred development and gender equality, which creates the enabling environment for Africans to be part of every development endeavour in the continent, and empowers both men, women, children and the youth to flourish and reach their full potential. Agenda 2063 aspires that by 2063, Africa would have undergone a deepening of the culture of good governance, democratic values (respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law), gender and gender equality in all spheres of life.11

Tanzania has also signed and ratified the following instruments at the regional level:

- The 2004 Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA).
- The 2008 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development.

Tanzania has continued to implement and provide reports on the status of implementation as stipulated in the declarations, conventions and protocols. In 2009, the Government ratified the Protocol to
the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and the Proto-
col to the African Charter on Human and People’s 
Rights and the Establishment of an African Court 
on Human and People’s Rights. This made Tanzania 
one of the first countries to commit itself to pro-
tecting women’s rights as regards land tribunals.

Tanzania’s commitment to regional protocols is 
also an indicator to work towards GEWE aspects 
in their multi-dimensional context. Article 9 of the 
2000 SADC Protocol on Culture, Information and 
Sport, commits member states to cooperate in en-
suring gender equality and equity in the areas of 
culture, information and sport\textsuperscript{12} , while the 1997 
SADC Protocol on Gender established a deadline 
for gender equality in the media by 2015\textsuperscript{13}.

The treaty for the establishment of the East African 
Community (EAC), Articles 5, 3(e); 6(d); 121 and 
122, highlights gender mainstreaming and respect 
for women’s rights as one of the fundamental prin-
ciples that governs the EAC integration process. 
The Treaty also emphasizes the role of women in 
socio-economic development and in business as a 
core issue to the effective cooperation and devel-
opment of the partner states. A protocol on gender 
and development is in the making.\textsuperscript{14}

At the national level, the 2005 NSGD has enabled 
the country to implement all critical areas of the 
BPfA, the outcomes of the 23rd Special Session 
of the General Assembly and the MDGs. This has 
been achieved through the Government enacting 
laws and other stakeholders’ efforts in enhancing 
gender awareness, providing sensitization work-
shops, training and exhibitions, and reviewing the 
curriculum of schools and higher learning institu-
tions. The most effective gender mainstreaming 
is generally considered to have taken place in the 
sectorial policies and strategies for water, educa-
tion and agriculture.

The 2000 Women and Gender Development Poli-
cy and the NSGD prompted the Government and 
various institutions to disaggregate data by sex. 
Most institutions have increasingly realized that it 
is essential to have sex-disaggregated data for deci-
sion-making and planning purposes. The directors 
of planning in ministries have been trained to dis-
aggregate the data in their ministries and this was 
again updated through the outreach of the gen-
der-responsive planning and budgeting workshops 
held in 2011 and 2012 with key sector ministries.

A National Gender Policy, to replace the 2000 Wom-
en and Gender Development Policy is in prepara-
tion in order to incorporate emerging issues, such 
as Gender-Based Violence (GBV), climate change, 
equal representation in decision making bodies as 
well as education, training and employment.
3. Structures and Processes Responsible for Working on Gender Equality

3.1 Government structures

The ministry

In 1992, the Ministry of Community Development, Women’s Affairs and Children was established as the national machinery dealing with women affairs. It was changed to MCDGC in 2000 in order to incorporate the Gender and development concept. From 2016, the ministry is known as the MoHCDGEC. As the national machinery for Mainland Tanzania, the ministry is responsible for spearheading gender equality and the empowerment of women. It coordinates and monitors progress on gender and sensitizes communities on gender equality through around 2,675 Community Development Workers (CDOs) who are located in regional secretariats and local authorities throughout the country.

The MoHCDGEC is a fully fledged ministry with a mandate for overseeing the implementation of Government policies and strategies as well as coordinating and monitoring implementation of these policings for gender equality and women’s empowerment at different levels. In terms of its institutional capacity, the then MCDGC went through two major institutional reviews, the most recent one being the institutional capacity assessment called Forward Looking Analysis Study (FLS) in 2010. The study raised the concern that due to the ministry’s lack of adequate human, financial and technical resources, its capacity needed to be enhanced and the need to engage more in policy work. In responding to recommendations from the FLS as well as the CEDAW committee’s recommendation to provide the national machinery with human and financial resources, Tanzania has established 2,280 posts in the then MCDGC (see Figure 1 for trends in the percentages of posts that have been filled). Moreover, every MDA and LGA has GFPs and some have put in place gender committees. Financial resources to the ministry have been increasing overtime as evidenced by Figure 2. Despite the increase, shortage of community development professionals at the local Government level and financial resources remain inadequate to implement the established activities.
Census and surveys

NBS collects national sex-disaggregated data on the population, health, agriculture and the economy, through censuses and surveys. Time use data were collected for the first time in 2006 through the Integrated Labor Force Survey (ILFS) and have been repeated in the follow up 2014 ILFS. Moreover, most social sectors, especially education, health, public service, the environment, community development and employment, collect sex-disaggregated data.

The MoHCDGEC has also advocated for MDAs to collect, analyze and disseminate sex-disaggregated data and information and to support prioritization of GEWE issues at sector level. GFPs in each ministry are responsible for keeping sex-disaggregated data.

At the Parliament level

Mainland Tanzania’s women parliamentarians’ caucus, called Tanzania Women Parliamentary Group (TWPG) and the Tanzania Cross-Party Platform (TWCP), popularly referred to as ‘Ulingo’, which is made up of political party women’s wings, has enabled women to share experiences and unity, irrespective of their political affiliation, in order to address gender issues and women’s rights in a more focused way in the Parliament. The TWPG’s mission is to facilitate members to become effective legislators and demonstrate leadership in national policy issues and law making, and increase awareness of gender equality and women’s rights issues, and, clamoring for gender-responsive budgets.

Other initiatives

Other initiatives and programmes with a gender equality focus at the national level include the Women Development Fund (WDF), the Tanzania Women’s Bank (TWB), the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) and the Social Action Trust Fund (SATF).

3.2 NGOs/CSOs

The 2002 NGO Policy was formulated to create an enabling environment for the NGOs to operate effectively and efficiently in the social and economic transformation of the country. It also provides an effective means of collaboration between the Government and civil society. The Government recognizes the need to work together with NGOs and the need for consultations which will guide the implementation of various activities pertaining to gender equality and the empowerment of women.

There are currently more than 6,173 NGOs registered under the then MCDGC; an increase from 3,000 in 2011. Figure 3 gives the number of NGOs that have been registered across different levels between 2005 and 2014. Other initiatives include the collaboration in 1995 between Tanzania Media Women’s Association (TAMWA) and UNICEF in releasing a handbook for NGOs titled ‘How to plan for Women’s Empowerment’ which to a certain extent indicates the sector’s longstanding engagement with women’s issues.17

![Figure 3: Number of NGOs registered between 2005 and 2014](attachment:figure3.png)

Sources: United Republic of Tanzania (2015c)
3.3 Academia and research institutions

Mainstreaming gender into institutional policy and practice has been evident in Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs).¹⁸ Some of the progress made includes the establishment of gender units or centres, such as the UDSM’s Gender Centre which has also developed an anti-sexual harassment policy in 2006. The centre is currently being emulated by other institutions. Several institutions have developed gender policies such as the Sokoine University of Agriculture 2002 Gender policy which guide gender mainstreaming, and integrate gender equality concerns in the university’s strategic plans.

Gender analysis has been integrated in teaching curriculum and research agendas in some specializations, such as in the social sciences and humanities, management, law and education, and is being encouraged even in the natural and applied sciences and engineering. The gender training institute of the TGNP and the Bachelor of Arts in Gender Studies at the Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy offer certificates/degrees in gender studies.

Networking and community outreach programmes by HLIs have also been developed to promote the exchange of knowledge on gender issues.

Affirmative actions, including the pre-entry programme for girls pursuing science courses, was adopted in 1997 by the Higher Education Accreditation Committee (HEAC), but later phased out in 2006 following the proliferation of HLIs as it was assumed that girls have a better chance of enrolling in these courses. The Tanzania Education Authority (TEA) also supported these pre-entry programmes for female students to facilitate their enrolment in science and engineering specializations in HLIs.¹⁹ The phasing out of these programmes has slightly affected female enrolment in these specializations.²⁰ The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) is currently in the process of developing a gender policy which is expected to focus on gender-sensitive interventions in HLIs.²¹ Even in the absence of affirmative actions, there is an increasing female enrolment in specialized engineering professions, such as in marine engineering, at the Dar es Salaam Marine Institute. By 2014, the Engineers Registration Board (ERB) had 926 female registered engineers being 7 per cent of the total of 13,148 registered engineers in the country.

Gender analysis is also integrated in research conducted by national research bodies, including REPOA, and the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF). The Tengeru Institute for Community Development (TICD) has established a women’s research and documentation centre, which is a branch of the great lakes regional centre, an offshoot of the International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR). It addresses Sexual and Gender-based Violence (SGBV) and offers a strategic platform for grassroots training and mobilization against SGBV.

3.4 DP’s structures for addressing gender equality

The Gender Mainstreaming Working Group - Macro Policy (GMWG – MP)

GMWG-MP is hosted by the MoHCDGEC, and co-chaired by UN Women as the lead DP on GEWE. The GMWG-MP provides a multi-stakeholder space for dialogue, analysis, priority setting and strategic interventions on policy processes and programmes to enhance GEWE in the context of effective development and dialogue. It forms part of the agreed Government–DP dialogue structure under the development cooperation framework for Tanzania.

GMWG-MP’s functions are guided by the principles of the Paris declaration and consecutive commitments through the Accra agenda for action and the Busan process. It works within the guidelines and policies emanating from the Government and the dialogue structure of the Government and DPs, regulated by the development cooperation frame-
work (which replaced the Joint Assistance Strategy for Tanzania). It brings together the national women’s machinery and sector ministries along with DPs, CSOs and academia. Resources for the GMWG-MP are located in the MoHCDGEC’s medium term expenditure framework with additional advisory and technical support from UN Women.

The group has pioneered the incorporation of gender aspects at the time of NSGRP II and the second Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Zanzibar (MKUZA II) of Zanzibar. Through GMWG-MP, the United Nations (UN) Women has provided technical assistance in disaggregating existing and potential monitoring indicators for the FYDP II. The indicators have been shared with the Government for consideration during the drafting of the FYDP II’s Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) master plan. The group has also facilitated policy dialogues on GBV and gender auditing in the then used to be the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW). The latter led to the review of cost-sharing aspects of maternal health, which in turn led to the introduction of free medical services for pregnant and lactating women.

DPG-GE

DPG-GE is the DPs group side of the dialogue structure with the Government under the development cooperation framework. The group meets monthly and supports gender mainstreaming in development cooperation. Some DPs have recruited full-time gender experts and/or accessed external support to provide technical assistance in this field. The UN Women is the lead agency on gender and co-chairs meetings with a bilateral donor (rotational) that is part of the General Budget Support (GBS) group.

3.5 Financing of gender equality/funding modalities

Concerted efforts have been made by different stakeholders in Tanzania to promote Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) within national and local Government levels. In recent years, the MoFP with UN and European Union (EU) support has led a GRB initiative together with other selected ministries. Several GRB activities have been implemented including, among others, the establishment of a GRB core team within the MoFP to oversee GRB implementation in all sectors and local Government, and to conduct GRB training for other relevant Government actors. Planning and budget officers were trained on how to mainstream gender in their plans and budgets, and other training sessions were held with Government officials, members of Parliament, CSOs and members of the community on gender in macro-economic policy and advocacy. The initiative supported linkages with gender equitable local development efforts and budget tracking, both at the local and national level.

A gender budget statement training manual and a GRB manual were developed. The GRB initiative also supported discussions with the Parliament on the financing of gender equality as well as dialogue on the inclusion of agreed gender equality results during the review of the constitution. The women’s caucus in the Parliament and the parliamentary budget committee are planning for the implementation of gender budget statements. Furthermore, some permanent secretaries, regional heads, GFPs and district council representatives have attended orientation sessions.

The Government has worked with DPs and CSOs, UN Women and TGNP’s gender training institute over many years to provide support to ministries for strengthening accountability and implementing gender equality commitments in the financing decisions and practices of the Government. Women, Law and Development in Africa (WILDAF), TAMWA, REPOA, HakiElimu, and FemAct, an advocacy coalition of CSOs, are important partners in relation to strengthening accountability in this regard. Efforts by CSOs to integrate a gender perspective
in CSOs on accountable public finance is bearing fruit through the public expenditure tracking system and the gender-responsive budget tracking initiative taken by national, district and grassroots groups.  

3.6 Key remaining challenges

Despite much progress over the years, as discussed in the previous sections (and the next sectorial analysis), a number of issues require further attention. These are as follows:

- Despite greater conceptual and theoretical understanding of gender relations and the socialization and social relations, gender mainstreaming has tended to focus more on women, leading to the perception that gender is about women only. This calls for a shift in methodological approach in order to analyse and promote issues from both gender equality and an empowerment of women perspective, to cover the inclusion of men both as agents of change and beneficiaries in the equality work.

- There is also a general tendency to homogenize the categories of women and men. As a result, gender issues receive inadequate examination and limited concerns for special population categories, such as people with disabilities and the elderly, who end up being marginalised in gender analysis.

- Inequalities between rural and urban areas still persist in regard to the capacity of girls and women and their access to education, physical assets including land, and political and economic opportunities.

- MoHCDGEC needs to be strengthened technically and through increased budget allocations. This has to be done in parallel with enhancing a robust structure for GFPs in other ministries through capacity building and training, along with an effective accountability structure.

- Financing GEWE activities remains a challenge and largely donor dependent. The mismatch between policy priorities and budget allocations leads to significant variations in priorities in which sectors give to gender issues in their plans and budgets. Most institutions struggle to quantify and track investments made in gender interventions. This is only recently being addressed through the Public Financial Management Reform (PFMRP). A 2014 rapid gender budget analysis highlights key recommendations for the way forward as part of the roll out of the PFMRP.

Key recommendations

- The knowledge management function for MDAs working on GEWE and donors supporting these activities need to be strengthened. One of the means will be to establish a comprehensive database on GEWE activities and processes and their respective outcomes. The on-going initiatives on this TCGP and sector databases and repositories are a first step in addressing this.

- A comprehensive system of M&E needs to be developed across all levels of implementation (MDAs) and a corresponding reporting system to facilitate updates and reviews to be conducted on a regular basis, or routine data to be compiled continuously and periodically.

- Increasing funds allocation to GEWE activities across all levels of implementation (MDAs).
Women and the economy
Key trends

- The Government in collaboration with non-state actors is continuously investing in means to support women entrepreneurs. They range from skills development, financing, sensitization on land laws etc.

- The overall poverty incidence which has a bearing on the status of women is on the decline; from the basic needs poverty incidence of 34.4 per cent (2007) to 28.2 per cent (2012). Food poverty incidence for female-headed households had declined from 13.4 per cent to 10.4 per cent over the same period.

- However, the agriculture sector which mostly involves women is expanding at a slower rate than sectors which are male dominated. Gender gap in agriculture is a development challenge. By closing the gender gap in agriculture productivity (which stands at 16 per cent), Tanzania will raise its total GDP and agriculture GDP by United States Dollar (US$) 105 million and US$ 85 million per annum respectively. Crop production will rise by 2 per cent and 80,000 people will move out of poverty annually.

- While existing laws e.g. labour laws prohibit any kind of discrimination, the proportion of the unemployed women remains higher than that of men. While youth unemployment rate for boys is on the decline, that of girls is on the rise. Higher proportion of females is in vulnerable employment and into child labour than males.

- In the formal sector, women are earning significantly lower than male employees and they are mostly into low paying occupations. Tanzania remains behind the global average and that of Sub Saharan African on the proportion of females owning enterprises.

- Sexual abuses and gender-based discrimination remain as critical challenges including degrading conditions in the employment fields of domestic works, bar/restaurant which mostly engages women.
4.1 Economic growth

The average economic growth of 7.15 per cent recorded since 2007 has been more than double the average growth of about 3 per cent in the 1980s and 1990s. Such growth rate was well above the 5.62 per cent average for the EAC region and the 4.56 per cent for the Sub-Saharan region and the global average of 2.44 per cent (Figure 5). The per capita GDP increased from TShs 396,154 (or US$ 363.6) in 2004 to TShs 1,730,405 in 2014 (US$ 1,047) and TShs 1,918,928 (US$ 966.5) in 2015. There is potential for further growth, envisaged from the investments in infrastructure, efforts to stabilize power generation, fiscal reforms and the recently discovered natural gas reserves. This would provide more opportunity for the country to meet its commitment to inclusive broad based growth which is enshrined in the FYDP II (2016/17 – 2020/21) and Agenda 2063 which visualizes a people-centred future that is sensitive to gender equality.

4.2 Poverty reduction

At the same time, Mainland Tanzania has successfully managed to reduce poverty, which has a bearing on the status of women. Incidence of basic needs poverty declined from 34.4 per cent in 2007 to 28.2 per cent in 2011/12, which is a 6.2 percentage point decline. Extreme poverty declined by 2.1 percentage points over the same period (from 11.8 per cent to 9.7 per cent).

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Figure 5: Average GDP growth rates 2007-2015

- Rwanda: 7.51%
- Tanzania: 6.67%
- Uganda: 6.27%
- EAC excl. Tanzania: 5.62%
- Kenya: 5.13%
- Sub-Saharan Africa: 4.56%
- Burundi: 3.56%
- World: 2.44%

Source: World Bank’s World Development Indicators (WDI) dataset
Likewise, food poverty declined from 11.8 per cent in 2007 to 9.7 per cent in 2011/12. The difference in poverty levels is significant between the urban and rural population. At one extreme, Dar es Salaam is substantially better off than the rest of the country; at the other, rural households are much poorer than those in urban areas. 1.5 per cent of the poor population live in Dar es Salaam, 14.4 per cent live in other urban areas while over three-quarters of the poor population (84.1 per cent) live in rural areas. According to the 2011/12 Household Budget Survey (HBS), there is a slight difference in the poverty levels between female-headed and male-headed households as reported by both the 2007 HBS and 2011/12 HBS. Figure 6 below illustrates this.

There was a notable decrease in the basic needs poverty rates of the households headed by either males or females. Food poverty had decreased slightly from 13.4 per cent to 10.4 per cent in female-headed households and from 11.4 per cent to 9.6 per cent in male-headed households between 2007 and 2012 (Figure 6). These poverty levels indicate the continued challenges that both men and women face in sustaining their households.

### 4.3 Inclusive broad based growth

Inclusive broad-based growth is challenged by a number of factors. Firstly, is the low productivity growth in labour-intensive sectors. Agriculture employs 66.9 per cent of all those employed, including most of the women (69.9 per cent of women compared to 64.0 per cent men), but the sector grew by just 2.3 per cent in 2015 against 3.4 in 2014. Other sectors which are male-dominated had better performance. Industrial and construction activities grew by 11.2 per cent in 2015 compared with 10.3 per cent in 2014 and service activities grew by 6.9 per cent in 2015 compared to 7.2 per cent in 2014. The services sector had the highest contribution to GDP being 52.0 per cent at current prices, and the contribution of agriculture was just 23.5 per cent. Industry and construction contributed 24.6 per cent in 2015.

The 2014 ILFS shows significant gender divide on labour income, in particular wages. Women who make up 51 per cent of the population, receive salaries that are on average 63 per cent lower than those paid to

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**Figure 6: Basic needs and food poverty lines by sex of household head**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male Headed Households</th>
<th>Female Headed Households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.4%</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2012)*
men, and when women own businesses, they make 2.4 times less profit than men. The proportion of male earning higher than TShs 1.5 million per month is twice (2.5 per cent) than the proportion of females earning such monthly wage (1.2 per cent) (Figure 7). Furthermore, the 2014 shows that the proportion of both males and females earning monthly wage rate between TShs 500,000 – 1,500,000 increased from 2013 to 2014 with males having a higher percentage point difference of 2.5 as compared to females with only 0.4 percentage point difference. Moreover, the cash earning profile shows that there are also gender differences in the distribution of cash earnings between the public and private sectors. The monthly cash average earnings for females is 9.20 per cent and 11.56 per cent less than the earnings of males employees. Several opportunities however, exist. These include benefits from tourism and mining, whose growth has been significant. Tourism (together with travel) has been the leading sector in terms of foreign exchange earnings and the mining sector continues to be expanding (35 per cent expansion in value addition between 2007-2013).

Yet, distributive growth has been a challenge. Local communities adjacent to major tourist attractions remain among the poorest in the country and women’s tourism-related activities do not bring adequate earnings. The recent natural gas discoveries in the country has the potential to significantly increase growth rates once the reserves come on line in the next seven to ten years. The current business climate however remains challenging for the investment and business sectors to bring significant possibilities for the communities. The Government is committed to accelerate economic growth and fight poverty. The recently endorsed FYDP II (2016/17-2020/21) rallies national efforts for the next 5 years to implement development projects that would contribute

Figure 7: Proportion of male and female employees earning high wages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between TShs 500,000 and 1.5 million</th>
<th>Above TShs 1.5 million</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male 17.90%</td>
<td>Male 2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female 10.70%</td>
<td>Female 1.20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
to economic growth and industrialisation, human development and enabling business and investment environment.

### 4.4 Key economic sectors and efforts to promote GEWE

Women’s participation in the key sectors in the economy is significantly close to that of men, except for a few sectors where their participation has been challenged because of cultural dictates, inequalities in education, and skewed decision-making. Inequalities in access to and control over productive resources such as land, and a gender-based division of labour bear on women more negatively.

### 4.5 Labour and employment

In 2014 it is estimated that about 1.2 million people enter the job market annually, an increase from the 800,000 estimated during in 2006. Females and males are employed in a range of occupations. In the year 2014, percentage distribution between female and male differs across a number of occupations (Table 1). Females feature more in agricultural and fishery and elementary occupations whereas most men are into other occupations such as plant and machinery operations, professionals, legislators, administrators and managers. In other words less women are into better paying occupations than men.

Unemployment rate of females is higher (12.3 per cent) compared to that of males (8.2 per cent). Using the national definition of youth, overall youth unemployment rate stands at 11.7 per cent, decreasing from 13.2 per cent in 2006. A significant decrease in youth unemployment is observed among males from 12.1 per cent in 2006 to 8.9 per cent in 2014, while youth unemployment for females has increased from 14.2 per cent to 14.5 per cent over the same period.

Overall youth underemployment rate is 11.9 per cent where the male rate is higher 12.1 per cent than that of female rate with 11.7 per cent. Underemployment of the youths is more severe in the rural areas (13.5 per cent) with more underemployment for males (14.2 per cent) than females (12.8 per cent). It is also evident that, youths are less underemployed in Dar es Salaam (5.5 per cent) compared to other urban areas (10.5 per cent). The 2014 ILFS also shows for instance that high proportion of women are in vulnerable employment than the proportion of men and that more girls are into child labour than boys in Dar es Salaam and other urban areas (Figure 8 and 9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, administrators and managers</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerks</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service workers and shop assistants</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and fishery workers</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related workers</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators and assemblers</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
Figure 8: Proportion of youth in vulnerable employment by sex and location

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)

Figure 9: Gender differences in child labor participation

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
4.5.1.1 Policy and legislative measures

With respect to the public and private sectors, the Government has taken a number of measures to ensure that there are equal opportunities for women and men in the labour market. The 2008 National Employment Policy stresses on the need to create more and better jobs, enhance gender equality, and improve access to employment opportunities by all. One of its policy statements commits the Government that ‘Affirmative action will be undertaken to facilitate easy access to productive employment opportunities among women in both wage and self-employment in Public and Private Sectors.’ The Employment and Labour Relations Act, 2004 emphasizes equality between men and women in employment. Section 7(1) of the Act prohibits discrimination of any kind and Section 7 (4) mentions sex, gender, marital status, age and disability among several factors prohibited to be used as basis for discrimination. The Act has made it mandatory for employers to have an employment policy which specifically states how the workplace will provide for equality in employment in the labour market.

The Labour Institutions Act, 2004 also provides for the formation of a labour, economic and social council some of whose mandates are to advice the Government on the national labour market and prevention and reduction of unemployment. This Act establishes collective bargaining processes for the public and private sector. Trade unions such as the Chama cha Walimu Tanzania (CWT) have used this opportunity to demand for their rights. However, the informal sector on the other hand lacks policies for labour standards, making it open for abuses and exploitation of its workers, women and girls being more vulnerable than others. For example, the right to paid maternity and paternity leave is provided by law for the public and private [formal] sector, but is not so apparent for the informal sector.

Other challenges include lack of social protection, disregard of social codes of practice by some employers [in the private sector] to minimise the negative impact on women’s [and men’s] life situations. On the lack of social protection, the social security schemes membership stands at 2.26 million (2014/15) which is equivalent of a coverage rate of only 11.28 per cent of the employed persons in Tanzania, far below an average of 29.5 per cent for developing countries. Sexual abuses and gender-based discrimination are often reported in the public media. However, most female employees do not report these abuses for fear of reprisals, lack of awareness or confidence. The referral process to the commission mandated to settle labour disputes is seen as gender-blind, specifically as per section 3 of Form CMA F1 used to table such processes. It was claimed that in the listed nature of disputes ‘discrimination’ is generalised and sexual harassment is not mentioned explicitly. It is also complicated for labour officials to keep sex-disaggregated data using such forms.
Monitoring of gender and women’s rights within the medium and small-scale industries in the country which employ more women in line production, such as in processing companies, is currently another significant challenge. Although not much research has been conducted in this area, anecdotal information on lack of contracts, daily payments and lack of social security benefits are affecting women, specifically young, single mothers to realise a satisfactory livelihood for themselves and their children. Trade unions have sought to fight for workers’ rights specifically pressing for an increase in the minimum wage, as well as to protect workers’ rights including paid annual and maternity leave, and other employment benefits. Women are active members but need more opportunities at the leadership and decision-making level to ensure that women’s specific concerns are included in negotiations.

Other types of work as domestic servants, bar or restaurant employees, which engage mostly women and young girls have subjected employees to degrading work. This is because of lack of contracts and reliable systems for appeals. Both are subjected to little pay or no benefits as unskilled, cheap labour. Working conditions are normally very poor, with long hours, no paid leave, and workers often subject to sexual abuse and other forms of harassment. These workers are often subjected to exploitation by their female and male employers, and are often very young.46

But since the labour laws only focus on the formal sector institutions, domestic and bar workers are often left at the mercy of their employers. Poverty and desperation to find employment and gain an income keeps many of them quiet.47 The TGNP policy brief 14.1 reports that work is underway to support the ratification of the domestic worker convention.48

4.5.1.2 Time use and gender differences in paid and unpaid work

Current status in unpaid employment

There are six categories of employment status namely paid employees, self-employed with employees, self-employed without employees, unpaid family helper in non-agriculture, unpaid family helper in agriculture and working on own farm. In 2014, the unpaid family helper in agriculture makes the largest share of the total employed persons in Tanzania (6.91 million people out of the total employed 20.03 million). Among the 6.91 million unpaid family helpers in agriculture, females are more than twice (4.8 million or 69.6 per cent) the number of males (2.1 million or 30.4 per cent) (Figure 10). They also spend more hours in a usual week (51 hours) in such activities than males (49 hours) (Figure 11).

A significant gender gap is also found on the unpaid family helper in non-agriculture informal sector. If the non-agriculture informal sector is considered as the main activity, the proportion of females as unpaid family helper is twice that of male (Figure 12). It is more than three times that of male if non-agriculture informal sector is considered as a secondary activity (Figure 13).
Figure 10: % of male and females engaging in unpaid family helpers in agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.4%</td>
<td>69.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: Mean usual hours worked in main activity in unpaid family activities in agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12: % of males/females in unpaid family helper in non-agriculture informal sector (main activity)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 13: % of males/females in unpaid family helper in non-agriculture informal sector (sec. activity)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
Time use in human activities

Based on the System of National Accounts (SNA) that is commonly used in the computation of GDP data, human activities are categorised in three areas (i) production work\(^4\) (paid or generate income) (ii) unpaid housework or care work and (iii) non-productive or non-work activities.\(^5\) According to 2014 ILFS, a significant gender gap persists in the participation rates in paid and unpaid activities. Whereas 68 per cent of males are engaged in paid production activities, it is 59 per cent for females. For the unpaid human activities, the participation rate for females stands at 89 per cent against 52 per cent for males.

Such gaps reappear in the proportions of days’ time being spent between paid and unpaid activities. According to 2014 ILFS, in a usual day, on average people spend 266 minutes for paid production activities (18.47 per cent), 153 minutes for unpaid house or care work (10.63 per cent), and 1,021 minutes (70.90 per cent) for non-productive activities. Overall, females spent less time in paid production activities (195 minutes per day) than males (342 minutes). On the other hand, females spend more time in unpaid house or care work (238 minutes per day) than males (64 minutes). Moreover, the time spent by females in unpaid house and care activities is inversely related to education levels.

Figure 14 shows the proportion of average time spent in 24 hours (1,440 minutes per day) by female household members disaggregated by age. Four findings are inferred from the figure. First, with an exception of age group 35-64, the proportion of days’ time of the female members of household that is being spent on unpaid activities is the highest than the proportion of time spent on paid activities across all of the remaining five age groups.

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**Figure 14: Proportion of days’ time being spent by females on either paid or unpaid activities by age**

![Figure 14: Proportion of days’ time being spent by females on either paid or unpaid activities by age](source)

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
Second, the proportion of time spent by females on unpaid activities peaked at 21 per cent against the peak of 20 per cent for the proportion of time being spent on paid production activities. Third, despite the proportions of time for both paid and unpaid work for female increasing with age, the proportion of time being spent on unpaid activities had higher percentage point increase (16) if ones move from age group 5-9 to 25-35 years. That increase is higher than the 15 percentage points increase for proportion of days’ time being spent by females on paid activities over the same age groups.

15-24 and 24-35 years, the female members of households are spending larger proportion of their time on unpaid activities than the proportion of time being spent on paid activities. When directly compared to males, the female members of households are spending 21 per cent of their days’ time on unpaid work compared to only 4 per cent for males at the age group 24-35. It reflects the social perception at the household level where males are commonly assigned production activities while house and care works are the responsibilities of females.

4.5.2 Agriculture and land

Agriculture and related sectors (fisheries, livestock and forestry) remain the dominant sectors in the Tanzanian economy. The agriculture sector employs majority of the population, that is 66.3 per cent in 2014 (a decline from 74.7 per cent in 2006), with larger proportion of women 69.4 per cent (a decline from 78.9 per cent in 2006) than male 63.2 per cent (a decline from 70.2 per cent in 2006). Despite the drop in their engagement in the sector, women remain the major contributors of household food requirements. Women are also actively involved in the production of cash crops and in household activities. Most of these jobs involve strenuous, manual and highly time consuming undertakings.

Major challenges affecting agriculture include low productivity of land, poor agricultural inputs, weak producer organizations, depressed prices for primary commodities in global markets and insecurity with respect to property rights to land and its use as collateral for credit; inadequate participation of youth in agriculture and limited involvement of private sector in agricultural development. Women are also disproportionately affected by gender-related aspects which include inadequate skills and knowledge; inequitable access to productive resources, especially land; inappropriate technologies; and inappropriate socio-cultural practices and beliefs.

4.5.2.1 Policies and programmes

The Kilimo Kwanza (agriculture first ) programme, the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy 2006-2015 (ASDS) the Agricultural Sector Development Program (ASDP), Tanzania’s Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and the Southern Agricultural Corridor of Tanzania (SAGGOT) are interventions addressing agriculture productivity in Tanzania. The BRN (rice, maize and sugar cane production largely through out-grower schemes) is the latest approach. Each of these interventions promotes specific gender equity indicators. The interventions are focused on enabling farmers to have better access and use of agricultural knowledge, technologies [including irrigation schemes], marketing systems and infrastructure, storage and to promote private investment.

The 2013 national Agricultural Policy recognizes that gender relations are among the several challenges that hamper agricultural development in the country. The policy for instance acknowledges that the existing land tenure system is not conducive for long-term investment. Insecurity of land tenure has led to decline in the productive capacity of agricultural land because of non-sustainable land use practices, including poor land husbandry practices. The policy commits the Government to ‘promote gender-equitable land tenure governance and seek to eliminate those that are discriminatory or exclusionary.’
4.5.2.2 Gender differences in the division of labour in the agriculture sector

The 2003 small-holder rural agriculture gender profile and the 2010-2011 National Panel Survey (NPS) note that the division of labor disproportionately bears on women in certain agricultural tasks. Figure 15 shows that females dominate 3 out of the 5 types of farming tasks. For instance, as in other sub-Saharan African countries, weeding remains mostly a female task as 64 per cent of this work is accomplished by women. Women’s workload is further burdened by the daily responsibilities of care, collecting fuel wood, fetching water and child care obligations. The intensity of labor is sharper in female-headed households which do not have an adult male.

Women also experience significant levels of exploitation in the value chains of the small-scale livestock keeping and small-scale fisheries production sectors. While both women and men participate in livestock keeping at household level, their tasks are different depending on traditions. In many cases however, women tend to face more challenges than men in accessing and benefi tting from markets, especially formal markets which are not farm gate. This is due to limitations in mobility, time, poverty, or lack of assets that would have facilitated their participation such as communication or market information. Similarly, market-related challenges are faced by women in the fisheries sector, most of whom engage in processing and petty fish mongering. Low prices and lack of technologies have limited their profit margin. Supporting women with appropriate skills, technologies and resources may enhance their situation.

Figure 15: % of work days in agriculture disaggregated by sex

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2011)
4.5.2.3 Gender differences in the ownership of agriculture land

Many women [including rural men] are still vulnerable to land alienation/exclusion which affects their ability to produce. This is despite the fact that the 1995 Land Policy, the Land Laws of 1999, and the subsequent Land Act and Village Land Act provide for women’s rights to land. The policy and legal framework recognizes the dual system of land tenure with customary and statutory rights of occupancy and makes provisions for registration of customary and statutory titles; and, the application of customary practice of inheritance as long as practices are not contrary to the constitution or to the principles of justice. Women are also entitled to acquire title deeds in their own names. Discrimination by the same customary practices is however not uncommon when it comes to the disposal of land by sale or transfer by male patriarchs at the household level. In addition, women [and men] are often vulnerable to land alienation because of state acquisition, or state-supported projects or private businesses. Female headed-households suffer the most in such acquisition.

Different statistics exist on land ownership disaggregated by gender. They all show that women are disadvantageous. For instance, a study on gender and land ownership in Africa reported that only 27 per cent of women were landholders in Tanzania (Figure 16). Separate details from the 2010 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS⁵⁶) established that only 8 per cent of women own land solely on their own, compared to 30 per cent of those who own under sole or joint ownership. In addition, men not only own more plots than women, they also own larger plots with the gender difference in terms of surface owned is even larger. The 2010-11 NPS established that within households, men own about 47 per cent of the land, and mixed ownership reaches almost 37 per cent, but women own only slightly over 15 per cent of the family land (Figure 17).

Transformation in the agricultural sector with a gender dimension is also hampered by inadequate capacity and skills to implement gender mainstreaming provisions at the policy making level. The current placing of the GFPs in the policy and planning division is expected to enhance gender mainstreaming and collection and use of sex disaggregated to support interventions which are gender sensitive. The 2013 International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) study outlines the dearth of sex disaggregated data on land issues which needs to be addressed.

Innovative interventions such as projects working within the TaGAF programme (Tanzania Gender Agriculture Forum⁵⁷); and many others are showing ways in which some challenges can be overcome by addressing the gender issues that limit women’s participation and promote skills development. CSOs continue to put into practice the Land Act of 1999 and the Village and Act of 1999, which stipulates women’s rights to own and dispose of land. Sensitization of women [and men] on the land laws and their rights to land is on-going as Box 1 below illustrates.

More efforts at the grassroots level need to be made along these lines. It is also important to note that women do not only suffer from discriminatory customary land ownership practices, but also by land acquisition due to large-scale economic ventures. The number of land conflicts has increased during the last decade, not only between women and men, but also between small family producers and large-scale commercial enterprises in mining, tourism and agriculture, as well as between cultivators and pastoralists. These conflicts have persisted since inadequate systems for dissemination to reach a wider population on the provisions of the Land Act, 1999 have limited the extent to which people’s perceptions on their land rights and responsibilities would allow them to make demands or negotiate for fair deals, and the majority of women, especially in rural areas, are unaware of the provisions of the Act.⁵⁸
The Pastoral Women’s Council (PWC) of Tanzania founded in 1997 has been trying to look for structural solutions for ending the poverty and marginalisation of pastoralist and agro-pastoralist women and children through leadership skills training, education and facilitating economic empowerment opportunities and to encourage women to openly discuss the positive and negative aspects of their culture, to act on their findings, and to mobilise local efforts and resources. Land and property rights are an important part of PWC’s work. Given the challenging contexts of land access and ownership for pastoral communities, PWC believes that women’s equality will not be advanced by only focussing on technocratic measures to ensure that the law is enforced. Rather, the growing emancipation of women will in large part depend on empowerment through their education and training to collectively organise within their own communities and to take locally appropriate and informed action, including demanding for land.

Box 1: Land for women in pastoralist communities

The Pastoral Women’s Council (PWC) of Tanzania founded in 1997 has been trying to look for structural solutions for ending the poverty and marginalisation of pastoralist and agro-pastoralist women and children through leadership skills training, education and facilitating economic empowerment opportunities and to encourage women to openly discuss the positive and negative aspects of their culture, to act on their findings, and to mobilise local efforts and resources. Land and property rights are an important part of PWC’s work. Given the challenging contexts of land access and ownership for pastoral communities, PWC believes that women’s equality will not be advanced by only focussing on technocratic measures to ensure that the law is enforced. Rather, the growing emancipation of women will in large part depend on empowerment through their education and training to collectively organise within their own communities and to take locally appropriate and informed action, including demanding for land.
4.5.2.4 Gender gap in agriculture

A new study measuring the economic costs of the gender gap in agricultural productivity (measured by the value of agricultural produce per unit of cultivated land) evidence that reducing the gender gap contributes to a number of outcomes. The gender gap in agricultural productivity in Tanzania stands at 16 per cent—Figure 18 (against 28 per cent in Malawi and 13 per cent in Uganda). This gap exists because women frequently have unequal access to key agricultural inputs such as land, labour, knowledge, fertilizer, and improved seeds.

There are a number of benefits associated with addressing the gap in Tanzania. Annual crop output could increase by 2.1 per cent, agricultural GDP by 1.5 per cent (or over US$85 million) and the gross gains to GDP by US$105 million annually (0.46 per cent of GDP). There are poverty reduction gains as well. Closing the gender gap in agricultural productivity has the potential to lift as many as 80,000 people in Tanzania out of poverty and a 0.7 per cent reduction in the incidence of undernourishment, which implies that roughly 80,000 people would be lifted out of malnourishment per year. The benefits are much higher as the estimates did not include additional improvements in agriculture-nutrition linkages and other spill over effects.

There are a number of determinants on the gender gap in agriculture productivity (Figure 19). The figure shows that more than 97 per cent of the gender gap comes from unequal access to male family labour in Tanzania; which is the results of factors such as segregation of tasks, rural women’s limited voice and agency, and lack of access to finance to hire male labour. Another contributor to limited access to male family labour is that majority of the women farm managers, that is 67 per cent, are widowed, separated, or divorced. Given the gender inequality in the ownership of household as-

**Figure 18: Summary of the impact of closing the gender gap in agriculture**

![Image of Figure 18](image-url)

*Source: UN Women, UNDP and World Bank (2015)*
sets, it is quite possible that these women became plot managers entirely because of their head of household status. These high rates of widowhood, separation, and divorce mean that women have fewer people in the household to draw on for farm labour. In Tanzania, the households of female farm managers have an average of one fewer person than all other households.

Closing this gap (access to male family labour) has the potential of raising GDP by over US$102 million per year. Moreover, women farmers are less likely to grow cash crops, and use agriculture inputs such as pesticides and production technology such as agriculture implements. Overall, in Tanzania there is a 12 per cent gender gap between women and men in the application of pesticides and 8 per cent gap in the use of farm implements. Closing these gender gaps has the potential of raising GDP by over US$12 million and US$ 6 million per year respectively.

**4.5.3 Trade, business and manufacturing**

**4.5.3.1 Policies**

The 2003 Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) Policy aims at improving the business environment and enhancing entrepreneurial capacity for women, and elaborates on how this could be achieved. The policy envisages the increasing role of SMEs in employment creation and income generation in the country. In addition to skills enhancement, the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment supports women entrepreneurs’ participation in trade fairs which has increased from 2,000 women entrepreneurs in 2005 to more than 5,000 entrepreneurs in 2013. The exposure gives them marketing confidence, allows them to improve the quality of their products and network.

**4.5.3.2 Interventions in support of women entrepreneurs**

Women’s participation in business and different forms of trade particularly in the SME sub-sector has been significant and increasing over time. One of the reasons is the continued support from the Government, CSOs and DPs to women’s participation in the sector by addressing challenges facing both women and men in the SME sector which have included: (i) low level of working capital (ii) availability and access to affordable credit (iii) availability and access to affordable credit (iii) ac-

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**Figure 19: Determinants to the gender gap in agricultural productivity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DETRMINANTS OF THE GAP</th>
<th>The contribution of the determinants to the gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male family labour</td>
<td>97.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pesticide use</td>
<td>12.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural implements</td>
<td>8.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inorganic fertilizer use</td>
<td>6.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High value crops</td>
<td>3.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UN Women, UNDP and World Bank (2015)
cess to skills training, low exposure (iv) weak competitive edge and marketing challenges and (v) inadequate information.

In line with the recent BRN initiative for the business sector, the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment has instituted measures aiming at engendering the simplification and harmonisation of business regulations which will have a profound impact on women in business. The proposed procedures include; engendering sector licensing policy; and establishment of the business registry. The business portal is responsible to provide a registry of information on all businesses operating within certain areas of jurisdiction and ensure accessibility of such information to all branches and agencies of the Government.

In line with these procedures, the Government has already identified mechanisms for streamlining the licensing process [which will include on-line registration; on-line business licensing; one-stop centre/single window]. Other measures include: making access to finance easier; engendering new labour policies and laws; making access to international trade easier; enforcement of information campaigns and simplifying procedures for registration; engendering trade policies, strategies, programs and projects. These innovations are expected to allow more women entrepreneurs to advance from informal to formal business operators. Such pro-poor measures aim to benefit women [and the youth] who have been comparatively more disadvantaged or cannot take full advantage of opportunities due to historical, socio-cultural limitations, as well as gendered obligations and responsibilities to their families. The biggest challenge however will be reaching effectively to women with low education levels, poor resource and are rural based.

Awareness raising and various forms of capacity building interventions continue to be conducted

![Figure 20: Women engagement in businesses](source: World Bank (2013))
which include the following:

- In 2013, the Tanzania Women Chambers of Commerce (TWCC) in collaboration with the Small Industries Development Organization (SIDO) launched a project to train women entrepreneurs on cross-border trade.

- The Textile Department Unit (TDU) has developed in 2014 a national plan for handloom weaving out of which 23 women have received training. The plan is set to train 65 women by 2015 with a target of reaching 1,872 by 2020.62

Interventions for sensitizing women on compliance to trade regulations and duties have continued; and, gender desks have been established at border points within members of the East African Community (EAC) to ensure that women traders have the relevant information and documents to trade across borders effectively. The establishment of joint border committees that bring together all the authorities involved (Police, customs, immigration, health, agriculture, etc.) is expected to further facilitate for women’s trading rights.

Financing SMEs is another Government intervention which has benefitted women, provided through loan funds such as the National Entrepreneurs Development Fund (NEDF), the Regional Revolving Fund (RRF) and East African Development Bank (SIDO/EADB). The NEDF facility which provides small loans to SMEs benefited 3,276 people, with about 50 per cent of the recipients as well as 47 per cent of the credit given to rural people. Of these beneficiaries, 52 per cent where women who got 46 per cent worth of the disbursed monies. The fund created 6,213 jobs of which 51 per cent were taken up by women.63

Rural women have also benefited from support to the MUVI (Muunganisho wa Ujasiriamali Vijiji-ni [Rural Micro, Small & Medium Enterprise (RMS-MES)] programme, which is coordinated by SIDO. The MUVI programme supports the enhancement of incomes of primary [rural] value chain actors through skills, knowledge and access to market, technology, extension services and other business development services in order to increase household food security and cash income. One of the weaknesses of the national surveys is their limitations in capturing women participation rates whether in the enterprises leadership position or participation in general, mainly because of the inadequate capacity to generate sector-relevant sex disaggregated data for mapping and monitoring purposes. This is irrespective of the emphasis put by sector policies and institutional frameworks to mainstream GEWE related outcomes. The existing World Bank enterprise survey that was carried out in 2013 reveals some data on gender differences in ownership. Figure 20 shows that Tanzania remains behind the global average and that of Sub Saharan African in terms of gender differences in ownership of enterprises. Specifically, Tanzania lags behind Sub-Saharan Africa and global averages across the three criteria of female participation in ownership, management positions and gender differences in ownership majority.

4.5.4 Extractive industries

4.5.4.1 Policy frameworks

The extractive industries in Tanzania offer some promising potential to enhance women’s economic situation if the people-centred, gender equality sensitive policies are put in place and implemented. The extractive industry’s laws, policies and strategies are generally not discriminatory. The 2009 Mineral Policy, the 2015 National Energy Policy and the 2014 Local Content Policy for Oil and Gas contain specific sections or mention gender mainstreaming. However, despite not being discriminatory, the Mining Act (2010) and the Petroleum Act (2015) are gender blind and bear no reference to women’s rights in sectorial activities. Moreover, the effective engagement of women has been challenged by a number of other factors including inadequate equipment and tools, technical assistance,
skills, and access to credit or capital; health safety risks, inadequate knowledge of mining regulations; inability to take advantage of related policies and cultural challenges. Access to training is also a challenge. Shinyanga vocational training centre is the only Technical Vocation and Education and Training (TVET) in the country where courses related to mining are offered.

Women who are employed in the larger companies face difficulties combining family life with being on site for long stretches of time. For the self-employed women who are service providers to the industry (such as food provision) their businesses are constrained by lack of capital, tools and equipment, and weak entrepreneurship and technical skills.

4.5.4.2 Women participation in extractive industry

Currently, women’s participation in the extractive industries is more evident in the Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining (ASM) sector (gold, precious stone mining and stone/sand quarrying). It is estimated that 700,000 people are engaged in ASM among whom 27 per cent are women and that only 10 per cent of the license holders are women. Figure XXX shows that gold absorbs the largest number of men as well as women. However, the share of women is higher in other subsectors; notably salt (38 per cent), diamond (37 per cent) and building materials (32 per cent). Employment in the large mining companies is limited to around 12,000 people, with women constituting a fraction. Energy is a smaller sector compared to mining, but with the recent gas findings, this may shift in the near future. The share of women is also smaller in the energy sector (6 per cent) than in the mining sector (20 per cent).

4.5.4.3 Interventions and programmes

Some of the Government’s support has been through awareness-raising and capacity-building programmes targeting women through the Tanzania Women Miners Association (TAWOMA) and Federation of Miners Association of Tanzania (FEMATA). A small amount of financial grants has been offered to the ASM. Despite beneficiaries of the grants being on the rise (from 11 in during the first phase to 111 in the second phase), the share of women has actually decreased (from 27 per cent first phase to 9 per cent second phase). Therefore, in order to expand the opportunities for women in the extractive industry, there is a need to target women specifically in such programmes.

A number of skills development scholarships have been funded by companies in the industry and benefitted both men and women. They include the British Gas’s (BG) scholarship project administered by the British Council, in which eight Tanzanian students per year pursue postgraduate education at Tanzanian higher education institutions. There is also a BG Tanzania international postgraduate scholarship scheme for geoscience and engineering aiming at Tanzanian graduates who want to complete their postgraduate education in the United Kingdom (UK) and access future employment opportunities in Tanzania’s emerging natural gas and related sectors. Another programme is financed by Statoil a masters degree collaboration between the University of Dar es Salaam and Oslo University where students (male and female) received scholarships with a coursework at the University of Dar es Salaam and part of the lab work in Norway.

Through the 2013 National Natural Gas Policy, the Government is also committed to expand benefits at the household level as well. One proposal is to promote the use of alternative energy sources [gas] for cooking. This may reduce the drudgery of work that women face in fetching fuel wood or cooking using unhealthy stoves. Efforts are ongoing in this area. In July 2014, a natural gas distribution infrastructure project under Tanzania Petroleum Devel-
The Tanzania Petroleum Development Corporation (TPDC) connected 57 homes in Mikocheni area, Dar es Salaam with cooking gas. The challenge remains whether such commitment and resources will reach poor households whose gendered division of labor bears heavily on women even more.

At the same time, it is widely recognized that the extractive industry can be very damaging to the local community in terms, for example, of loss of land and property to the community. Moreover, the arrival of a new population of workers may displace the local labour force as well as introducing new social health problems which impact women more heavily.

4.5.4.4 Earnings differences by gender in the extractive industry

The 2016 study by the UN Women that analysed the data from the 2014 ILFS provides information on average monthly income disaggregated by gender. Table 2 shows that he average monthly income for men and women working in the two sub sectors of 1) Mining and quarrying and 2) Electricity, gas, steam and air condition supply, differed between employed and self-employed, as well as between males and females. On average, the monthly income of employed females is 73.77 per cent and 41.86 per cent of that of employed males in the mining and quarrying subsector. On the other hand, the average monthly income of women employed in electricity, gas, steam and air condition supply is higher compared to that of men.

The recent discovery of oil and gas has expanded new employment opportunities and if proper gender sensitive initiatives are in place, there is then a potential to narrow gender differences in earnings in the extractive industry. Whilst the overall community will be affected the said discoveries, women and men will be impacted differently due to their roles, activities and potential, and access to land, decision-making and technology, etc. Some strategies have been considered to enable both men and women benefit and to be included in all decision-making at the community level and higher. The 2013 Natural Gas Policy addresses these inequalities by putting in place a gender-equitable education and training programme that will ensure the active participation of females in the management of the industry.

4.5.5 Finance

Access to credit facilities in the country has increased over the past decade. Such opportunities targeting women have enabled them to enhance their livelihood statuses and empower them economically. The Government allocates funds for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Average monthly income in the mining and energy subsectors in 2014</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paid employed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining &amp; quarrying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam &amp; air condition supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self employed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining &amp; quarrying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam &amp; air condition supply</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: UN Women (2016) using 2014 ILFS*
women’s programmes and projects aimed at empowering women economically. The WDF, which is a revolving fund, provides women with loans. The amount of loans given to women has risen from TShs 260,000,000 given in 2005 to TShs 1.9 billion in the year 2014. These loans have enabled its beneficiaries to develop small business projects, increase their incomes and access other services for themselves and their families, thereby contributing to a reduction in poverty.

Figure 21 presents trends on the proportion of men and women across different financial access strands. Progress can be noted between 2009 and 2013 for both males and females in terms of using bank products/services. However, the proportion of females using bank products is only 10 per cent against 18 per cent for males. Moreover, while the proportion of females using bank products has increased by 3 percentage points between 2009 and 2013, that of men increased by 6 percentage points over the same period of time. The proportion of females who are financially excluded has significantly declined, but at a lesser pace than the decline on the side of men.

For females, the proportion of financially excluded has declined by 23 percentage points between 2009 and 2013 while that of males declined by 34 percentage points over the same period of time. The TWB, the first Bank of its kind, provides soft loans to women investors and also sells shares to women. The bank also provides women with training that imparts entrepreneurship skills. The Government is committed to provide the Bank with TShs 2 billion annually to increase its capital thereby improving its services. By 2014, the TWB’s capital had increased to TShs 8.75 billion and has continued to provide loan services at low interest rates. By 2015, women beneficiaries had risen to a total of 14,008 which is equivalent to 81.29 per cent of all borrowers, compared to 6,152 women loan beneficiaries back in 2011, which was equivalent to 76.06 per cent.

The TWB seeks to expand its services to all regions. In its first phase of implementing this plan, the Bank opened a branch in the Kariakoo market in Dar es Salaam and has set up 50 loan and entrepreneurship training centres in Dar es Salaam, Dodoma, Mwanza and Manyara regions. In addition, by enlisting on the Dar es Salaam Stock Exchange (DSE) through the Enterprise Growth Market (EGM), the bank is able to sell its shares that will assist in raising its capital.

In the same vein, the Bank has initiated negotiations with social security funds and other relevant stakeholders involved in women’s economic empowerment in a bid to increase its operating capital. The Bank also trained 11,015 women entrepreneurs on how to effectively utilise and repay loans, how to maintain profits and raise capital and the need to legally register their businesses with the relevant state regulatory institutions. In July 2014, the Bank started a new scheme of helping women and small entrepreneurs to acquire residential plots, a project that aimed at helping women secure residential plots with title deeds and have access to loans for the purpose of expanding their business or build houses. The plots could also be used as collateral. In spite of these successes, however, the beneficiaries represent a small proportion of all Tanzanian women.

The Government has promoted rural microfinance services, like community-based savings and credit schemes such as the Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) and revolving funds. The former have been established throughout the country with members setting their own regulations and procedures. Women are encouraged to save in SACCOS and access credit accordingly. A SACCOS member can access two or three times the amount saved.

In 2005 there were 1,620 SACCOS, 48 Savings and Credit Associations (SACAs) and 45 Community-Based Organizations (CBOs). The number of women who are members of SACCOS has in-
creased gradually. There are also Village Community Banks (VICOBAs) and Village Savings and Lending Associations (VSLAs) which provide informal saving and credit services to women and men. Studies on VICOBAs establish their contribution to women’s well-being, promoting a savings culture and a certain level of positive perceptions on their self-worth. The small amount of money that circulates within most VICOBAs has however limited the ability of many of the members in these organizations to achieve significant economic success.

4.6 Key issues and remaining challenges

Despite the several potentials, women participation and benefiting from existing economic opportunities is still limited by a range of social and structural factors. Inadequate gender mainstreaming in the analysis of the economy means that there is limited information and thus understanding of the nature of women’s and men’s engagement including their opportunities and challenges. This has led to, for example, employment insecurity in the private and informal sector to persist, and gender abuses on women and young girls. The changing structure of the economy and issues relating to growth are also not properly grasped. To some extent policy shifts may be in danger of affecting those sectors on which women rely the most. Issues demanding attention include the following:

- Inadequate GEWE-responsive policy and legislation governing key economic sectors such as, employment, property ownership and credit.
- Inadequate gender-disaggregated data in sectors or segments of key economic sectors to reflect the situation of women and gender relations in the sector, and to allow appropriate monitoring.
- Inadequate mainstreaming of gender in planning and budgeting at sector level.
- Inadequate support systems for women to allow them to contribute to and benefit from the economy.
Key recommendations

- Advocacy for an alternative, pro-GEWE and pro-poor economic framework to ensure that inclusive growth, sustainable livelihoods and gender equality and justice for all needs are prioritized.

- Developing strategies for mapping and monitoring of mainstreaming GEWE in the key economic sectors.

- Establishing a gender-sensitive monitoring and reporting framework on employment and unemployment in several sectors of the economy.

- Building capacity and popularizing gender-responsive budgeting in key sectors at the meso and micro level.

- Enhancing the capacities of sector gender units to identify mechanisms or strategies that seek to challenge or change the contexts that perpetuate women [and girls] disadvantage and abuses in the key economic sectors.

- Identifying and promote mechanisms that address gender inequities at household level, including women’s heavy workload, e.g. children care, energy needs, including time-saving infrastructure [and production technologies].

- Specific challenges identified under each sectorial analysis also require attention.
Access to Health care Facilities
Key trends

- The no. of health facilities is on the rise and this has contributed to the reduction of numbers of new-born deaths. From a low base, access to NHIF and CHF is also on the rise and is reversing the cost-sharing provisions that had denied many women access to health services.

- The proportion of pregnant women receiving IPTp is on the rise. However, the proportion of pregnant women sleeping under an ITN is declining. Malaria remains among the major causes of morbidity and mortality both in rural and urban areas.

- Higher proportion of female headed households (11.4 per cent) is food insecure than male headed households (7.2 per cent). Breast feeding is on the rise and child underweight, wasting and stunting are on the decline. The latter, however remains significantly high and less than one-tenth of children aged 6-23 months are meeting the criteria for a minimum acceptable diet.

- The number of new cases of cancer is on the rise with the cervical and breast cancer in women and prostate cancer in men are among the leading non-communicable diseases. Nation-wide screening and diagnosis campaigns are on-going though more efforts are needed.

- The proportion of pregnant women delivering in a health facility is on the rise but less than the set targets. Maternal mortality rate, child, infant and under-5 mortality rates are all on the decline with the MDG target on under-5 mortality achieved.

![Figure 22: Framework of strategic plans guiding the health sector](image-url)
5.1 Health facilities

The number of health facilities is increasing, indicating a positive trend in physical access for people. Table 3 shows that a number of Government’s hospitals has increased from 70 to 104 between 2012/13 and 2013/14 and that of non-Government entities from 109 to 114 over the same period of time. Such expansion is expected to impact mortality rate, although this would also be the result of multiple processes, including social access, i.e. women’s [and men’s] own social and economic circumstances, and the availability of quality health care.

Despite an increase in the number of physical facilities, there is a major gap in the number of health workers at every level, especially in rural areas, along with equipment, medicine, laboratories and other essentials. Working conditions and benefits are especially challenging for Government health workers, especially in rural areas.

5.2 Health sector development strategies

To resolve these challenges, in 2014, the national key result areas in healthcare were introduced in the BRN. The four key result areas include: 1) Human Resources for Health (HRH) interventions that aim to attain 100 per cent balanced distribution of skilled health workers at the primary level in thirteen underserved regions by 2017/18 2) Health commodities that targets 100 per cent stock availability of essential medicines in all primary health facilities in the country 3) Health facility performance management improvement aiming at achieving 80 per cent of primary health facilities at the 3-stars and above rating by 2017/18 in twelve identified priority regions 4) Reproductive Maternal Neonatal Adolescent and Child Health (RMNCAH) services that target 20 per cent reduction in maternal and neonatal mortality rates in five identified priority regions by 2017/18. In addition, the Government launched the Primary Health Care Services Development Programme 2007–2017 (MMAM) which intends to accelerate the provision of primary health care services for all by 2017 by for instance strengthening the health systems, rehabilitation and increasing health sector financing and improving the provision of medicines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dispensary</td>
<td>3,099</td>
<td>4,219</td>
<td>1,312</td>
<td>1,259</td>
<td>4,411</td>
<td>5,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,499</td>
<td>4,739</td>
<td>1,547</td>
<td>1,531</td>
<td>5,046</td>
<td>6,270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2015d)
5.1 Health facilities

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Table 3: Number of health facilities: 2012/13 to 2013/14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government owned</th>
<th>Non-Government owned</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health centre</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispensary</td>
<td>3,099</td>
<td>4,219</td>
<td>1,312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,499</td>
<td>4,739</td>
<td>1,547</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2015d)
5.3 Health insurance

Improving access to health care has been complemented by community-involvement programmes with the establishment of CHF, a voluntary scheme organized under a pre-payment arrangement intended to facilitate easier access to medical care. Another health insurance scheme, the NHIF targets employed persons.

The proportion of population covered by health insurance stands at 20 per cent in 2015 and is on the rise. Figure 23 shows that CHF membership expanded from 474,760 households (corresponding to 3.85 million individual beneficiaries in 2011/12) to 668,903 households (corresponding to 8.39 million individuals by December 2015).

Meanwhile, the membership size of the NHIF has expanded from 641,753 households (2001/02) to 1,398,421 (December 2015). The two figures correspond to 2.50 and 3.34 million individual beneficiaries respectively. By 2015, NHIF and CHF had therefore covered only 7.2 and 12.8 per cent of the population respectively.

The establishment of these health schemes are a revision of the cost-sharing provisions that had denied many women and vulnerable groups access to crucial and timely medical attention, including reproductive care. Their effectiveness is however stained by the lump sum cost, and persistent inadequacy of the services and facilities as is witnessed regularly.

**Figure 23: Increasing NHIF and CHF membership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NHIF (in millions)</th>
<th>CHF (in millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>2012/13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>2012/13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>Beneficiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NHIF (2016)
5.4 Reproductive and child health

The 2013/14 NSGRP II progress report shows that the proportion of pregnant women who delivered in a health facility increased from 50 per cent in 2010 to 59.1 per cent in 2011; further to 60.6 per cent in 2012 before declining marginally to 55.9 per cent in 2013. The latest 2015 Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey – Malaria Indicator Survey (TDHS-MIS) report shows that the rate now stands at 60.2 per cent. These proportions are off track to achieving the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP III) target of 80 per cent by 2015.

The 2015 TDHS-MIS also confirms a decline in child, infant and under-5 mortality rates. The under-5 mortality rate declined from 147 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1999 to 81 deaths in 2010 and 67 death in 2015. Over the same period, the child and infant mortality rate declined as well (Figure 24).

The under-five and infant mortality trajectory indicates that Tanzania is on track to meet the 2015 MDG target for the under-five mortality. However, since services by skilled personnel is still quite challenging, more efforts need to be made to address infant mortality rate.

By 2013, maternal, new-born and child health was receiving a major share of health funds at council level (57.86 per cent). However it is noted that women still encounter multiple factors that affect their access to skilled health care, including the need to get permission from their husbands or other family members (2.4 per cent), not wanting to go alone (10.5 per cent), needing money for treatment (24.1 per cent), and living long distance from a health facility (19.2 per cent). Moreover health facilities often lack well trained and motivated staff, the supply of drugs is inconsistent and the quality of equipment is poor. Utilization of Traditional Birth

Figure 24: Trends in child mortality

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2016b)
Attendants (TBAs) and traditional medicine remain widespread in Tanzania, particularly in rural areas. The 2010/11 NPS reported that the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel in the last 24 months increased from 59 per cent in 2008/09 to 62 per cent in 2010/11 and again to 66 per cent in the 2012/13 NPS. This indicates women’s more awareness or easier access to health care facilities. This trend is consistent with the trend discussed earlier.

Various measures have been taken to improve Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) services. The Reproductive and Child Health Strategy (2004-2008) provided guidelines on appropriate interventions in maternal and childcare. Local communities are involved in building dispensaries and village health centres to increase the number of health facilities to reduce the number of new-born deaths. An essential health package for delivery is provided in village health centres.

The MMR on the other hand also demonstrates a downward trend (Figure 25). The 2012 Census preliminary results on MMR in Tanzania was estimated to be 432 deaths per 100,000 live births. If a comparison is made using the 2004/05 and 2010 TDHS data, MMR declined from 578 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2004/05 to 432 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2012. In other words, for every 1,000 live births four women have died of pregnancy-related causes. A 2014 assessment indicates that this rate has dropped to 410 maternal deaths for every 100,000 live births by 2015 was therefore missed.

### 5.4.1 Sexual and reproductive health of the youth

Sexual and reproductive health of the youth is another major concern. This may be due to the increase in early adolescent sexual activity or abuse, as well as cultural acceptance of early marriages, which is accompanied by high risk of early pregnancies. This also exposes the youth to early contracting HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI). Socio-economic factors, such as poverty, globalization, lack of alternative livelihood choices, drug abuse, and traditional and cultural norms are contributory factors to sexual abuse. In 2010, the prevalence of sexual abuse among Mainland Tanzania youth was found to be 36.95 per cent, with the rate being higher among male youth (56.26 per cent), in secondary school pupils (97.62 per cent) and primary school pupils (50.41 per cent).

### 5.4.2 Pregnancy related complications and obstetric fistula

The prevalence of fistula is usually a result of lack of access to adequate emergency obstetric care for women of all ages, with specific vulnerability to young girls. Fistula has been a source of sham-
women, insecurity and constraining them to achieve a dignified life socially and economically. The campaign for the prevention of fistula and care for fistula patients was led by Women’s Dignity Organization. Currently UNFPA, the Comprehensive Community Based Rehabilitation in Tanzania (CCBRT), a network of medical practitioners and policy makers in Government and civil society are helping to raise public awareness of the condition and encouraging affected women to seek treatment. An innovative mobile phone programme, the M-Pesa referral programme funded by Vodafone and UNFPA is helping fistula survivors to access treatment. More advocacy and support needs to be made on the ‘community ambassadors’ who are grassroots-based individuals to reach women with fistula.

The 2010 TDHS shows that despite only 51 women out of 10,139 female respondents (less than 1 per cent) reported having experienced a fistula, a very large sample as well as more detailed methods of probing is required to draw a meaningful conclusion on the occurrence of fistula in the population.

5.5 Malaria

Malaria remains a major health concern especially for pregnant women and children under the age of 5. It is a major cause of morbidity and mortality both in rural and urban areas. The 2015 TDHS-MIS shows that 54.5 per cent of children under age 5 are sleeping under an ITN a decline from the 2011/12 THMIS where the percentage was 78 per cent. The percentage of pregnant women sleeping under an ITN is also on the decline from 75 per cent in 2011/12 THMIS to 53.9 per cent in 2015 TDHS-MIS. While there is no much difference between the urban areas (53.0 per cent) and the rural areas (51.5 per cent), pregnant women in wealthier households are more likely to use ITN than poor households (Figure 26).

The National Malaria Medium-Term Strategic Plan 2008-2013 was meant to reduce the burden of Malaria by 80 per cent where in 2011, Artemisinin-Based Combination Therapies (ACT) was promoted as the first-line drug for treatment of malaria. In-door residual spraying was also adopted as one of the measures to address this challenge. The Hati Punguzo programme, was a Government programme which provided subsidized access to ITN for pregnant women with a voucher to access these nets at their first Antenatal Care (ANC) visit. This programme also benefited women who had had a live birth in the past 5 years. The programme was expanded to include all households under the 2010 Under-5 Catch-up Campaign (U5CC), and was phased out in 2011.

Pregnant women are advised to receive IPTp. Records show that the rate of women’s acceptance of IPTp increased since 2004/05 TDHS. For instance, in 2015, the proportion of pregnant women who received 1 or more doses of SP/Fansidar was 68.3 per cent (from 53.3 per cent during 2004/05 TDHS). Women in urban areas and those with secondary
education were seen to be more likely to receive IPTp, indicating that education and wealth has a positive impact to women’s health status. Figure 27 evidences the use of IPTp correlates positively with wealth levels.

5.6 Awareness of non-communicable diseases

Increasing awareness of non-communicable diseases among men and women is an added health and socio-economic challenge in Tanzania. Cervical and breast cancer in women and prostate cancer in men are among the leading diseases. Cervical cancer is reported to be the leading cause of morbidity and mortality in women in Tanzania. The number of new cancer cases attending Ocean Road Cancer Institute (ORCI) has been increasing progressively as can be seen in Table 4.

The 2011/12 THMIS shows that Tanzania has one of the highest cervical cancer incidences in the world and the highest in East Africa ‘with an Age Standardized Incidence Rate (ASR) of 50.9 cases per 100,000 women and an age-standardized mortality rate of 37.5 per 100,000 women.’ Not surprisingly, while 80.7 per cent of urban women and 61.1 per cent of rural women admitted that they had heard of cervical cancer, only 14.7 per cent of urban and 17.1 per cent of rural women had spoken to anyone about cancer during their visit to any health facility in the period under study. Cancer prevention and control programmes are not well developed due to limited funding. In addition, research on the cultural and social implications of the prevalence of non-communicable diseases is not well developed.
The Medical Women’s Association of Tanzania (MEWATA) has increased the nation’s awareness of women’s cancer through nation-wide screening and diagnosis campaigns and medical attention. More efforts need to be made to establish the causes of cancer and mechanisms for addressing both women’s and men’s pro-activeness in terms of timely screening for healthy living.

In response to this growing scourge, the Government has opened 64 cervical cancer screening centres in the regions of Lindi (3), Mtwara (6), Ruvuma (3), Mara (4), Tanga (2), Mbeya (10), Mwanza (5), Tabora (5), Njombe (1), Dar es Salaam (11), Arusha (1), Singida (2), Dodoma (3), Morogoro (1), Iringa (3), Shinyanga (2), and two centers in Zanzibar. In addition the Government has equipped these centres with screening facilities and have trained 213 service providers on their use.

Prostate cancer is also on the increase, even though it is reported at a lower rate than breast or cervical cancer. As in cervical cancer, cultural factors still constrain men and women from being open to discussing cancer, preventing them from obtaining information and going for timely screening and diagnosis.

### 5.7 Food security and nutrition

#### 5.7.1 Food security

The Government recognizes that in order to attain a food secure nation, it is imperative to promote a number of interrelated factors which include food crop production, distribution and marketing, the quality of food preparation, processing and storage, and other intervening factors such as improved health status, education, employment and incomes. In 2010-11, around 730,000 households (or 8.3 per cent of all households) in Tanzania were classified as having Poor Dietary Intake (PDI), that is, they are food insecure (vulnerable to food insecurity). Of these, around 150,000 households (or 1.7 per cent of all households) were considered chronically food insecure. The zones with the highest rates of chronic food insecurity were central (4.9 per cent), and lake (3.8 per cent). In terms of sex disaggregated information, 11.4 per cent of female headed households were classified as having a poor dietary intake compared with 7.2 per cent of male headed households. This was a slight decrease from the 2008-09 estimates which were 13.6 per cent and 8.9 per cent for female and male headed households respectively.

#### 5.7.2 Nutrition

Poor dietary intake has caused significant levels of stunting among the population, although recent data shows that there are positive trends in nutrition levels in the country. Between 2010 and 2014, child underweight fell from 16.2 per cent to 13.4 per cent, child stunting fell from 42.5 per cent to 34.7 per cent, and child wasting fell from 4.9 per cent to 3.8 per cent. Poverty, poor feeding habits and illness are among the factors limiting many women’s capacities to provide the desired care for

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**Table 4: New cancer case distribution [selected types] 2006-2013**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cervical cancer</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>1510</td>
<td>1769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast Cancer</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostate cancer</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ORCI (2014)
children which in turn affect health outcomes for children.

Breastfeeding is beneficial for infant nutrition in the first 6 months of life. The 2015 TDHS-MIS shows that 59 per cent of infants under 6 months are exclusively breastfed, an increase from the 2010 TDHS (50 per cent) and from 2004-05 (41 per cent). Thirty-nine per cent of children under age 6 months were given something other than exclusively breast milk. Figure 28 shows the percentage of children being fed the minimum acceptable diet, by age. The situation is challenging as less than one-tenth of children age 6-23 months (8 per cent) are meeting the criteria for a minimum acceptable diet.

Prevalence of anaemia is also a challenging condition for both children and women. Anaemia is an outcome of low levels of haemoglobin (iron deficiency) and is a serious concern for children because it can impair cognitive development, stunted growth and increase morbidity from infectious diseases. Overall, 57.6 per cent of children are suffering from some degree of anaemia; 26.4 per cent were classified as mildly anaemic, 29.5 per cent were moderate anaemic and 16 per cent severely anaemic. Among women age 15-49; 44.7 per cent has anaemia; majority of these women were mildly anaemic (about 32.7 per cent of all women).

According to the 2015/16 TDH-MIS regions with the highest proportion of women with anaemia include Shinyanga (59.4 per cent-women; 70.9 per cent-children) Mwanza (55.4 per cent-women; 62.6 per cent-children) Kigoma (54.2 per cent-women; 67.2 per cent-children), Dar es Salaam (53.1 per cent-women; 59.5 per cent-children). Moreover, the regions of Geita (68.1 per cent) and Morogoro (65.7 per cent) have high prevalence of anaemia for children.
5.7.3 Key challenges: Food security and nutrition

The main reasons given for household food insecurity are related to inadequate food stocks because of adverse weather; the high costs of food; lack of money; lack of farm inputs; small land size; crop pests and other reasons such as poor crop marketing systems. The number of dependents per household also exposes the household to food insecurity. Rural women with low level of education, inadequate resources and limited opportunities for diversifying livelihoods seem to be the most vulnerable to food insecurity that consequently has a negative impact on the health status of their children. Household heads who never attended school are also more likely to belong to food insecure households than their educated counterparts. This is partly because of limited awareness of the requirements for a healthy diet, food hygiene, food preparation and preservation methods.

Other issues leading to food insecurity and poor nutrition include, low availability of nutritious foods; inadequate exposure to nutritious feeding practices; limited access to community development extension, and the vulnerability of rural communities to natural disasters and other shocks coupled by a lack of a comprehensive social protection system to support households during adversity.  

Food security is also increasingly at risk as a result of competing demands for land, water, labor and income between smallholder agriculture and larger economic investments. In these cases, poor households often lack viable alternative livelihoods to compensate adequately for the loss of land and eventually lose their ability to have enough food.

5.7.4 Measures to address food insecurity and poor nutrition

Agricultural productivity is thus of the highest priority related to attainment of food security. Interventions in the sector are intended to improve people’s access and use of agricultural knowledge, technologies, marketing systems and infrastructure, storage and therefore have a direct impact on household food security. The Tanzania Agriculture and Food Security Investment Plan (TAFSIP) 2011/12–2020/21 is a sector-wide approach aimed at coordinating and harmonising the resources needed to implement initiatives that would address issues confronting agriculture and food security in the country.

Community-based measures to improve the quality of food and nutrition so as to enhance human health and development have been taken. These include raising awareness of proper infant feeding practices and income-generation strategies during ANC visits. However, what is required is a more concerted multi-sectorial approach to address the challenges of making a reasonable living that many people face. Given the multiple labor burdens which women bear, they often lack the time and energy required to prepare nutritious meals for their families and themselves. This leads to monotonous menus, a lack of variety in the choice of vegetables, and over-cooked food lacking the original nutrients.

The National Nutrition Strategy (2011/12-2015/16) prioritized eight key areas whose outcomes touch on improving maternal, infant and young child nutrition. These areas are infant and young child feeding; vitamin and mineral deficiencies; maternal and child malnutrition; nutrition and HIV and AIDS; children, women and households in difficult circumstances; diet-related non-communicable diseases, household food security, and nutrition surveillance, surveys and information management.

5.8 Key issues and remaining challenges

The health sector is still one of the key GEWE areas demanding continued transformation. Health-related indicators show that access to health care for many women is improving, possibly as a result of
enhanced awareness and more access to health-care services. Sensitization on HIV/AIDS has resulted in more women being able to make decisions about their sexuality. However, many of the well designed GEWE strategies implemented in this sector have been impeded by a low budget, persistent cultural issues, poverty and inadequate information on and access to care. Specific issues deserving attention include:

- Lack of a comprehensive programme for RCH is limiting women’s access to quality and timely basic health care, contributing to high MMR.

- Inadequate mechanisms for addressing youth’s and adolescents’ sexual and reproductive health interests.

- Poverty and socio-culturally based factors limit achievement of the 3-zeros in HIV and AIDS.

- Inadequate monitoring of the effectiveness of CHF and NHIF is affecting access and the cost of health care.

- Culturally-based silence is affecting women’s and men’s access to health care and early diagnosis.

- Inadequate mechanisms to address food security and nutrition from a comprehensive approach.

Key recommendations

- Advocating for and ensuring that an appropriate share of the national budget is allocated to the health sector, and especially to public RCH facilities in order to expand access to quality RCH services.

- Enhancing the comprehensive RHC programme by integrating household and community-based education programmes on gender and nutrition/food security.

- Scaling up and strengthening youth and adolescent-friendly SRH education.

- Scaling up the multi-stakeholder response at community level to reduce women’s risk to exposure to HIV/AIDS, including Violence against Women (VAW).

- Scaling up the early detection of and screening for cervical, breast and prostate cancer in the country. Investing in outreach services in the regions/districts for early detection/screening of cancer.

- Establishing a multi-sectorial platform which addresses the key issues confronting food insecurity and nutrition.
HIV and AIDS
Key trends

- Tanzania is experiencing a declining HIV prevalence among males and females. However, the prevalence among women remains nearly twice (6.2 per cent) that of men (3.8 per cent).

- The percentage of HIV positives peaked at the age group 35-39 for men (7.1 per cent infected) while for women the peak is later in life at 40-49 years (10.2 per cent).

- Sexually abused women continue to have access to Post-Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) and counselling. There is also an increasing acceptance of the PMTCT by both men and women.

- The proportion of HIV-infected women receiving ARV for PMTCT has increased from 34 per cent (2008) to 73 per cent (2013).

- Married couples are increasingly becoming vulnerable to HIV from extramarital sex with both women and men having multiple relationships. Extramarital sex was reported by 26.4 per cent of married men and 3.2 per cent of married women.

- Maternal and child health clinics continue to provide sensitization to women and men on HIV and AIDS when they visit the clinics. There is also an increasing coverage of advocacy and community-based interventions to address HIV/AIDS related issues affecting men and women e.g. on home-based care.

Figure 29: Framework of strategic plans guiding the HIV related interventions

- Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT)
- National Council for People Living with HIV and AIDS (NAOPHA)
- Multi-sectoral AIDS Committees at all levels of the LGAs
6.1 Prevalence rates

In addition to its implications on the overall socio-economic development of the country, HIV and AIDS have significant gender-related implications on the productive and reproductive age group in society, particularly the 20 to 49 age group. The 2011/12 Tanzania HIV and Malaria Indicator Survey (THMIS) shows a slight decrease in HIV prevalence among males and females to 5.1 per cent from 5.7 per cent recorded in 2007-08, with the prevalence among women nearly twice (6.2 per cent) that of men (3.8 per cent). Table 5 shows that despite the overall decline in prevalence rate, the rate of decline for men is twice that of women (0.8 percentage point decline for men compared to 0.4 for women).

The percentage of HIV positives peaked at the age group 35-39 for men (7.1 per cent infected) while for women the peak is later in life at 40-49 years (10.2 per cent). The difference in prevalence by population groups is also quite significant among divorcees and within the 23-24 year olds where the prevalence among women in these groups features sharply higher (Table 5). Several reasons are associated with the differences in HIV prevalence by sex and age. Key among these are:

- Gender-based inequality in making decisions about sex and sexuality
- Inequality in resource ownership and poverty
- Access to required and timely education and sensitization
- Girls/women engaging in sexual activity and marry at a younger age than boys/men; with their sexual partners being older, and more likely to have multiple sex partners
- Sexual violence based on age and sex factors
- Early sexual debut increased from 4 per cent 2004/05 TDHS to 18 per cent 2010 TDHS among secondary schoolgirls and those in higher education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5: Prevalence of HIV among population categories</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Prevalence by age group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence (15-49 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence – Youth (20-22 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence – Youth (23-24 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence by marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trends in HIV Testing and counselling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% ever tested and received results (15-49 years)</td>
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Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
Women continue to have higher prevalence rate even when the rate is disaggregated by regions. Overall, eight regions in Mainland Tanzania have HIV prevalence higher than the national average. Regions with the highest prevalence also have a high prevalence of HIV+ women. Some of these include Njombe – 14.8 per cent (15.4 per cent females versus 14.2 per cent men); Iringa – 9.1 per cent (10.9 per cent females versus 6.9 per cent men); and Mbeya – 9.1 per cent (11.0 per cent females versus 6.7 per cent men). Despite the overall success that the country has achieved in controlling the spread of HIV, there is increasing concern on the risk to HIV especially among the youth and women because of poverty and sexual abuses. Targeted interventions to address the vulnerabilities of these groups are thus imperative.

6.2 Measures to contain HIV/AIDS

6.2.1 Treatment

Antiretroviral drugs (ARVs) are provided free of charge for People Living with HIV and AIDS (PLHAs). Around 400,000 AIDS persons are reached by ARV services. As of June 2012, 626,444 PLHAs obtained ARVs. Women who have been sexually abused also have access to PEP in all health facilities as long as they report. Counsellors have been trained to counsel people living with HIV and AIDS who are provided with medical, psychological and social care. The right to health and HIV prevention is also advocated for people of all walks of life, ages and contexts, including key populations.

The Government has introduced programmes such as the PMTCT. By December 2011, 96 per cent of the Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) facilities had integrated PMTCT, and an estimated 64 per cent HIV+ mothers had received ARVs for PMTCT, 76 per cent of whom had accessed early infant feeding, counselling and Early Infant Diagnosis (EID) services that had been extended to more than 1,520 facilities, ensuring that 21 per cent of HIV-exposed infants access EID. Proportion of HIV-infected women receiving ARV prophylaxis for PMTCT increased from 34 per cent in 2008 to 73 per cent in 2013. Counselling and the increasing acceptance of PMTCT by men and women have also allowed some PLHIV to have families and children without fear of medical concerns for their children.

6.2.2 Community sensitization campaigns

There has been wide coverage in terms of advocacy or community-based interventions to address these many health issues affecting men and women, many of which are related to inequalities in gender relations. For example, the mass media and electronic media have been instrumental in sensitizing communities on the need for men, women, adolescents and the youth to change behaviour, confront harmful cultural practices and inform women and men to adopt desired health seeking behaviours. The peer group technique has been instrumental in making youth aware on HIV and AIDS and sexual health issues. Public education programmes are in place for women and other vulnerable groups. Radio adverts on multiple, concurrent partners ‘Tuko wangapi’ – ‘Baki Njia Kuu’ to give awareness on HIV have been quite popular.

The community has also been sensitized on home-based care. As a result, HIV and AIDS patients are now taken care of at home by relatives. This has however increased women’s and the elderly’s burden of care as they are traditionally the carers of the sick and orphaned children from AIDS (see section 4.0 on women participation rate and time spent on unpaid house and care activities). The demands are many: additional needs for water, laundering, bathing the patients, providing medicine, feeding, house cleaning and so on.

Maternal and child health clinics also provide sensitization to women and men on HIV and AIDS when they visit the clinics. The TBAs, who are active where there are insufficient modern facilities, have also been trained on HIV. A study in 2010 established that some TBAs are aware of HIV and
AIDS and many take precautions in the case of assisting delivery by demanding to be given protective gloves.\textsuperscript{102}

However, despite extensive sensitization and awareness raising, health challenges prevail including the fact that HIV infection is taking new forms. Moreover, conventional understandings of the most vulnerable persons are changing as well. Married couples are increasingly becoming vulnerable to HIV especially from extramarital sex with both women and men having multiple relationships. Extramarital sex was reported by 26.4 per cent of married men and 3.2 per cent of married women. Of those with multiple sexual partners, only 27.8 per cent of men and 27.3 per cent of women used a condom the last time they had sexual intercourse. The proportion of women who reported using a condom during last sexual intercourse (among women who had 2+ partners) is lower than the proportion of men reported the same in both urban and rural areas (Figure 30). The poor women are more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS as the proportion being discussed declines as ones move from highest wealth quintile to the lowest (Figure 31). For instance, while 40.3 per cent of the women with multiple partners in the highest wealth quintile use condoms, it is only 21.1 per cent of women in the lowest wealth quintile.

6.2.3 Male circumcision

Male circumcision which has been associated with a lower risk of HIV transmission from women to men was another effective Government intervention. In collaboration with partners, in 2010, Tanzania implemented the Sub-Saharan Africa’s first high-volume Voluntary Medical Male Circumcision Campaign (VMCC), circumcising 10,352 clients at just five sites in 36 days. Of those circumcised, 99

![Figure 30: % of women used a condom during last sexual intercourse (women who had 2+ partners)](image)

**Source:** United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
per cent were also tested for HIV and learned of their HIV status—the highest acceptance rate in all VMMC programmes internationally. In 2012, the latest campaign served 25,840 clients in two regions in only six weeks under the Maternal and Child Health Integrated Program (MCHIP)/VMMC programme in Tanzania. Regions reporting the lowest level of male circumcision are Rukwa (28 per cent), Simiyu (30 per cent) and Shinyanga (32 per cent), which is significantly lower than the national average of 71.9 per cent. The national VMMC strategy therefore targets males between the ages of 10–34 years, who comprise 42.7 per cent of male population, in regions with high HIV prevalence and low male circumcision prevalence (Iringa, Njombe, Mbeya, Rukwa, Katavi, Shinyanga, Geita, Mara, Mwanza, Tabora, Simiyu, Kagera: 12 of the 30 Tanzanian regions). Despite its cultural meanings, and issues regarding masculinity, the response has been encouraging.

The HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 2008 provided for the protection of people from wilful transmission of HIV/AIDS. It states that any person knowing he/she is infected with HIV shall imme-

![Figure 31: % of women who used a condom during last sexual intercourse (among women who had 2+ partners) disaggregated by wealth](source: United Republic of Tanzania (2012a))
Gender and Education
Key trends

- The national budget for the education sector has been increasing in nominal and real terms. It is on the rise in nominal terms from TShs 3.47 trillion (2014/15) to TShs 3.87 (2015/16) and TShs 4.77 trillion (2016/17). However, its share of the overall national budget has been declining over the past three years.

- Gender parity has been achieved in pre-primary and primary education with girls featuring slightly more than boys in pre-primary and primary (GER) and NER in pre-primary.

- However, gender differences rise sharply when moving to the secondary and higher education. For example, the GER and NER for girls are half that of boys in the higher secondary education and females comprise 38.5 per cent of the total enrolment in TVET colleges. Enrolment of female students in higher education is on the rise—reflected by the growing number of universities and colleges.

- Each year there has been outstanding performance of female students in both Form IV and Form VI. However, male students performed better in science subjects than female students. Completion rate of females in the lower secondary education is lower than that of male indicates that more females are entering the labour force with lower qualifications than males.

- Adult literacy rate is higher for male (83.4 per cent) than that of female (73.3 per cent). However, the proportion of female who are literate has increased at a higher percentage points (11.1) (between 2002 and 2012) compared to 5.9 percentage point increase for males.

Figure 32: Framework of strategic plans guiding the economy
7.1 Education policies and legal frameworks

Tanzania recognizes the critical role that education and training play in enhancing human capital. Equitable access to education and training by sex and other social circumstances, such as disability and socio-economic location, has massive development ramifications in terms of poverty reduction, enhanced dignity, balanced population growth and children’s welfare. Equity in access (enrolment), retention and achievement in quality education and training have thus been ingrained in the country’s development philosophy since independence. Ensuring that women and girls have equal access to education and skills development is thus imperative. Tanzania has ratified the following international instruments that provide for the rights of people to education.

- The 1960 Convention against Discrimination in Education.
- The 1989 Convention on Technical and Vocational Education.
- The 2008 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development.

At the national level, key development strategies have a strong emphasis on gender equality. One of the five attributes of Vision 2025 is to achieve a well-educated and learned society whose people are ingrained with a developmental mindset and competitive spirit. It is envisaged that promoting education that is directed at solving the country’s problems and meeting the needs for women, men and children, will bring the country’s development into a strong position in the region and the world.

The recently introduced FYDP II has specific intervention area on human development where the education sector is considered as ‘essential for economic transformation by providing skills and generation of technology and workforce that can be deployed to change country’s endowments from comparative advantages to competitive advantages’.

The new 2014 Education and Training Policy (ETP) carries forward the policy objectives of the predecessor 1995 ETP and reflects a ‘beyond primary education’ philosophy, strong emphasis on quality learning and intends to achieve the BRN performance indicators. One of its major provisions is to make basic education run from primary education to lower secondary education. The Education Act of 1978 and the Universities Act of 2005 provide for the establishment of private universities and colleges. The 1998 higher education policy continues to direct the running of HLIIs, some of its objectives being to correct gender imbalance in enrolment and improve female participation rates in science, mathematics and technology. During the financial year 2016/17, the MoESTVT is planning to introduce 5-year education sector development programme 2016/17 – 2020/21 as part of the efforts to implement the 2014 ETP. The current 2008-2017 Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) spearheaded the implementation of the two five-year phases of the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), the first from 2002 to 2006 and the second (PEDP II) from 2007 to 2011. ESDP also spearheaded the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) whose second phase is expected to end in 2016. All these programmes contained gender equity strategies.

Directed by this policy framework and vision, the education and training sector has thus continued to expand, embracing the multi-stakeholder investment approach (Government, community and pri-
vate sector), which has improved access through a growing number of facilities at all levels, giving more chances for females. The sector has also been given an increased budget from TShs 3.47 trillion in 2014/15 to TShs 3.87 in 2015/16 and TShs 4.77 trillion in 2016/17. Despite the absolute increase in financial resources being allocated to the education sector, the share of such sectorial resources to the overall national budget has been declining overtime, from 19.4 per cent (2014/15) to 17.2 per cent (2015/16) and 16.1 per cent (2016/17). It implies that the sector is absorbing less share of the resources that are increasing at the national level.

7.2 Gender equality in the primary and secondary education

7.2.1 Enrolment rates

Guided by PEDP, enrolment in primary schools achieved gender parity since 2009. Figure 33 reports on gender differences, from pre-primary, primary to secondary education (lower and higher secondary education). Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for 2014 indicates that girls feature slightly more than boys in pre-primary and primary, being 40.6 per cent to 39.9 per cent and 94.6 per cent to 92.0 per cent respectively. The same is for the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) in pre-primary but not in primary education (Figure 34). Major gender differences are observed when ones move to lower and higher secondary education. The GER and

The SEDP was introduced with the view of absorbing more students in secondary education. This intervention has yielded results in that the number of students in secondary schools increased from 261,896 in 2000 to 1,804,056 in 2013. Overall, the number of female students in the lower secondary schools (Form I-IV) increased from 775,106 in 2011 to 840,211 in 2013. However, the number of female students enrolled in the higher secondary education (Form V-VI) declined from 27,448 in 2011 to 24,654 in 2013, making it 32.6 per cent of the higher secondary total enrolment in 2013. Several challenges at the primary education level are however affecting the progress of both male and female pupils. They include inadequate attention by teachers due to the unproportional teacher-pupil ratio and acute shortage of classrooms and teachers’ facilities in Government primary schools, and there has been a shortage of pupil’s desks for a long time. Some schools reporting a pupils-classroom ratio of 1:158 which is a gross deviation from the approved national average of 1:40. Regional variations in facilities, in particular the pupils-classroom ratio is displayed in Figure 35. The pit latrine ratio for male students was 1:53 in 2013 against the approved ratio of 1:25, and for female pupils it was 1:51 against the required 1:20. This is critical for the performance of girls.
Figure 33: Gender differences in GER in 2014

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2015e)

Figure 34: Gender differences in NER in 2014

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2015e)
7.2.2 Completion and pass rates

Completion and pass rates have traditionally been the key indicators of retention trends and entry into further education and for future career paths for both males and females. The pass rate has continued to be low for some time. The Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) pass rate was 58.3 per cent in 2011, before plummeting to 30.7 per cent in 2012, prompting the Government to launch the BRN to address the issue. In 2014, the pass rate was 57.0 per cent.

Figure 36 shows that even though the proportion of girls completing primary schools is higher than the proportion of boys, the transition rate to secondary education is higher for boys than girls, that is, 72.0 per cent to 64.1 per cent. The gross completion rates for lower secondary (Form IV) illustrates an increasingly higher completion rate among male than female students. The gross completion rate was 39.0 per cent (male students) and 33.1 per cent (female students) and 46.5 per cent (male) and 38.5 per cent (female) in 2010 and 2013, respectively. The lower completion rate of females indicates that more females are labour force with lower qualifications than males.

The trend in the pass rate for Form IV fluctuated between 2003 and 2012, with a downward trend of 91.5 per cent in 2004 to 42.9 per cent in 2013.\(^\text{111}\) The performance was lowest in basic mathematics, for example, 11.34 per cent in 2012. Although each year there has been outstanding performance of female students in both Form IV and Form VI, on the overall, male students performed better in science subjects than female students.\(^\text{112}\) Teacher education programmes are being reviewed to enable them to nurture students’ competence in science and mathematics, since they usually perform poorly in these subjects and in the 3Rs. It is not clear how such a review will entail gender-sensitive pedagogy that promotes girls’ confidence in learning. This aspect needs to be pursued further. Several inter-related factors are mentioned as the reasons leading to this sex-skewed performance. They include, gender-insensitive instructional practices by teachers\(^\text{113}\) and inadequate time for studying for girls than it is for boys.
Female student retention

Female student retention in secondary schools is another major gender equality set back as shown by the number of dropouts. A summary on the reasons for dropping out of school illustrates that female students are affected on an almost equal basis with male students in all aspects. Truancy leads with 71.3 per cent of the causes for drop outs (Figure 37). Retention [through a re-entry programme] for female students who have had to cut short their education because of pregnancy has now been approved by the 2014 ETP. Truancy as a reason for dropping out of school camouflage other gender-based issues, such as sexuality and the reproductive role of girls, child labor in petty trade, or tending livestock for boys.

Schoolgirl pregnancies make on average 11.1 per cent of the total causes, indicating an added blow to girls’ life situations (Figure 37). Schoolgirl pregnancies are largely attributed to the household poverty and poor schooling infrastructure. The lack of dormitories, for example, has exposed young girls to coerced sexual activity and hence getting pregnant. The Government is addressing this challenge by embarking on construction of dormitories for the more isolated schools in an effort to support the schooling of girls. Other programmes focus on enhancing the life skills of girls and boys to enable them to cope with growing-up challenges.
The TUSEME programme, initiated by the UDSM in 1996 and based on the model of empowering female students through ‘speaking out’, is still one of the best examples of adolescent-focused interventions that could be replicated to facilitate, for instance, female students retention. Since its conception in 1996, it is estimated that over 80,000 male and female students have benefited from its model, and many teachers and parents acknowledge its positive impact on behaviour (Box 2).

The TUSEME programme, initiated by the UDSM in 1996 and based on the model of empowering female students through ‘speaking out’, is still one of the best examples of adolescent-focused interventions that could be replicated to facilitate, for instance, female students retention. Since its conception in 1996, it is estimated that over 80,000 male and female students have benefited from its model, and many teachers and parents acknowledge its positive impact on behaviour (Box 2).

Box 2: Impact of TUSEME

The TUSEME model was mainstreamed into Tanzania’s Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) of 2000-2009 and replicated in 237 secondary schools and 3 centres of excellence to date. More than 600 secondary school teachers and 17,600 secondary school students have been trained since 2004. The model was by 2012 expanded to primary schools in 21 districts. TUSEME has resulted in enhancing girls’ and boys’ self-confidence, and social and academic development. Improvement has also been noted in girls’ self-esteem, and leadership, social and life skills while offering mutual support for positive action. Teachers who have been involved in the TUSEME process have changed their attitude to girls and a significant reduction in sexual harassment has been observed.

7.3 TVET

Females comprised 38.5 per cent of the total enrolment in TVET training colleges in 2014. Their enrolment was higher than that of male trainees in the courses in health and allied sciences, planning and welfare, but less in the courses in agriculture and natural resource management, business and management and engineering and other sciences. This differentiation in enrolment by sex is partly an outcome of socialization, and the nature of availability of opportunities which influence the choice of courses to pursue. Increasingly however, females are entering traditionally male-dominated professions such as mechanics, construction works and the like.

Folk and vocational education training institutions also had an impressive number of females enrolled between 2008 and 2012. Box 3 the MAMA programme by the Ministry of Labour which raised enrolment into folk education initiatives.

The overall enrolment rose from 29,646 (females) and 36,152 (males) in 2008 to 67,139 (females) and 78,372 (males) in 2012. Female trainees’ presence is overwhelmingly higher in the courses in business administration (74.1 per cent), clothing and textiles (90.7 per cent) and hospitality and tourism (68.8 per cent). Females comprised of only 15.6 per cent of the trainees in automotive technology in 2012, illustrating lower participation of females in those fields traditionally dominated by men.
7.4 Higher education

7.4.1 Enrolment

Higher education in Tanzania, which is provided after the completion of higher secondary education or its equivalent, is currently targeted for its envisaged role in revolutionizing thinking and skill-building to improve their livelihoods. The programme offers courses in vocational training, life skills, entrepreneurship, and child-care. Through these training courses and advocacy, the programme is raising awareness about women’s rights in society. The project raises public awareness at the national level and works to accomplish a change in attitude and behaviour at the local level to improve legislation that protects the rights of girls and young women who become pregnant while in school. KTA works in collaboration with the MoHCDGEC and other partners. The number of beneficiaries of this project has increased from 60 in 2005 to 449 by 2014.

An increase in the number of women completing higher education is reflected by the growing number of universities and colleges which increased from 19 universities in 2005 to 50 public and private universities and colleges in 2014. Enrolment in universities and university colleges between 2008/09 and 2012/13 increased by 113.7 per cent from 95,525 students to 204,175, with female students making up 36.5 per cent (Table 6). Female students in non-degree courses are slightly higher than those in degree courses, being 39.6 per cent and 35.2 per cent, respectively.

Distance learning is another opportunity for women to enter higher education. The establishment of the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) in 1992, continues to provide access to higher education for females otherwise challenged by family, work or other obligations. Although gender disparity is evident, female enrolment in OUT increased from 6,768 in 2008/09 to 18,372 in 2012/13. This increasing rate of female enrolment in OUT has also been given impetus by the requirements for career advancement, such as promotion criteria in the Government service, career advancement and competitiveness in the labour market.

Gender sensitivity in HLIs is strategized by giving priority to female students in accommodation on campus or collaborating with communities to provide hostel facilities in the vicinity of institutions. Student gender clubs have also been established for gender awareness and networking. Many academic institutions have established gender units, gender policies and/or GFP whose mandate is to oversee gender issues such as sexual harassment in their respective institutions.

However, affirmative action, which was instrumental in increasing the number and proportion of females enrolled in science and engineering specializations, has been phased out. This includes the Pre-entry criteria for females pursuing science specializations which had been supported by the TEA. Ardhi University and a number of technical colleges including the Dar es Salaam Technical Institute (DTI) benefited from the initiative. These programmes were geared to enabling females to better compete in the changing labour-demanding
market of science, technology, business and industry.

### 7.4.2 Gender and curriculum at HLIs

The higher education curriculum is also continuously being reviewed to include courses and subjects on gender. Full degree programmes in gender studies are provided by the Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy (MNMA) [BA gender studies], UDSM [masters in gender studies] and an MA gender studies programme is in the pipeline by OUT. Gender studies are combined with training in community development at the TICD and the TCU has recently undertaken a project (the TIMBE project) aiming at improving the orientation of business studies offered by universities to the demands of the labour market. The project has a strong gender mainstreaming component, and has established a framework for business alignment resulting in strategic partnerships with the private sector. Medical schools’ curriculum has been reviewed to include mandatory gender-sensitive courses, and training materials have been developed and provided for tutors. The planned development of TCU gender policy is expected to direct and inform of more meaningful interventions on gender in HLIs.

### 7.4.3 Access to students loans

The Higher Education Students’ Loans Board (HESLB) continues to provide loans for students in both public and private institutions. The number of students given loans by the HESLB rose from 93,176 in 2011/12 to 98,772 in 2013 from both public and private HLIs. Priority students are those enrolling in science and engineering-related courses, teacher education and health and allied sciences. Priority is also given to students from low-income families, including orphans who are assessed through means testing. Instructors joining HLIs (tutorial assistants) are also supported for their master degree courses. The HESLB does not have a female priority clause in granting loans.

### 7.5 Adult literacy

According to the 2012 census report, the adult literacy rate was 78.1 per cent in 2012, with a higher proportion of male (83.4 per cent) than that of female (73.3 per cent). However, the proportion of female who are literate have increased at a higher percentage points (11.1) between 2002 and 2012 compared to 5.9 percentage point increase for males over the same period. The enrolment in the Integrated Community-based Adult Education (ICBAE) programmes which intended to raise literacy rate for adults and out of school youth, is low indicating that many people lack the basic skills and literacy, to enable them to engage profitably for their own livelihood enhancement and societal development. It is likely that many of these will be women given their added caring responsibilities in the care economy.

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**Table 6: Enrolment trends in higher education by sex 2008/2009 - 2012/2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>31,012</td>
<td>42,239</td>
<td>51,860</td>
<td>60,592</td>
<td>74,498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>64,513</td>
<td>76,712</td>
<td>87,778</td>
<td>105,992</td>
<td>129,677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95,525</td>
<td>118,951</td>
<td>140,638</td>
<td>166,584</td>
<td>204,175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Females</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2014)*
7.6 Key issues and remaining challenges

Many achievements have been realized in gender parity access to education, in particular the enrolment rates in pre-primary and primary schools. This is an important achievement because increasingly more women are becoming more informed and confident in making their own decisions and their families’ lives. However, a number of challenges persist:

- Retention and achievement rates at all levels are still a major challenge, while there are also challenges in mainstreaming gender in the learning process.

- Inadequate resources are affecting the quality of schools’ infrastructure and impact the status of female students more than that of male students. Poor facilities and a lack of a conducive environment for teaching and learning in many schools is also demoralizing students and teachers.

- Female enrolment in the Sciences, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) from higher secondary level up to higher education is still low. Reasons include the abolishment of special pre-entry programmes for female students in some universities; competing professions are better paid and are less ‘onerous’ as so many students opt for them. Such features are pulling females with excellent performance in science subjects out of the science profession.

- The low catchment base at secondary school and tertiary levels is an outcome of the low rate of retention and poor performance also contribute to low female enrolment at higher levels.

- Gender as an analytical concept, despite its strong emphasis in teaching and research, still suffers from the narrow definition of gender being synonymous with women.

Key recommendations

- Establishing mechanisms that would enhance the willingness and participation of local communities to invest in child care and education facilities at pre-primary education level.

- Investing in work and accommodation facilities for teachers to promote quality in teaching.

- Up-scaling the multi-sectorial platforms that address the girl student. Revitalising the TUSEME programme that supports female students’ empowerment using a holistic approach – education, sexuality, adolescence and voice.

- Promoting informal education programmes for girls and women that are community-based to promote literacy.

- Improve gender-sensitive pedagogy that may encourage girls to pursue and excel in STEM programmes through innovative industry-based learning, and positive role modeling through special incentives for female science teachers and active female characters in science textbooks.

- Take affirmative action to enhance girls’ participation in school to ensure gender parity at post-primary levels by targeting infrastructural impediments to girls’ access. For example, re-introduce the female quota in the central administrative system process with the TCU to improve female enrolment in HLIs.
Women participation, representation in politics and decision making
Key trends

- The number of women in various leadership positions is on the rise. Women’s participation in Parliament increased from 16.7 per cent (1995) to 22.6 per cent (in 2000) and 30.4 per cent in 2005 to 36 per cent in 2010 and 37 per cent in 2015. However, the increase is mostly driven by Temporary Special Measures (TSM) as provided in the constitution.

- In recent years, it is not uncommon for key public entities to be headed by women. It is the same in the key political positions within the central Government (e.g. vice presidency) and in the Parliament (e.g. deputy speaker position).

- Despite such progress, women representation is still low, particularly in political positions at the LGA level. During the 2015 election, only 5 per cent of the elected district councillors were women. Women are also grossly under-represented from the top leadership of almost all political parties. This is largely because of the male-dominated decision-making process in political parties and gender-insensitive screening criteria.

- Programmes have been put in place to promote gender equality in leadership and women’s participation in decision-making. Among others are the training and mentoring programmes for women candidates and women elected to public office.

Figure 38: Framework of strategic plans to support women engagement in leadership
8. WOMEN PARTICIPATION, REPRESENTATION IN POLITICS AND DECISION MAKING

8.1 Women in leadership and decision-making

Women constitute more than half of the population in Tanzania (that is 51.38 per cent of the population). However their participation and representation in key leadership positions, governance and decision-making organs is significantly lower than that of their male counterparts in Government, parastatal organizations and private institutions. For example the proportion of female directors in ministries stands at only 30.9 per cent in 2015. The proportion is much lower at the LGA level were only 17.8 per cent of the heads of departments in district councils are women.

However, the number of women in various leadership positions has been increasing progressively in most key leadership positions as a result of implementing several affirmative actions and various regional and international conventions and resolutions that emphasize gender equality. Figure 39 presents the leadership positions where the average number of women in such positions has increased between 2005-2010 and 2011-2016. Key public entities such as the National Institute for Medical Research (NIMR); NBS; National Economic Empowerment Council (NEEC), Social Security Regulatory Authority (SSRA) and the Tanzania Meteorological Agency (TMA) are headed by women. Three out of forty banks in the country are also headed by women.

Figure 39: Average no. of women leaders have been increasing

![Diagram showing the increase in average number of women leaders](image-url)
8.2 Political leadership

Prominent political positions held by women include the Speaker of the 2010-2015 Tanzania national assembly, the Hon. Anne Makinda, the Deputy Speaker of the Special Constituent Assembly on the constitutional Review, Hon. Samia Suluhu Hassan and the Deputy Speaker of the current national assembly. The vice presidency’s position is for the first time being held by a woman, Ho, Samia Suluhu Hassan.

In the 2010-2015 union Parliament, 126 (36 per cent) out of 357 members of Parliament were women who were drawn from current sitting women parliamentarians (elected and special seats). The 36 percentage of female members in Parliament made Tanzania as one of 20 countries in the world that have reached or surpassed the 30 per cent mark for women’s representation in Parliament and it ranks 5th on the continent and 20th in the world according to IPU data. It is to be noted that women MPs’ fate is determined by their political party hierarchy that is heavily dominated by men. Elective seats are almost exclusively occupied by men. Thus out of 264 constituency seats in the 2015 elections, only 26 were won by women.

Overall, women’s participation in Parliament increased from 16.7 per cent (1995) to 22.6 per cent (in 2000) and 30.4 per cent in 2005 to 36 per cent in 2010 and 37 per cent in 2015. Although the number of women Parliamentarians in Tanzania has continued to grow steadily, it is mostly through the route of Temporary Special Measures (TSM) as provided in the constitution. Out of 139 female Members of Parliament in 2016, 112 are through reserved seats, 26 came from constituencies and to have been appointed by the President. Table 7 also shows progress in terms of women vying for parliamentary seats. A total of 190 women contested for parliamentary seats in 2010. The number went up to 239 women during the 2015 election. Figure 40-43 presents the 2015 distribution of elected and special seats female members of Parliament across political parties.

Women’s representation in political positions at LGA level is low. During the 2015 general elections, only 5 per cent of elected district councillors were women (see Figure 4-5 for the distribution of elected and the proportion of elected women councillors). Moreover, the number of women who were nominated by their political parties during the 2005 and 2010 general elections was only 5.8 per cent and 7.1 per cent respectively. This is a major shortcoming for the overall democratic process.
Despite the increased women’s participation in the Parliament through the current democratic process, women are grossly under-represented from top leadership of almost all political parties. The Secretary General of the Democratic Party (DP) is a woman; Civic United Front (CUF) has a woman as Deputy Secretary General, and National Convention for Construction and Reform – Mageuzi (NC- CR-Mageuzi) has a woman as Vice Chairman who was elected in 2014. Even CCM, the oldest political party has not had a woman in its top leadership position indicating the deeply entrenched gender bias in political leadership despite commitments made to respect gender equality.

Both women and men have the right to vote and the right to stand for elections. However, the experience is that most women aspirants are screened...
and dropped from contesting for positions at the level of their political parties. This is largely because of the male-dominated decision-making process in these parties and gender-insensitive screening criteria. Those few who managed to get through are left with little or no party support ending up with insufficient votes to be elected.¹²⁶

### 8.3 Participation in voting

Voter education and civic education is essential in order to change the patriarchal attitudes of voters who prefer to vote for male candidates over women.¹²⁷ However women’s participation in voting is usually significant in campaigns and even in the actual voting in elections.¹²⁸

Sex disaggregated data for participation in election shows that during the 2015 election, 51 per cent of the registered voters were women (11.7 million) and the remaining 49 per cent were men (11.0 million). Also women in the older age group surpassed men participation rate (55 per cent women versus 45 per cent men) and young women were also more active (52 per cent) against young men (48 per cent). More details are presented in Table 8.

However, CSOs and CBOs in Tanzania must improve citizen engagement and advocacy campaigns. CSOs and CBOs must be empowered to effectively demand transparency and accountability in the use of public resources. To date, despite national policies encouraging civil society participation, the Government’s draft open government partnership self-assessment report observes that ‘civil society and private sector participation has been relatively low’.¹²⁹

### 8.4 Strategies for strengthening women’s participation in leadership

Tanzania has implemented various programmes to promote gender equality in leadership and women’s participation in decision-making. These include targeted training and mentoring programmes for women candidates and women elected to public office. In particular, the Government through President’s Office—Public Service Management (PO-PSM) has established mentoring programmes for women employed in public service. In 2012 the programme was delivered to 55 women engaged in different positions in the public service.¹³⁰

There has also been continued progress towards promoting gender parity and women’s empowerment in the public sector. These efforts have enabled the upward mobility in terms of decision making of a significant number of women in the country. For example, in 2004, a total of 1,147,268 women were employed in the public sector (i.e. 40 per cent) though only 14 per cent of them held senior positions. Measures taken by the Government to address this imbalance include introducing para 12(4) of the 2002 Public Service Regulations, which states that ‘where a man and a woman are equally competent, preference should be given to a woman.

The proposed constitution, if passed, would establish a 50-50 representation of women and men in the Parliament. In order to achieve this objective, mentoring and capacity building steps are currently been taken to enable more women gain confidence, skills and resources to enter into these competitions.¹³¹ Women’s representation in community-based or grassroots decision-making structures has also been provided by laws in major sectors. Amendment No. 4 of 2000 in Section 35 of the Local Government District Authorities Act 1982 introduced affirmative action for women’s representation in local Government bodies, by which a third of district council members have to be women. The same applies to urban wards. At the village level, women must constitute 25 per cent of the village council which normally has 15-25 members. Key community-based structures for resource management do have, by policy, women representation. These include village land allocation committees, Beach Management Units (BMUs), wildlife management areas committees and water users.
committees to mention a few.

Community structures and platforms are the key entry point for promoting GEWE at the community level. Additionally, achieving GEWE requires the support of the village leadership and the community. Community leaders, influential individuals (village elders, faith-based leaders, etc.) and community resource persons (community volunteers) have the ability to influence community perspectives and perceptions of gender and women’s empowerment issues such, as reducing GBV.132

8.5 Key issues and remaining challenges

Tanzania has made significant strides in terms of women’s representation on decision-making organs. However, despite the concerted interventions to improve women’s participation and representation in politics and decision making, their representation is still low (in Government, parastatal organizations and private institutions). Civic education to enhance their awareness and engagement in decision making in matters that concern their lives has been widespread and may have had an impact on their readiness to vote. This is not the same in vying for political positions. Among the key issues contributing to this include the following:

• Patriarchal ideology and its systems still have a strong influence on women’s effective participation in decision-making at all levels (household to national Government) and affects the democratic process overall.

• Inadequate awareness and enforcement of the Election Act (2010) which constrains women from enjoying the right to make a claim in the incidence of a violation during the electoral process. Hence many simply shy away from contesting.

• Weaknesses exist in institutional mechanisms for promoting GEWE in decision-making structures, within political parties, and across platforms that exist at the grassroots level.

Key recommendations

• Enhancing and up-scaling existing mentoring and coaching policies and programmes on political representation of females at all levels.

• Institutionalizing gender-sensitive voter education and civic education in grassroots leadership structures. This may require developing monitoring and other accountability mechanisms through the elections regulations.

• Reviewing and improving the institutional mechanism for coordinating the mainstreaming of GEWE in leadership and representation from grassroots structures to the national level.
Gender-Based Violence
Key trends

- Multi-sectoral response to GBV in Tanzania has enabled a multi-dimensional intervention strategy that links different institutions, systems and processes. More women are now breaking the silence, defying customs and traditions by increasingly reporting incidences of GBV and sextortion.

- However, GBV remains as one of the most pervasive forms of abuse in Tanzania. One-third of Tanzanian women have experienced physical violence, while a tenth of women have experienced sexual intercourse against their will.

- FGM is one of the major forms of GBV in the country with a prevalence rate of 14.6 per cent. There have been prosecutions of persons carrying out FGM. However, the fear of prosecution is driving the practice underground with limited law enforcement.

- Women are increasingly accessing legal aid run by different organisations. However, the backlog in the justice system and unprofessional handling of sexual violence are affecting women in accessing their rights.

- Early marriage remains a critical development challenge with the prevalence rate of above 30 per cent in 15 regions. Child sexual abuse is also a problem and abuse of younger boys in schools is becoming a great concern.

- Increasing reported incidents of SGBV in refugee camps, with 96 per cent of all reported incidents affecting women and girls. The most common type of SGBV is denial of resources. Intimate partner violence continues to be the most reported case.

- Increased staffing, establishment of outreach tents, increased outreach of referral services (legal clinics, medical, shelter and security) are making it easier for refugees to report incidents of SGBV.

Figure 44: Framework of strategic plans to address GBV

![Framework of strategic plans to address GBV](image-url)
9. GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

9.1 Policies and legal frameworks addressing GBV

GBV is currently one of the most pervasive forms of abuse of the rights of women, men and children in Tanzania. According to the 2010 TDHS, one-third of every Tanzanian women aged 15 to 49 experienced physical violence in the preceding 12 months of the survey. Moreover, about two-fifths of women in the 15 to 49 age range experienced physical violence in Tanzania since their 15th birthday. A tenth of women aged 15 to 49 in Tanzania experienced sexual intercourse against their will. Sexual violence in Tanzania is usually experienced from a person in close contact with the woman or a girl. GBV affects both men and boys, and women and girls, but more to women of all ages and socio-economic contexts.

GBV in Tanzania is also experienced in multiple forms [at different levels and in different contexts] by causes that reflect its intersectional content [multiple and simultaneous factors and processes]. GBV has serious health consequences and sometimes results in permanent physical disability and psycho-social/emotional disorder and it is imperative that it should be confronted.

Tanzania is committed to fighting GBV and observes the following international and regional protocols: 1985 CEDAW, 1995 BPfA; African Charter on Human and People’s Rights and the Rights of Women, and the SADC Protocol on gender. Due to its multi-dimensional nature, at the national level, GBV and Violence Against Children (VAC) is addressed as a cross-cutting phenomenon touching national development strategies, the constitution and several sectoral policies. Key among these are the following:

- The constitution 1977: Article 13:6(e) stipulates that ‘no person shall be subjected to torture or inhuman or degrading punishment or treatment.’
- The 2000 Gender and Women Development policy.
- National management guidelines for health sector prevention and response to GBV.
- National guidelines for the Integration and Operationalization of one stop centres for GBV and VAC services in health facilities.
- 2013 GBV medical management guidelines by the MoHCDGEC.
- GBV policy guidelines for a multi-sectorial response to GBV.

9.2 Prevalence of GBV

Major forms of GBV in the country include intimate-partner violence (which occurs within intimate relationships), such as marital unions, and may entail the denial or curtailing of rights, beatings and harassment; sexual violence (rape and child molestation, or coerced/unwanted sexual act or intentions - sextortion); FGM, often referred to as female genital cutting, early child marriage (involving under-age girls and to a lesser extent boys); and human trafficking and sex slavery.
Intimate partner violence is significantly pervasive. Forty-four per cent of married women reported to have experienced physical or sexual violence by their current or most recent husband or partner in 2010, and 37 per cent of married women experienced such spousal violence in the past 12 months. More than six of ten women involved in spousal physical or sexual violence have suffered injuries. Physical disability as a result of GBV is also evident as reported by the Police Force and the media. Figure 19 highlights an increasing number of reported cases of GBV over the past few years.

The same MCDGC’s report further desegregates the types of violence which are individually presented by Figure 45. For instance, the reported cases of rape increased from 5,948 in 2011 to 6,028 cases in 2014. Data on cases reported in Dar es Salaam alone illustrate how widespread the phenomenon is in the country. In 2012 the number of cases was 1,035, which rose to 1,086 in 2013 and in 2014 there were 1,089 reported cases of rape. Of the many forms of GBV, rape is considered as the gravest. This analysis is based on reported incidents only and it is not indicative of prevalence of GBV. The figures however reflect one trend, that is, an increasing ‘reporting’ of incidences of GBV.

Men also experience intimate-partner violence. In the 2010 TDHS, 2.4 per cent of women admitted that they had violently attacked their [then] current or most recent husband/partner, the level being higher for urban than for rural women, and was seen to be higher in Lindi and Iringa regions. Two per cent admitted that they carried out their violent attack in retaliation for their male partner’s violence. Altogether, however, women and children are at a disproportionately high risk of physical, sexual and psychological violence, especially by an intimate person or a person they know and trust.

The 2010 TDHS also notes that half of the women who suffered physical or sexual violence (47 per cent) did not seek help to end the violence, and over a third refrained from seeking assistance and did not tell anybody about the experience. This is mostly due to socialization, but it is also contributed by the frustration in reporting and accessing justice that victims experience in the process of reporting. At the same time, the incidence of crime relating to sexual violence and GBV is significant and is increasingly being reported by the media. As people gain more confidence to handle traumatizing experiences, the rate of rape in the country is becoming more evident. There is also the feeling, however, that the rate of reporting on rape is still lower than the actual number of incidences because of the stigma attached to it or the circumstances in which many cases of rape occur.

CSO-led interventions have been instrumental in empowering women and men to speak against violence against women. The TUNAWEZA campaign is one of these interventions (Box 4).

**Box 4: TUNAWEZA – We can end VAW campaign**

TUNAWEZA – ‘WE CAN CAMPAIGN’ to end VAW was launched in 2008 in Tanzania by WLAC and collaborating organizations with the goal ‘to reduce the social acceptance of VAW, particularly domestic violence, by creating an environment in which VAW is not tolerated and in which all people work towards the shared goal of its eradication. The campaign creates a platform of activism through mobilizing ‘change makers’ who are men and women to pursue its three major objectives: (i) To create a fundamental shift in social attitudes and beliefs that support VAW (ii) To create a collective and visible stand by different segments of the society against VAW (iii) To build a popular social movement made up of a range of local and national alliances, partnerships and networks working towards ending VAW in Tanzania.
9.3 Reasons behind GBV

Studies are increasingly debating the reason for GBV. Some men and women believe that a man can abuse a woman simply because of inequality in social power. Fifty four per cent of women and 38 per cent of men aged 15 to 49 believed that a husband is justified in beating his wife for certain reasons. These statistics have slightly dropped compared with the 2004/05 TDHS (where it was noted that 61 per cent of women accepted a wife’s beating). Because of socialization, more women than men stated that it is acceptable for a man to beat his wife, although this may be taken as the obvious public response that people respond when asked to give an opinion. Paralegal campaigns indicate that more women are speaking out against violence but may not want to report it if it involves an intimate partner. In 2013, 27 per cent of married or cohabiting women aged 15-49 who experienced physical or sexual violence from a male intimate partner indicated that the likelihood of women acquiring HIV through GBV is a significant threat.

9.4 Sexual violence perpetrated on children

This is also a serious problem and has become one of the country’s biggest concerns with regard to GBV. The VAC study in 2011 established that ‘nearly 3 out of every 10 females aged 13 to 24 in Tanzania reported experiencing at least one incident of sexual violence before turning 18’. Among males in the same age group, 13.4 per cent reported experiencing at least one incident of sexual violence prior to the age of 18. The most common form of sexual violence experienced by both females and males before the age of 18 was sexual touching, followed by attempted sexual intercourse. Many girls between the age of 13 and 17 have also been subjected to sexual coercion, being enticed with small gifts in exchange for sex. Child sexual abuse is reported to result in serious psychological problems, with some victims reporting poorer mental health and sometimes poorer physical health than their peers. Sexual violence on female youth sometimes leads to unwanted pregnancies, early motherhood and the associated health [physiological and psychological] complications, and social and economic challenges that affect the youths’ progress. Reports in the media on abuse of the boy child are becoming more frequent as society tries to address it. Often the abuse has been on-going for some time, and families or neighbours remain ‘silent’ on the incidences, and so perpetrators are protected by this silence. Abuse of younger boys in institutions such as in schools is also becoming a great concern for parents.

9.5 Sextortion

The coercion of sexual favors from women is another form of GBV which is reported in workplaces and is more common in those occupations whose terms of contract depend almost entirely on the owner. Employment and labor regulations prohibit any form of discrimination in formal work places but the process is engulfed with challenges. Women in informal occupations such as in bar, restaurants and other such facilities suffer the most. Box 5 explains the extent to which women are coming forward to reveal incidents of sextortion.

9.6 FGM

FGM is a remnant of rituals associated with the rite of passage that were practiced in many communities in Tanzania. According to the 2010 TDHS, the estimated prevalence of FGM in girls and women (15-49 years) is 14.6 per cent, the same prevalence rate as in the 2004/05 TDHS. The 2010 TDHS shows that regions with the highest prevalence include Manyara (70.8 per cent), Dodoma (63.8 per cent), Arusha (58.6 per cent), Singida (51.0 per cent) and Mara (39.9 per cent). It is estimated that 7.9 million women and girls in Tanzania have undergone FGM. It is also reported that the age of circumcision has
Box 5: Sexortion

Women at the workplace continue to be harassed and discriminated against because of their absence in leadership positions; and for this reason, [men] take advantage using sex as a corruption tool. In 2013, a senior judge mentioned that there were over 60 cases of sextortion in the courts of law, showing that more women were coming out of the closet. She explained that ‘this figure some years ago was unheard of as those whose rights have been violated lived in fear’. Though the fear still exists, increased advocacy has helped more people know their rights and are starting to act. Some of the worst places where ‘sextortion’ exists are primary and secondary schools, health centres and public service offices.

gone down as legal and public acceptance of FGM declines. On average, 32 per cent of women aged 15-49 were circumcised at the age of 1 in 2010 from 28 per cent in 2004. Because of widespread advocacy against FGM, it is performed secretly and sometimes in unsanitary conditions. Perpetrators also perform FGM on infants and on women while they are giving birth. FGM’s outcomes may include gynecological complications, psycho-sexual problems, and maternal and neonatal mortality.

9.7 Early marriages

The Government has been combating early marriages for a long time, however the practice continue as an outdated tradition fuelled by greed and the value placed on the girl. Equating girls with wealth or home-making has led to many adolescents and children suffering from extreme forms of abuse. There is also the role of religious leaders who sanction the marriage of young girls to older men. Reports by TAWLA account for young girls being betrothed at the tender age of 10 (‘one of who was to be married off to a 60 years old man!’). Figure 2 displays the variations in the prevalence of early marriages across regions in Mainland Tanzania, with nearly half of the regions (9 out of 21) having a prevalence rate of 40 per cent and above (Figure 46).

Figure 46: Prevalence of early marriages in Tanzania - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Prevalence</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shinyanga</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabora</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mara</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dodoma</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lindi</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mboya</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singida</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morogoro</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rukwa</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruvuma</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mwanza</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kagera</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mtwara</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manyara</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pwani</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanga</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kilimanjaro</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arusha</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kigoma</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dar es Salaam</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iringa</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Impacts of early marriages include, complicated labour and child birth sometimes leading to fistula, marital disharmony, dependency at young age, domestic violence and psychological trauma. Interventions to combat child marriages in Tanzania have involved collaborative efforts between the
Government, CSOs and DP. Box 6 discusses a project that has invested in fighting child marriages in the country.

9.8 Witchcraft-related accusations and killings

Another harmful traditional practice and belief systems that have also inflicted serious abuse and death to women is the prevalence of witchcraft-related accusations and killings of the elderly. These incidences have inflicted women more than men. Data from the Legal and Human Rights Centre (LHRC) report of 2013 compiled from the Police Force records indicated an increase in violation of the right to life due to witchcraft-related killings. The incidence of witchcraft-related killings was 630 in 2012 which rose to 765 in the year 2013. Of those killed, women were 505 and men were 260, indicating that women constitute a larger number of people affected by witchcraft-related killings. Regions were these killings are most prevalent are Geita, Mbeya, Shinyanga, Iringa, Tabora and Mwanza. Witchcraft-related beliefs have caused women to become destitute, to lose their dignity and often to become physically disabled.

9.9 Widow inheritance and widow cleansing

These two practices are other traditions that abuse the dignity of women and sometimes lead to HIV infection. Widow inheritance, which is still pervasive in some regions in southern Tanzania, is a tradition that compels a widow to be ‘inherited’ by being married to the siblings or close relatives of the deceased man. The practice of widows’ inheritance is currently common in some areas of Njombe region, and in the lake zone regions, but it may still be the case in other communities that upheld this tradition. Culturally, widow inheritance was associated with continuing the dead man’s legacy through ‘protecting and supporting the widow and children’, but through the rite, it served as keeping hold of property of the man as family property. This however is due to the cultural system of regarding women as ‘property’, hence denying her rights as a person.

Widow cleansing practices in some communities in the districts and regions of Babati, Njombe and lake zone is a more or less dying tradition but oral accounts maintain that it still exists. In these communities, women are subjected to physical and moral cleansing through a prescribed rite. The cleansings often overlap with the traditional inheritance practices and are marked by fear and the use of psychological and physical violence. Women are sometimes stigmatised and ostracised due to these practices.
traditions, a woman is made to have sexual intercourse with a man [sometimes any man] in the belief that she should be cleansed of the evil that is associated with the death of her husband. All of these traditions expose women to HIV and STIs and are associated with psychological stress, and also dispossession.

9.10 Strategies and response to GBV

The goal of the Tanzania National Action Plan for Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children (2001 – 2015) is to have sustainable equality and equity between women and men in Tanzania and to provide a framework of actions to be undertaken by stakeholders to prevent and eradicate violence against women and children. The Police Force has made significant progress in acknowledging the problem of GBV and has taken a number of steps to prevent and respond to the issue. The Police Force has established specialist units in each Police station and Police posts to handle cases of GBV and victims of child abuse. These units, which are known as Gender and Children’s Desks (GCD) are staffed with trained Police officers whose responsibility is to respond to these cases (see Box 7). The vision of the Police Force is to ensure that every child, woman or man who reports to a GCD is treated with dignity and sensitivity and that every case is handled effectively and efficiently.

Development of guidelines for establishment of gender and children desks and the 2012 Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) on prevention and response to GBV and child abuse where other significant steps taken to combat GBV. The Police also reviewed the Police Form Number 3 (PF 3) in 2012 in order to assist legal and medical personnel in responding to GBV issues, documenting relevant information and creating referral for a further response to the GBV problem.

The Law of Marriage Act, 1971, the SOSPA, 1998 and the Law of the Child Act in 2009 provide directives for dealing with various forms of GBV and VAC, and have been instrumental in enabling many women in particular to access their rights. The Law of Marriage Act prohibits a spouse from inflicting corporal punishment on his/her spouse. SOSPA criminalizes various forms of GBV, including rape, sexual assault and harassment, prostitution, FGM and sex trafficking. The law also provides that anyone having custody, charge or care of a girl under eighteen years of age who causes her to undergo FGM commits the offence of cruelty to children. Police’s GCDs are important in this regard for ensuring that women and children access the right of being protected from such forms of violence. There have been prosecutions of persons found carrying out FGM. However, evidence suggests that the fear of prosecution is driving the practice under- ground in some regions and in some areas such as in Mara region, mass FGM still takes place with little or no law enforcement.

Box 7: The Police’s GCDs

There are 54 Police stations, three of which have fully functioning GCDs. Four more GCDs are in the process of being renovated or have been partially renovated and equipped. The 2016 target is to have 17 GCDs, comprised of a minimum of two dedicated rooms that are survivor friendly. An annual GCD report is tabled in the highest management meeting of the Police Force. The Police working at the GCDs are retained there for three years. This enables the officers to complete their annual plans and measure the outcome and/or impact of their work. This is an important step in developing the expertise of Police officers to handle these complex cases and to ensure that the investment in the training of GCD officers is cost effective.

Strategies and activism against GBV have however generated mixed responses and GBV continues to
prevail. There are still challenges in the application of the law and access to justice despite the several interventions by policy and the law. The persistence of discriminative and harmful customs and traditions still affect women and girls, while statutory measures are challenged by claw-back clauses within the legal system. The Law of Marriage Act (1971) has many challenges with respect to early marriages. By allowing boys to marry at 18 and girls to marry at 15 or 14 if the courts approve and with parental permission, the Act in effect sanctions early marriages. In addition, these provisions beef up customary laws which run parallel to statutory laws. The Local Customary Law (Declaration) Order, GN 279 of 1963 allows each ethnic group to follow and make decisions based on its customs and traditions. The [proposed] constitution is expected to strengthen cases against early marriages by providing a common age of the Tanzanian child which is 18. In addition, by not defining corporal punishment, the Marriage Act excludes other forms of domestic violence such as economic deprivation. SOSPA(1998) stipulates stiff sentences of up to 30 years’ imprisonment for people found guilty of rape. But despite the stiff sentences, rape is still common in most communities as mentioned above. Ignorance of the law is sometimes making people assume complacency or helplessness. Sometimes, cases involving close relatives or friends are settled out of court.

CSOs working with the Police and community development officers are also running a number of empowerment campaigns supported by legal processes, one of which is the above mentioned TUN-AWEZA campaign.

A variety of strategies are also being employed to deal with FGM, including using the health risk approach, the human rights approach, providing safe refuges for girls fleeing FGM, women’s empowerment and providing alternative sources of income for traditional excisors (locally known as ‘ngaribas’). The Parliament of Tanzania passed an amendment to the penal code to specifically prohibit FGM (under the SOSPA, 1998); The Government also has a national plan of action on VAW 2001-2015; and the provision of alternative rites of passage. The Masanga centre for girls (Mara region) provides training which aims at ensuring that the young girls (and even boys) receive rites of passage that are beneficial rather than being harmful for them. The center has been instrumental in helping girls to avoid mutilation.

Many women currently access legal aid clinics run by women lawyers such as the LHRC, TAWLA, WLAC and UDSM’s School of Law. These organizations assist women in need of legal assistance. Legal Aid is available in 110 out of 150 districts throughout the country. The national baseline 2010 study conducted by Tanganyika Law Society of indicates that 49 paralegal centers and groups are currently operating in the country with a total of 1,770 trained paralegal members. It was further noted that most of the paralegal centers (27) are based at the district level with fewer operating at the regional level (22). Through such legal assistance, many women have benefited from the ability to reclaim their inheritance rights and properties.

Many women however have reported on the unprofessional handling of sexual violence which adds insult to injury, sometimes dehumanizing victims but also leading to unexplained acquittal of the accused. A study in 2013 established that formal referral networks that integrate services across sectors are non-existent or full of bottlenecks with ‘lengthy delays in getting care and exposing survivors to potential re-traumatization’ in many areas, especially rural areas, ‘making it extremely difficult for those survivors who do seek care to navigate the system’. The backlog in the Justice system is also affecting women in accessing their rights. From a study conducted in 2012, the LHRC reported that: There is a slow pace in handling rape cases where corroborating evidence is weak. For instance, in June 2012 of the 117 rape cases in Kigoma region, 50 were still under investigation, 60 were still pending, there were 6 acquittals and only 1 conviction.
The ministry, in collaboration with media, is sensitizing the public on women’s rights and GBV, highlighting acts of abuse and bringing it into the public domain. More women are now breaking the silence, defying customs and traditions. But the challenge remains on how to negotiate the balance of social power. Rigidity in relationships, buttressed by die-hard patriarchy, is perpetuated by men, state institutions and structures. The MenEngage programme is attempting to change this negative social privilege (Box 8).

Box 8: ‘MenEngage’ on Violence against Women.

MenEngage, a network of organizations seeking to further engage men in family health programmes and policies, is a potential resource for mobilizing men and boys to be against GBV. One example is the CHAMPION project (Channeling men’s positive involvement in the national response to HIV and AIDS) led by Engender Health which aims to promote dialogue about men’s roles in HIV and reproductive health, including sensitizing the community about GBV and its prevention.

The training of the Police and members of defense and security committees [Kamati za Ulinzi na Usalama] on women’s rights and GBV has been conducted, with the expectation that a more informed personnel on gender rights will be better placed to handle cases and carry out gender-sensitive law enforcement. The formation of a National Committee to spearhead the eradication of acts of violence against women and girls is another outcome. In the period between July 2013 and July 2014, a total of 216 Police officers were trained using the 2013 training manual. This indicates a 130 per cent increase in the number of Police officers trained in a year. The 2015 report from the Police GCD department from headquarter indicates that there is an increase in people reporting GBV and VAC cases at Police station (11,650 cases; 162 per cent) in 2014 compared to the baseline (4,441). Also 5,166 (44.3 per cent) of the reported cases were prosecuted in court in 2014 leaving behind 5,520 reported cases under investigation and 984 (8 per cent) been closed at Police stations for various reasons.

Multi-level advocacy against GBV using the visual arts has proved to be effective and has had an impact despite a backlash in some areas. More women are aware of their rights, and speak out against violence, especially domestic violence, dispossession and the abuse of children. Media ads by community or national TV or radio stations, with the support of paralegals and CSOs, have boosted women’s confidence. However, several challenges exist especially at community level and the inefficacy of the administrative and legal framework for addressing GBV results in limiting women victims of GBV from receiving timely and quality attention.

The use of shelters for women as a place of temporary refuge is rare in Tanzania, or rather not well received. In 2008 there were just two known shelters for GBV survivors—the Young Women’s Christian Association and House of Peace— both located in Dar es Salaam. The latter established in early 2002 was the first of such facilities in the country.

The campaign of ‘Say No to Violence against Women’ is ongoing. Signatures of people supporting the campaign were collected throughout the country in 2008. The signatures were presented to the
UN by the then President of the United Republic of Tanzania, Dr. Jakaya Kikwete. This has strengthened the campaign to eradicate GBV. A total of 103 Tanzanians also launched the Africa UNITE, which is the Africa component of the UN secretary-general’s global campaign, UNITE to end violence against women. With the theme of ‘Speak Out, Climb Up’ which was flagged up by the President, 75 men, women and youth took a symbolic three-day trek to the top of Africa’s highest mountain, Kilimanjaro, and committed the country to ending VAW. 162

Tanzania also observes 16 days of activism against GBV which are commemorated from 25th November–11th December each year. During these 16 days the campaign focuses on economic and social rights, domestic violence, sexual assault and harassment, the trafficking of women and girls and harmful traditional practices. Currently 17 regions have launched the event and hence strengthen awareness of GBV implications for socio-economic well-being.

9.11 Gender, SGBV and refugees

SGBV is a concern in situations of forced displacement. According to the 2016 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees’ (UNHCR), the refugee camps in North West Tanzania are host to 222,795 refugees and asylum-seekers including 65,336 registered pre-influx and currently hosted in Nyarugusu camp. Most of the refugees are from Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. The political crisis in Burundi has led to the increasing number of refugees in the past year. Since April 2015, the existing refugee camps of Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli have received a total of 157,459 new arrivals from Burundi.

Reasons for fleeing as reported by UNHCR include 1) political instability in the neighbouring countries and fear of civil war 2) Some come to Tanzania to join their wives and children, who fled earlier 3) militia groups imposing arbitrary new taxes to supplement income. Intimate partner violence continues Z to be the most reported case. It is further reported that, refugees encounter several obstacles on the route or during crossing the border. These obstacles include 1) several roadblocks on the side of Burundi, forcing refugees, majority are children and women (see the above statistics) to travel by foot 2) incidences of bribe demand to cross the border 3) militia group stopping people while fleeing 4) Internal displacement which force new arrivals to hide in various places within Burundi prior to crossing into Tanzania. Reasons for choosing to come to Tanzania are mostly three 1) Peaceful environment in Tanzania 2) Some have loved ones already living in Tanzania 3) Some were refugees in Tanzania in the past, so they have connection to the country.

9.11.1 SGBV and refugees

Disaggregated data shows that children and women suffer the most. Children make up 57.9 per cent of the new arrivals with the proportion of women standing at 78.3 per cent. The International Rescue Committee (IRC) is the lead organization providing SGBV prevention and response activities in the three refugee camps and also manages the Gender-Based Violence Information Management System (GBV IMS).

The 2016 UNHCR’s report gives statistics of SGBV incidences that have been reported from January – August 2016 in the three refugee camps. In total, there were 322 newly reported incidents (311 females which is 96.6 per cent of the total reported incidents and 11 males), a significant increase compared to the month of January were 157 incidents were reported. Common types of SGBV incidents include physical assault, denial of resources and psychological and emotional abuse. The UNHCR report states that there was almost a doubling in actual incidents of denial of resources and physical assault. Most of these incidences were within domestic settings by intimate partners.

The increase in incidents is partially attributed to 1) the increased screening activities for new arriv-
als refugees 2) increased mobile outreach through the legal clinics 3) increased staffing at the support centers 4) the establishment of outreach tents. All these have brought services closer to the more populated areas making it easier for the victims to report incidents of SGBV. The increase can also be attributed to increased trust in services delivered to the refugees.

9.11.2 Response to SGBV incidents

Multi-sectorial response services (medical, legal, safety and psychosocial) are in place and functioning. Provision of those services is based on guiding SGBV principles, including a survivor-centered approach, non-discriminatory access to all services and respect of privacy. Material needs are also being provided where possible on a case-by-case basis.

Psychosocial services, including for instance, group therapy and counseling sessions which also provides an opportunity for women to build resiliency. In the month of August alone, in Nyarugusu camp (the largest refugee camp), some 706 (670 for females and 36 for males) counseling sessions were carried out, of which 428 (412 for females and 16 for males) were follow-up sessions. Referral for legal services, medical, shelter, safety and security continued to increase across all camps. Information dissemination campaign is also conducted focusing on the importance of early reporting.

An inter-agency strategy and action plan for preventing and responding to SGBV has been implemented in place and consolidated across all locations. The strategy has intensified collaboration and outreach on increasing for instance attendance at Child Friendly Spaces (CFS) when caregivers are engaged in other activities such as food distributions. The strategy has also launched a protection monitoring assessment to further understand accessibility, availability and awareness of SGBV services among persons with specific needs across different zones in all camps.

Community involvement is another means being rolled out. It involved programmes such as Engaging Men in Accountable Practices (EMAP) programme and various activities including educational awareness focusing on key areas, available services for GBV survivors and the importance of early reporting of GBV cases. Other activities include community football matches, and dialogue forums with religious leaders on how to increase community engagement and understanding on the involvement of religious leaders in GBV prevention activities. Volunteers have been recruited and trained on the key concepts of GBV types, causes and consequences, referral pathway, guiding principles and legal activities.

9.12 Key issues and remaining challenges

Multiple and inter-related factors are behind the persistence of GBV in the country, which include, the inability of women to challenge harmful traditions, shortcomings in enforcement of the law and inadequate resources. The multi-sectorial response to GBV in Tanzania has enabled a multi-dimensional intervention strategy that links different institutions, systems and processes. This has been somewhat successful at certain levels. There is increasing confidence among women and some men to speak out against GBV and to report incidences. However, because of its varied occurrences, the magnitude of GBV prevails, and in most cases amongst those most vulnerable, children. The silence that accompanies GBV incidences by survivors is also prevalent. Specific issues that need to be addressed include the following:

- Legal hitches caused by the application of claw back clauses are limiting women and children violated by GBV from receiving justice.
- Culturally or socially-sanctioned reprisals which limit women in particular from proceeding with cases of GBV. Police’s GCDs lack the capacity to effectively handle GBV cases or victims. Access to structures and institutions for addressing gender
rights such as the Police’s GCDs is also challenging.

- Inadequate mechanisms to handle the increasing prevalence of sexual abuses of male adolescents and children.

- Conflicting legislative framework. For example, Marriage and Inheritance Laws are still discriminatory and contradict constitutional rights. The Law of Marriage Act of 1971 states that 15 is the minimum age for marriage for girls while for boys it is 18, but according to the 1998 Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act, sexual activity with a girl under 18 years of age is an offence. Tanzanian law presumes spousal co-ownership of property although the application of customary and religious laws may deny women’s access to and ownership and use of land.

- Underfunding of the activities for protection and basic assistance and respond to the urgent needs of refugees including, among others, in prevention and response to SGBV. The current level of funding in 2016 for UNHCR Tanzania stands at is 59 per cent for its Burundi emergency response with a gap of US$ 30.8 million as at 6 September 2016 (for all activities including SGBV).

- Alcohol abuse is a serious challenge in the refugee camps and a key contributing risk factor to SGBV.

**Key recommendations**

- Establishing a monitoring framework for the proposed constitution to ensure the enforcement and implementation of women’s rights with regard to GBV.

- Accelerate and expand the support to small scale income generation activities for women in the refugee camps.

- Strengthening the referral and coordination of cases of GBV between the Police, health facility, and judiciary.

- Investing in and popularizing facilities for victims of GBV such as shelters, safe houses, medical treatment and counselling.

- Empowering TPF and para-military members to be proactive rather than being reactive in addressing GBV. This needs to be supported by up scaling the performance of Police’s CGDs in terms of numbers and personnel in rural areas.

- Establishing community-based points of referral that are child friendly.

- Promoting and strategizing interventions, including educational packages that address the vulnerability of the boy child.
Women rights in the Tanzania legal framework
Key trends

- To comply with CEDAW, the Government is accelerating the law-review process. It has also amended the constitution to expand the discrimination criteria to include sex and to increase the number of women in the Parliament and local councils.

- Efforts are on-going to ensure gender issues are taken into consideration at all levels. For instance, the Government has directed all LGAs to establish Client Service Charters that articulate gender equality in employment positions.

- There are on-going capacity building programmes and public awareness of the rights of women in particular on the implementation of CEDAW. Training to judicial on human and women’s rights, in the context of CEDAW has taken place.

- Notable increase in the number of women accessing courts of law as a result of increasing number of legal aid schemes. However, legal rights of women continue to be constrained due to the application of multiple statutory, customary and religious laws.

- The proposed new 2014 constitution further advances gender equality, for instance, by prohibiting discrimination on the grounds of, inter alia, gender and defines both direct and indirect discrimination in accordance with Article 1 of CEDAW. It also provides for 50-50 political representation in Parliament.

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**Figure 47: Framework of legal framework ensuring equality and prohibiting discrimination**

- constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977
- Employment and Labour Relations Act 2004
- etc.
10. WOMEN’S RIGHTS IN THE TANZANIAN LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND THE CONSTITUTION

10.1 Women’s legal rights in Tanzania

Since independence (1961), de jure equality has been enshrined in the 1977 constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania. However, in practice, the legal rights of women have been constrained due to the application of multiple statutory, customary and religious laws and the challenges women face in access to justice. Several amendments have been made to address the various gaps, including those in the currently proposed constitution (2014). Moreover, equality before the law is guaranteed in various laws whereby women’s legal capacity in civil matters is equal to that of men. This implies that women have equal rights with men in various aspects, such as to conclude contracts, to administer property and to be treated equally at all stages of court and tribunal procedures. The constitution also gives men and women the same rights in law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

The constitutional amendment of 2004 which expanded the discrimination criteria to include sex, also introduced affirmative action that guaranteed women 30 per cent of the seats in Parliament and 33.3 per cent of the seats in local Government councils in line with the SADC Declaration of 1997. Legal provisions that prohibit discrimination based on the ground of gender are Sections 28 and 33 of the Person with Disabilities Act (2010); Section 5 of the Law of the Child Act (2009); and Sections 28-34 of the HIV and AIDS Prevention and Control Act (No. 28 of 2008). Other laws with provisions prohibiting discrimination are the Elections Act (1985); Section of the Land laws (1999); Section of the Village Land Act (1999); and the Mortgage and Financing Act. The final draft of the proposed new 2014 constitution has expanded the scope of its definition of discrimination in expressly prohibiting discrimination on the grounds of, inter alia, gender. Thus it clearly defines both direct and indirect discrimination in accordance with Article 1 of CEDAW. Furthermore, as per the SADC gender and development protocol the proposed constitution provides for 50-50 political representation in Parliament. It also proposes that there shall be a male and female contestant in every constituency for the election of members of Parliament. To ensure that equality and non-discrimination between men and women is realized in all spheres of life, the proposed constitution proposes to incorporate specific rights for women, children, the youth, the elderly and persons with disabilities. Box 9 summarizes the key provisions for women’s rights.

Every woman has the right to: (a) be respected; (b) be protected from discrimination, exploitation and dehumanization, spite and harmful customs; (c) participate without discrimination in elections and all stages of decision-making; (d) be paid the same kind of salary as a man; (e) protection for her employment while she is pregnant and after delivery; and (f) access to quality medical services including safe reproductive services (g) ownership of property.

It is to be noted that the national referendum for the proposed constitution which was planned to be held in April 2015 was postponed to a future date which implies a delay in realising the progressive elements contained in the proposed constitution with respect to the rights of women.

To ensure that all discriminatory laws are amended or repealed in order to comply with CEDAW and...
the CEDAW committee’s general recommendations, the Government has accelerated its law-review process. The process of reviewing the inheritance laws in Mainland Tanzania is in progress and the anticipated adoption of a new constitution will accelerate/necessitate the amendment of all discriminatory laws so as to enhance equality between men, women and children, including succession issues.  

10.2 Efforts of the Government to enact gender-responsive legislation

10.2.1 Laws in support of women rights and well-being

The Government of Tanzania has passed various laws and policies in support of women’s rights and their economic and social well-being. For instance, to ensure that both female and male pupils in primary and pre-primary schools get equal opportunity to access and pursue education, the 2014 Education and Training Policy guarantees equal access to education and training opportunities by girls and boys, women and men. The policy also permits impregnated schoolgirls to be reinstated in school after delivery.

Further, the Employment and Labour Relations Act (ELRA of 2004) prohibits discrimination in the workplace. The grounds for discrimination are clearly spelt out in ELRA, namely, colour, nationality, tribe or place of origin, race, national extraction, social origin and political opinion or religion. Other issues include sex, gender, pregnancy, marital status or family responsibility, disability, HIV/AIDS, and age. This list of discrimination criteria is not exhaustive and is expanded in the code of good practice to include other categories of discrimination. In recognition of the international commitment to eliminate discrimination in the workplace on the grounds of HIV/AIDS, Section 7(1) of the Employment and Labour Relations Act prohibits discrimination in matters relating to work on a number of grounds including HIV/AIDS. These provisions therefore complements Section 30(c) of the HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act (2008) which prohibits discrimination against persons affected by or infected with HIV/AIDS at the workplace.

The Land Act of 1999 and Village Land Act of 1999 stipulate equality in acquiring, holding, using and owning land. These laws were further amended in 2002 by Act No 2, which established land tribunals whose composition must include 43 per cent representation of women. In 2004, the Land Act and Village Land Act were further amended to make land economically valuable and allow it to be mortgaged to access financial resources or for investment purposes. It is now becoming common practice for women, especially those residing in urban areas, to own and mortgage land. However, often, the intended benefits of these laws are not reaching the neediest women because many still lack the confidence to demand such rights, and may not receive the benefits of assets held by men, even when they live in the same household. This has a negative spill-over effect on women’s ability to access loans, borrow money, to obtain household assets and income and to make decisions for their own and their household’s advantage.

To protect the dignity and integrity of women and children, the Government enacted the SOSPA, 1998. This law stipulates concrete disciplinary and deterrent sentences for perpetrators of violence against women, especially rape and trafficking in persons. (See more details in the Chapter on GBV).

The HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act (2008) prohibits any kind of stigma and discrimination against any person due to actual, perceived or suspected HIV/AIDS status. In particular, section 28 prohibits a person (natural or juristic) from formulating a policy, and passing any law or act in a manner that discriminates directly or by implication against persons with HIV/AIDS, orphans or their families. In addition, section 29 obliges any health practitioner, who deals with persons living with HIV/AIDS, to provide health services without
any kind of stigma or discrimination.

10.2.2 Measures to address gaps in the implementation of women’s rights

To ensure that gender issues are taken into consideration at all levels, the PO-PSM has directed all LGAs to establish Client service charters, which require, amongst other things, the articulation of gender equality in various employment positions. The implementation of the charters is monitored by PO-PSM assessment team, which audits, among other things, gender mainstreaming and considerations in the employment at the LGA level. Auditing committees at the LGA level are obliged to track the implementation of the service charter, while the National Audit Office (NAO) is responsible for checking on the existence and operationalization of these service charters.

10.2.3 Capacity building and public awareness

Tanzania is also engaged in a series of capacity building programmes for women in particular on implementation of CEDAW by raising public awareness of international human rights treaties relating to women. Therefore, CEDAW and its optional protocol have been translated into Kiswahili and widely disseminated as has the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights and the Rights of Women in Africa.79

Human rights are taught as a topic in civics in all primary and secondary schools as well as in HLIs. The main challenge is that most of the teachers lack knowledge on human rights issues which is currently being addressed by specific training programmes for teachers in human rights generally and women’s and children’s rights in particular.

10.2.4 Access to courts and legal services

Tanzania has also worked to ensure that there is an increased number of women who have access to courts of law. This is particularly done through a number of legal aid schemes. Tanzania is working on a policy and law on legal aid and has set up a legal aid secretariat under the Legal Sector Reform Programme (LSRP) to coordinate legal aid activities.

In addition, through the Legal Services Facility (LSF), DPs have been providing funding and technical support for a number of legal aid providers – both paralegal units and legal aid centres run by volunteer lawyers and NGOs, CBOs and Faith-
Based Organizations (FBOs) to enable them to provide women with legal aid in both urban and rural areas of Tanzania. For example, the work of TAWLA, WLAC, Women Wake Up (WOWAP) and many other CSOs to provide Community-based legal aid and awareness has been very useful to women in this regard.

In addition, the legal aid Secretariat operating within the LSRP is in the process of establishing a national legal aid hotline to ensure that legal assistance reaches the needy, including women and children, in all parts of the country. The overall objective of this initiative is to assist all marginalized groups who need prompt legal aid services.

A gender situational analysis of the legal sector was conducted in 2012 and recommendations have been captured in the current legal sector plan, such as a recommendation to the Police Force to improve gender desks in Police stations and formalize paralegal practice.

### 10.3 Key issues and remaining challenges

It is envisaged that if endorsed the proposed constitution will enable Tanzania to abide by international commitments to gender equality provision across legislation, particularly as it relates to the age of marriage for girls, GBV, inheritance and property ownership. However the challenge will remain at the level of enforcement, which will require measures to raise awareness of rights issues and ensure access to legal services, especially by poor marginalized women. Other key issues and challenges that need to be addressed include:

- Gender-disaggregated data is not adequately and systematically generated and available in most legal sector institutions to inform the desired legal sector response.
- Slow progress in the amendment and enforcement of prominent gender-discriminatory laws especially as regards to marriage, property and inheritance.
• Gender equality frameworks are not sufficiently used to inform policy, practice and planning in the legal sector and institutions addressing women’s rights.

• Inadequate monitoring mechanisms to ensure the enforcement of women’s rights

• Limited access to justice and the legal literacy of communities.

• Women’s legal and human rights and women’s empowerment remained constrained by factors such as the discriminatory application of statutory laws; inadequate legislative protective mechanisms which include, protection orders, barring orders and safety orders; and insensitive investigations and prosecution of cases involving violence against women and children.

Key recommendations

• Developing customized policies, mechanisms and procedures for gender sensitive data collection, reporting and monitoring gender in legal sector institutions. This should include establishing a database on sex-disaggregated data.

• Utilizing gender-equality structures, mechanisms and agreements at all levels (e.g. CEDAW committee recommendations and CSW agreed conclusions) to intensify efforts to address and promote equality between men and women, boys and girls.

• Developing and enhancing indicative monitoring mechanisms to ensure that progressive provisions of the proposed constitution, including the amendment of gender discriminatory/outdate laws and the 50-50 women and men participation in politics clause are implemented.

• Providing legal literacy for women and men through multiple mechanisms – including the media and training institutions.
Gender and Climate Change
Key trends

- Vulnerability of women to the vagaries brought about by climate change is aggravated by small farming land, reduction in availability of natural resources – water, forest products for household consumption (increasing their workload) and inadequate access to timely and relevant meteorological [weather] information to allow preparation.

- Several structures and strategies are being set up to spearhead interventions. Among others are the NCCS and the national guidelines for mainstreaming gender in climate change adaptation-related policies, plans, strategies, programmes and budgets.

- Women respond to climate change hazards by collaborating in informal self-help groups during times of crises such as food shortages through which they assist each other in farming or running informal credit facilities.

- Public expenditure on climate change has increased steadily as a proportion of the total budget from 4.2 per cent (2009/10) to 6.5 per cent (2012/13). This growth has however mostly driven by increased on-budget donor funding.

- The Government in collaborations with NGOs has spearheaded public communication messages on climate change responses. In some communities, the division of labour between men and women with respect to exploitation and management of natural resources (fish, agriculture, horticulture, forests, and non-timber forest products) is still limiting the effective contribution of women.

Figure 48: Framework of strategic plans, policies and strategies on climate change

2012 National Climate Change Strategy

National guidelines for mainstreaming gender in climate change adaptation-related policies, plans, strategies, programmes & budgets

2014 Agriculture Climate Resilience Plan (ACRP)

1997 National Environmental Policy

2009 National REDD Strategy
11.1 Women and vulnerability to climate change

Tanzania, as has been the case with other developing countries, has been disproportionally affected by the impacts of climate change and variable weather because of its dependence on climate-sensitive livelihood activities (agriculture, fishing, livestock keeping and forestry) and low adaptive capacity. The degree of susceptibility to the negative effects of climate change is however variable and different population groups have been vulnerable to different degrees due to the different levels of sensitivity and capacity to adapt.

Because of their different social roles, women and men have a different relationship with natural resources and the overall environment stemming from differences in ownership, decision-making, access to technology and technical skills. This means that women and men are differently exposed to environmental changes and climate change, and so climate change affects men and women differently. Women are however often more vulnerable because of historical disadvantages, and their limited access to resources and decision making often limits their response options to the impact of climate change.

The experience in Tanzania shows that for many women their vulnerability from the vagaries brought about by climate change is aggravated by following factors which are mediated by gender and poverty:

- Inadequate [small] land sizes which do not permit planting on different dates, demarcating land for multiple uses including grazing, or harvesting enough food.

- Inadequate access to timely and relevant meteorological [weather] information to allow preparation.

However, since women also play a pivotal role in natural resource management which supports their productive and reproductive activities, they have the potential to contribute to livelihood strategies that are adapted to changing environmental realities. In rural environments, their extensive interaction with the environment gives them knowledge and expertise that could also be used to mitigate climate change and develop disaster reduction and adaptation strategies, hence making them effective actors and agents of change. Their comparative disadvantage in terms of ownership of resources and decision making, limits this possibility. Such realities need to be appreciated by policy and implementation strategies.

11.2 Policy framework for climate change

Climate change governance in Tanzania is recognized as a cross-cutting issue, given its social, economic and political implications, each with major gender implications. Policy issues are spearheaded by the Vice President’s Office, Department of the Environment, which has the responsibility of coordinating and spearheading climate change responses. This responsibility is executed in collaboration with key sectors and the MoFP. Overall, the policy and institutional framework for climate change in the country is informed by the major national development strategies, all of which are linked to climate change responses. For example, the 2025 Development Vision is aimed at attaining high quality livelihoods for its people and the development of a strong and competitive economy, which would be feasible within an environmentally-friendly context.

The 2012 NCCS is the key strategy addressing cli-
mate change issues. The strategy recognizes that the impacts of climate change are affecting gender and vulnerable groups differently due to their different roles in society. Therefore, a gender perspective in the development and implementation of adaptation and mitigation strategies is crucial to narrow the gender gap and reduce the impacts. Several structures have been set up to spearhead interventions and effectively coordinate the activities of the national climate change strategy. The National Climate Change Technical Committee (NCCTC) and National Climate Change Steering Committee (NCCSC) guide the coordination and implementation of NCCS. Key ministries have also established ‘desks’ to mainstream climate change in their respective sectors. However, the current capacity of these climate change desks is restricted by limited knowledge on climate change issues, compounded by the meagre financial resources allocated to these desks. In addition most of these desks lack the capacity to mainstream gender in the aspects of climate change that are relevant to their sectors.

The 1997 National Environmental Policy provides the policy framework on environmental issues for those sectors affected by climate change. The policy promotes awareness of the critical role of women in population and environmental issues which needs to be enhanced through increased access to education, and expanding primary and reproductive health care programmes to reduce maternal and infant mortality, through ethically and culturally-sensitive information. The policy supports the improvement of women’s rights, access to assets, labour-saving measures and job opportunities as key to a sound environment. The 2004 National Environmental Management Act (EMA) also notes that women are key natural resource managers in our society and their knowledge, experience and traditional skills in the management of resources should be recognized and employed.

The 2009 national REDD strategy and its secretariat was put in place and an initial 10 REDD+ pilot projects operated by CSOs working in forest and land use management were implemented. The main goal of the national REDD+ strategy is to facilitate effective and coordinated implementation of REDD+ policies, processes and activities so as to contribute to the climate change agenda and overall sustainable development, as well as establishing mechanisms required for Tanzania to benefit from the post-2012 internationally-approved system for forest carbon trading, based on demonstrated emission reductions from deforestation and forest degradation.

The REDD+ has a strong gender concern by promoting climate change research which generates gender-disaggregated data on impacts and responses; enhancing the equitable representation of women and vulnerable groups at all levels of planning, decision making and implementation of adaptation and mitigation initiatives; and to promote safeguards that ensure that women and vulnerable groups benefit equally from climate change initiatives.

The strategy articulates how climate change response strategies will have gender-differentiated impacts, due in large part to differences in women’s and men’s powers, roles, rights and responsibilities in forest governance, and in their lives more broadly. The strategy also recognizes the challenges that women face in effectively participating in and contributing to REDD+ strategies for the benefit of people and the economy. The strategy notes that if effectively engaged, women can also provide positive input to address climate change because ‘women have values, knowledge and skills that are important to natural resource management, and are effective agents of change’. However, this often goes unrecognized in natural resource governance. Women’s formal and informal powers and voice in natural resource (forest) governance are often very limited. This makes it harder for women to contribute their knowledge and skills, and harder for them to claim and defend their rights and interests.
11.3 Climate change and natural resources sectors

Sectorial policies in the natural resource sectors of forestry, agriculture, land, fisheries, tourism, wildlife and water which have integrated climate change aspects also have gender-sensitive components. Community-based interventions emphasize on women’s participation in project activities. The 1998 Forest Policy, the Forest Act of 2002 and National Forest Programme 2001-2010 (NFP) recognize the importance of gender in forest management, noting that forests and trees are important to rural life and especially women and marginalized groups in relation to food security, rural energy supply and household subsistence. Gender mainstreaming, in the management of forests and forest products is thus seen as imperative. One of the strategies of the NFP is to pay attention to gender balance in terms of income generation opportunities, poverty reduction, decision-making and ownership of forest resources and products. There is an on-going campaign for planting trees, currently scheduled for February and March each year, depending on when each region gets rain. There are however major weaknesses in controlling behaviours and livelihood practices on the environment that induce climate change impacts, including land degradation or rapid deforestation. This is because many people have limited livelihood options and this affects their ability to maintain the health and resilience of the ecosystem.

The policy and regulatory framework for the water sector also responds to the pressures of a deteriorating natural resource base and its implications to the economy and to the people. The 2002 National Water Policy, the National Water Sector Development Strategy 2006 - 2015 (NWSDS), the Water Sector Development Program 2005 -2025 (WSDP), and the 2006 Sector-Wide Approach to Planning (SWAP) outline strategies to achieve sustainability in access to water supply. Local management of water supply and sanitation facilities is seen as important, because it cultivates their accountability to sustainable utilisation of water sources. In the context of climate change, a gender sensitive water management is necessary because this will give women a say over patterns of consumption and sustainable use of water supply facilities. The agriculture sector has given strong emphasis on climate change consideration through the ACRP. The plan seeks to respond to the most urgent impacts posed by climate change variability in the crop sub-sector; mainstream climate change in agriculture policies, strategies, initiatives and plans; and build the resilience of current crop productivity and future investment.
Grassroots resource governance of natural resources is another response for adaptation. Village environmental committees address various environmental challenges at grassroots level. The committees are required in principle to have female representation. Being also part of the village leadership, women are involved in making decisions pertaining to planning and management environment issues. At the district and urban level, LGAs are responsible for overseeing that the environment is protected. In order to have sustainable land management practices, communities are sensitized on how to manage natural resources through by-laws and penalties set by the LGAs and village Governments that are imposed on those involved in illegally harvesting natural resources.

11.4 Climate change, gender and budgetary resources

As part of the climate change response, the Government has made financing climate change a high priority. Existing analysis shows that relevant expenditure on climate change has increased steadily as a proportion of the total budget from 4.2 per cent in 2009/10 to 6.5 per cent in 2012/13. However, this growth has mainly been driven by increased on-budget donor funding. Heavy donor dependency is limiting the sustainability of environmental management interventions, challenging the initiative to develop local mechanisms to address climate change. Lacking sensitivity to local contexts, some of the interventions heavily relying on donor resources are unsustainable and are often short-lived.

In order to coordinate a gender-sensitive response, in 2012, the then ministry responsible for gender MCDGC developed the 2012 National Guidelines for Mainstreaming Gender in Climate Change Adaptation-related Policies, Plans, Strategies, Programmes and Budgets 2012. The objective is to inform the mainstreaming of gender in policies, programmes and strategies relating to climate change and budgets concerning climate change for MDAs, LGAs, CSOs, the private sector and other stakeholders. An assessment conducted between 2009/10 and 2012/13 on climate change financing noted however that the MCDGC was not identified among the 15 Ministries given a budget for climate change interventions, presumably by the perception that it was not one of the core sectors for climate change. This constrained the capacity of the then MCDGC’s to spearhead and engage effectively in gender-sensitive interventions.

11.5 Community and individual levels responses to climate change

Local people have responded to the increasing experience of the adverse impacts of weather variability and climate change in different ways. Common response options have included: reducing the number of meals a day; seeking alternative income generation activities such as off-farm activities and causal labour; emigration; selling household assets and borrowing money. Current experiences show that most of these common response options are not sustainable and sometimes expose women and their households to deeper risk. Emigration is an option which impact married women who are sometimes deserted by partners who decide to emigrate in search of alternative livelihoods. However, many women cannot pursue particularly if they have young children. In general therefore, women’s adaptive capacity is hampered because of limited response options. Poverty intersects with gendered inequalities so that they impact women-headed households more than they impact men. Some women end up compromising their health and safety in order to earn a living.

Traditional adaptation practices in response to adverse weather or environmental degradation are known to exist but the information is inadequate in the absence of concerted research or systematic documentation in traditional knowledge in this area. One such practice that benefited women and supported gender roles significantly was the ngiti ili system of Shinyanga, a traditional woodland/
grassland management practice which was used to provide dry season fodder for cattle. Government efforts to restore the ngitili tradition in the 1980s brought multiple benefits to household and community well-being. In addition to the general benefits of contributing to biodiversity conservation, women benefitted through reducing the length of time for women to collect fuel wood and water because these resources became available within the ngitili areas; improving health through access to traditional herbal remedies, more capacity to diversify diets in times of hardship through access to wild foods and fruits, and income to meet other household needs. Increasing land shortages is hampering the sustainability of such practices, hitting on women who do not have land even more. More research on traditional practices which protect the environment and facilitate gender equality needs to be conducted.

Women also respond to climate change hazards by collaborating in informal self-help groups during times of crises such as food shortages through which they assist each other in farming or running informal credit facilities. Most of the savings groups in rural areas VICOBAs AND VSLAs are largely comprise of women members. The real benefits of such mechanisms which have the potential to reduce people’s vulnerability to the impacts of climate change have not been documented adequately.

Many CSOs such as the Tanzania Community Forest Network (MJUMITA) and Regalia Media Ltd, have been working on communication messages to make the public aware of climate change responses. Awareness of climate change is currently widespread and the terminology ‘mabadiliko ya tabia nchi’ is now part of people’s vocabulary in relation to environmental changes. However, in some communities, the division of labour between men and women with respect to exploitation and management of natural resources (fish, agriculture, horticulture, forests, and non-timber forest products) is still limiting their effective contribution. In some forest-endowed communities, the absence of other viable livelihood alternatives have also compelled women to increasingly engage in traditionally men-dominated activities such as charcoal and timber production which are largely unregulated and are damaging the environment.

In one of the REDD+ projects in Kondoia Irangi Hills, women’s groups were trained to raise and sell tree seedlings to support the agro-forestry efforts and to generate revenue, but at the same time engage in maintaining the state of the environment. Other NGOs have also been facilitating farmers to use improved farming techniques and practise agroforestry. So far they have seen maize yields per acre increase from 2 to 7 sacks. They have also engaged in activities to promote improved energy technologies (e.g. solar chargers for cell phones, biogas and improved cooking stoves). These activities are not only helping to reduce deforestation rates, but are also contributing to household incomes and raise women’s empowerment through participation in decision making and engaging in natural resource management activities is being emphasised.

11.6 Key issues and remaining challenges

The impacts of climate change are multiplying and there is lack of a comprehensive database on women’s and men’s traditional knowledge and mechanisms for addressing the impacts of environmental and climate change. Hence there is a limited absorption and integration of this knowledge in climate change responses. Specific issues include the following:

- The challenges in achieving gender equality in decision making and resources ownership is limiting women’s response options.
- Financial resources have been insufficient to enable or sustain effective mainstreaming of gender equality in climate change interventions.
- Lack of capacity by some sectors, LGAs and community-based institutions to identify and address
gender-based vulnerability to the impacts of climate change.

- Poverty and inadequate livelihood options at community level to minimise factors contributing to climate change.

- Inadequate uptake of gender-specific traditional knowledge for mitigation of the impacts of climate change.

**Key recommendations**

- Improve the collection and analysis of data on climate change which is gender sensitive. This should include traditional knowledge and practices.

- Some of the existing legislation and policies in this sector need to sufficiently reflect gender equality commitments made through ratification of CEDAW, BPfA and SDGs.

- Establishing mechanisms for coordinating budget allocations for climate change-sensitive sectors which touch on women’s and men’s needs at the local level.

- Building the capacity of LGAs for gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation of indicators of the impacts of climate change.

- Enhancing the adaptive capacity of both women and men through the introduction of more climate-resistant production systems and technologies, including supporting viable livelihood options.

- Upscaling information dissemination mechanisms with locally-relevant techniques which are sensitive to gender roles on early warning and disaster preparedness.
Gender, Information and Communication
Key trends

- The proportion of males owning assets for information and communication is higher than that of females. Reference is made to mobile phones, TV, radio, internet and computer.

- Private-public collaboration in using latest communication technology is emerging to support areas that have bearing on women and children. For instance, use of mobile phone facilities in birth registrations.

- The Government plan to introduce online business registration and licensing will potentially benefit men and women entrepreneurs.

- Weak enforcement and pressures for profit maximisation have given room for negative portrayals of women including indecent and exploitation of female performers in the entertainment industry.

- Women reporters are increasingly ‘speaking about women’ in topics related to gender equality and GBV. Media houses are increasingly introducing programmes dedicated to women. However, programmes are still male dominated, and their role in portraying positive gender images is in dire need of a positive change.

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**Figure 49: Framework of strategic plans and policies on information and communication**

- 2016 National Information and Communications Technologies Policy
- 2003 Information and Broadcasting Policy
- Information Society and ICT Sector Development Project
- 1997 National Telecommunications Policy
12.1 Introduction

Information and communication have been recognised as having a critical role to play in achieving gender equality and women’s empowerment. Sources and agents of information include among others, language and literature; popular culture; visual and performing arts; music, dance, film and other traditional and contemporary forms of creative expression and media (mainstream and social media). Equally important are the current Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) which if effectively utilised could address the concomitants of women’s disempowerment, exemplified by their lack of access to education and health services, lack of productive opportunities and lack of information and isolation. The Government has already acknowledged that ICTs can be harnessed to meet the goals of Vision 2025 as well as those of the FYDP II.

12.2 Policies and legal frameworks

The policy and legal framework for the sector commits the Government to certain aspects of GEWE, albeit with different thrusts. The earlier national development plans such as NSGRP II embedded a communication strategy whose purpose was to trigger stakeholders’ and beneficiaries’ involvement and secure their commitments by sharing knowledge and information on development goals, outcomes and challenges. Such communication strategy stipulated that all people have the same right to information. The successor plan, that is the FYDP II envisages to establish a communication strategy as well. Despite extensive existence of media, information and communication facilities, access is constrained by other development challenges. It is estimated that 28.2 per cent of 5 years and above Tanzanians cannot read or write (31.1 per cent being women and 25.3 per cent men), it implies that a good proportion of the population cannot directly access information. Access to traditional media such as newspapers is challenging as well. It is estimated that only 31 per cent of the adult population reads a newspaper at least once a week.

The 2005 National Strategy for Gender and Development states that Information, Education and Communication (IEC) mechanisms should be strengthened and established in urban and rural areas, to facilitate knowledge and experience sharing in matters relating to gender equality. The 2012 census established that although there was a significant percentage of ownership of mobile phones in the country, fewer households in the rural areas owned these assets (54.3 per cent) than those in the urban areas (83.6 per cent). There are gender differences as well. Male headed households also owned mobile phones and radios more than female headed households (Table 9). By 2014 there were 31.86 million mobile telecoms subscribers and 1.9 million internet subscribers in Tanzania. As of March 2016, the subscription to mobile and fixed line phones stands at 39.58 million. This data is not disaggregated by sex but it indicates that the use of mobile phones has expanded tremendously and creates an opportunity for advancing GEWE.

The 2003 Information and Broadcasting Policy [currently undergoing review] which allows the state, private sector and community to own media institutions created a strategic opportunity for advancing and disseminating GEWE ideas. The subsequent establishment of privately owned and community radios and newsletters which became accessible to a wider population in Tanzania further expand such opportunities. In addition, the recently launched 2016 National Information and Communications Technology Policy commits the Government to work towards reliable infrastructure, skilled human resources, open governance, security as well as conducive legal and institutional frameworks. The predecessor policy (2003 National Information and Communications Technology Policy) witnessed
major technological changes including the introduction of Converged Licensing Framework (CLF), migration from terrestrial analogue to digital television broadcasting, the introduction of a national ICT broadband backbone, extension of telecommunication networks to rural communities and financial inclusion through mobile money innovation.

The Government has been collaborating with the Government of Finland since 2011 to run an information society and ICT sector development project. The project’s overall objective is a strengthened Tanzanian information society with enhanced capacities to contribute to the achievement of the Government’s socio-economic development goals. In addition to the existing policies, the sector is also governed by a number of legal instruments including: The Electronic and Postal Communications (EPOCA) Act of 2010, the Cyber Crimes Act (2015) and the Electronic Transactions Act (2015).

These instruments do not however illustrate a clear concern on gender issues, despite their various potentials in that regard. Inadequate analytical information and data on gender indicators in the information and communications sector has made it challenging for policy makers to integrate gender in ICT plans and programmes.

### 12.3 Ownership and control of media and ICT

The 1995 BPfA calls on the media to promote women’s full and equal participation in media management and for the media to aim at gender balance in the appointment of women and men in all management bodies. The 2008 National Employment Policy also encourages a gender balance in the recruitment of media staff. A 2008 study on gender representation in media houses showed however that they are still dominated by men. Women constituted only 36 per cent of all media professionals the proportion that is lower than the regional average of 41 per cent.

Women’s representation in media houses may have some bearing on the content and reporting capacity. The 2011 Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) reported. In Tanzania, women make up 27 per cent of those in decision-making positions, but only 21 per cent of sources of information are women. However, the extent to which female and male reporters do access women sources of information is markedly different. Women constitute 43 per cent of sources in stories written by women journalists, compared with 14 per cent in stories written by men, indicating presumably cultural preferences in communicating and seeking for information about women.

In terms of being ‘seen’ it was found that between 2003 and 2010, there was a significant drop of 10 per cent in the level of women featuring in reporting and presenting news on TV and the radio (Table 10) illustrates. Women reporters are in this case therefore ‘seen’ less compared to what had been established in the baseline in 2003.
It is however worth mentioning that, overtime, gender sensitization of the various communication media has increased gender awareness and women’s participation and decision making in all forms of communication, and especially in mainstream media. Several women are now senior executives in mass media networks. There are also annual awards for the best media professionals or reporters, gender reporting being one of the categories for an award. This has encouraged media women and men to improve their skills in reporting on gender and other issues. In 2006, the best professional in reporting issues of HIV/AIDS was a woman.

### 12.4 Women’s empowerment and ICT

Private-public collaboration in Tanzania is becoming evident in this regard. An innovative use of mobile phones has been developed by the TIGO mobile phone company in collaboration with the Government to facilitate birth registrations as illustrated in Box 10 below. Such initiatives need to be expanded.

The 2010 ICT baseline study however reports that there is quite little penetration in the use of ICT to enhance incomes in activities such as the SMEs. This is despite its known potential in information dissemination, product-quality improvements, and improved services especially through improved networking. Currently, the Government has identified possible ways where women can benefit from the use of ICT which could potentially have significant gender equity implication. The Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment is considering introducing on-line registration and licensing of SMEs and the recently introduced on-line applications and registration of small-scale mining licenses will benefit both men and women and especially women given their many responsibilities of care, and inadequate time. However, illiteracy, lack of exposure and the low rate of ICT reaching rural areas will remain as the main challenges for women to realistically benefit from these innovations.

### 12.5 Gender, media coverage and content

Liberal policies have permitted the number of regional and community radio stations to increase tremendously. The radio is currently one of the most popular and accessible information medium for a majority of the population. According to Tanzania Communication Regulatory Authority (TCRA), by 2016 a total of 123 radio stations had been licensed to operate in the country.

The Government has a plan of action for promoting gender awareness in media reporting. In addition, training for media professionals and reporters and also gender sensitization is conducted in order to combat stereotyping in reporting.

As the media and ICT content has to reflect sensitivity to GEWE, the Government has instituted
regulations regarding broadcasting of information which is sensitive to women and gender equality. Section 18 (f) and (g) of the Broadcasting Services (content) Regulations of 2005 states that every free-to-air licensee shall abide to the following:

- Not to air programmes that portray violence against women in drama as to encourage the idea that women are to be exploited or degraded through violence or are willing victims of violence.

- Not to air programmes that portray violence against women as an erotic experience.

- Where, in rare cases, links between violence and sexual gratification are explored as a serious theme in drama, any depiction must be justified by its content.209

The regulations also insist on portraying gender equality messages. This has however been challenging, given the weak capacity for enforcement, including pressures for profit maximisation in a neo-liberal environment which gives room for for the distribution of cheap entertainment and gossip that objectify women. Other issues at play in communicating about gender and women’s rights issues include, negative portrayals of women and limited media coverage such as underreporting or not reporting (silencing) of sensitive issues for women’s empowerment, trivialising the essential and stereotyping and/or reinforcing stereotypes. There is limited dedicated research on these issues to influence policy and sensitize communities.

It is however worth highlighting that an improvement is noted in women reporters increasingly ‘speaking about women’. The GMPS study of 2011 reports that women reporters feature significantly higher in reporting about topics related to gender equality and GBV and lower in topics on sports and political stories as is the case for their male colleagues. This is shown in Box 11.

**Box 11: Types of news coverage of women’s issues in the media – TV, newspapers**

There is more information on advocacy and protest in Tanzania (20 per cent) than in the region (11 per cent). However, information related to gender equality received less coverage than gender violence and the proportion remains worryingly low. Gender equality constitutes only 0.3 per cent of all topics covered during the monitoring period. Politics was given the most coverage at 19 per cent followed by sport and economics each at 13 per cent. The proportion of HIV and AIDS coverage to total coverage increased from 2 per cent in the 2006 HIV and AIDS and Gender Study to 3 per cent in GMPS. This is 1 per cent higher than the regional average. There was no change in the percentage of sources of information about HIV and AIDS because people living with HIV and AIDS accounted for 7 per cent of all sources in both studies, while the proportion of persons affected as sources of information increased from 6 per cent in 2006 HIV and AIDS and Gender Study to 51 per cent.210

This assessment on coverage did not cover the level to which community stories on gender equity and women’s experiences are broadcasted. For example, information such as that related to women’s stories on their own reproductive health, information about education facilities, to employment and to the policies that affect them and on legal rights. Currently, most of the major media houses have programmes dedicated to women and the youth which do try to reach out to women at the grassroots making the media more meaningful to them. A few examples include, Jarida la Wanawake (ITV), ‘Wanawake Live’ (Star TV) and ‘Binti’ (Mlimani TV) 211.

Popular and major sources of news and entertain-
ment for the majority of women and men in Tanzania which include tabloids, soap operas and sitcoms, popular music and dance (including ngoma), films and videos and popular literature, especially children's literature are increasing in volume but are still male dominated, and their role in portraying positive gender images is in dire need of a positive change. The same applies to aspects of sport, which employs and impacts women and men in different but profound ways.

In most popular cultural performances, such as ngoma and music, female performers are exploited, sometimes made to perform for the demands of audiences but hardly remunerated adequately. The Government through the National Arts Council of Tanzania (BASATA) has lamented on 'culturally indecent dressing' of female performers in public shows.

In the absence of alternative mechanisms that expose the communities to pathways of change and new ideas about gender which would enhance their capacity to expose myths and stereotypes on gender roles and women's image and rights, popular culture continues to be a forum for using and objectifying women as symbols of entertainment and profit maximisation for others.

The proliferation of video kiosks in both urban and rural Tanzania, and which have become popular among young women, men, including adolescents and children needs to be carefully monitored with a view to injecting constructive visual content. Unregulated distribution and entry is exposing under-aged Tanzanians to material which is predominantly violent and with graphic sexual images, featuring women as villains, victims and/or sex objects. The psychological implications of such experiences may be delicate especially on how future generations treat women and confront GEWE related issues.

These experiences are not well documented because of the lack of systematic or focused research to map them for monitoring and interventions. Likewise, the positive role of the media and ICT in enhancing livelihoods, such as credit opportunities, entrepreneurship training opportunities, production inputs and market opportunities is possibly profound but has not been documented adequately. Similarly missing are enlightening information on the role of the media and ICT in promoting women's participation in the democratic process [for instance, during the debates on the constitution review process 2013-14 or in gender budgeting. Such news could serve to encourage women on their right and capacity to take leadership and decision-making positions at all levels of society is lacking.

A study on the use of community radio conducted among pastoral communities of Simanjiro, Longido in Arusha and Same in Kilimanjaro regions in 2011 shows how informative local stations could be. People's experience of this radio included, having information on key women and gender issues including community needs such as lack of water sources which also have an implication on women's work load. Such studies could be replicated.

TAMWA has a programme to advance women in the media and provide training in ICT. The organization is also involved in sensitizing communities, especially women, on violence against women. With the rapid growth of the communication sector at

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<th>Category</th>
<th>2003 GMPS Tanzania % women</th>
<th>2010 GMPS Tanzania % women</th>
<th>2010 GMPS Region % women</th>
<th>2010 GMMP Global % women</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 All reporters</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 TV reporters</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 TV presenters</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
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<td>4 Radio reporters</td>
<td>40</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
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<td>5 Print reporters</td>
<td>21</td>
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Source: Gender Links (2010)
GMMP=Global Media Monitoring Report
sector to the extent that men do. There is a need therefore for the Government and its CSO partners to sponsor more gender-sensitive educational and entertainment content disseminated through ICT, community radio and social media channels.

This however requires strategies to strengthen the media and other communication channels with a gender perspective on information and programmes in urban and rural areas; and to strengthen the gender capacity of media and creative communication actors through developing a curriculum for language, literature and the art (including music, film, visual and performing art) and media training institutions which show how to communicate gender in a positive and more sensitive way.

12.6 Key issues and remaining challenges

The social and economic changes have limited the efforts of the Government and CSOs to promote reinforcement and affirming the integrity and dignity of women as human beings and equal citizens with clear rights. As such, the information and communications sector is an area that demands careful attention regarding its role in promoting GEWE in the country.

This can only happen if there is a gender policy to guide for instance the editorial practices of the media. The scope of such policy needs to be broadened to include the vast forms of media, including ICT-based, creative and popular media. Specific concerns across different areas are as follow:

- Inadequate integration of gender in the implementation of information and communication related policies.
- Inadequate/lack of sex disaggregated data to monitor the needs, positive and negative impacts of information and communication sources.
- Limited mechanisms to monitor growth of ICT which has allowed the unregulated distribution and dissemination of abusive information about gender and women.

- Access to ICT that would inform about GEWE and hence improve women’s situations is limited by affordability and also challenges in usability of ICT products and services.

**Key recommendations**

- Delineate and develop linkages between ICT and the 2005 Women and Development Strategy in order to enhance gender sensitivity in the implementation of ICT and broadband policies and deployment strategies. This should include engendering the ownership of media and information houses, and up-scaling the use of media to promote GEWE.

- Engendering the mechanisms for collecting and monitoring data on ICT and develop sex-disaggregated ICT statistics and measurements.

- Disseminate and sensitise on the regulations regarding permissible content using local authorities for wider outreach to the community.

- Enhance access to ICT products and services through alternative ownership systems or more public avenues such as community TV.
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21 TCU (2013)
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25 United Republic of Tanzania (2015)
26 The decline in per capita GDP in US$ was because of the deteriorating value of local currency against US dollar.
27 African Development Bank (2014)
28 United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
29 United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
30 United Republic of Tanzania (2014a). Reference is made to employment by ‘industry’ according to industry classification by the International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities (ISIC) Revision 4.
32 USAID (2014)
33 As defined in the 2014 ILFS, the term wage rate refers to the basic agreed rate of pay for normal time of work and relates to a time unit such as an hour, a day, week or month before any deductions are made. This section refers to monthly wage rate for regular employees in the formal sector.
34 As defined in the 2014 ILFS, cash earnings refer to the remuneration in cash paid to employees and are a major part of their total earnings at work. Generally, cash earnings include payments for time not worked such as annual vacation and other payments of accumulated leave made to employees, other guaranteed and regular paid allowances, payments for overtime work and house-rent paid directly to the employee United Republic of Tanzania, 2014a).
35 (United Republic of Tanzania (2014a).
36 Davids and Maliti (2015)
38 See United Republic of Tanzania (2006).
39 United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
40 United Republic of Tanzania (2008)
41 United Republic of Tanzania (2004a)
42 TGNP (2014)
43 Social Security Regulatory Authority (2015)
44 International Labour Organization (2014)
45 TAWIA (2009)
46 UDSM Gender Centre (2013)
47 TGNP Mtandao (2014)
48 ibid
49 Refers to care of the young and sick members of the households as well as unpaid services to the community such as assistance in times of sickness, death, or labour inputs into community projects (United Republic of Tanzania, 2014a)
50 Refers to learning, socializing, games, sports, mass media use and personal care and maintenance such as eating, bathing or sleeping (United Republic of Tanzania, 2014a).
51 United Republic of Tanzania (2006, 2014a)
52 World Food Programme (2013)
54 United Republic of Tanzania (2011)
55 See Waithanji et al (2013)
56 United Republic of Tanzania (2014a)
57 See for example, Kanesathasan (2012)
58 United Republic of Tanzania (2014c)
59 This section draws from UN Women, UNDP and World Bank (2015)
60 The gap is even higher (reaching 30 per cent) if the analysis takes into account factors such as plot area and agro-climatic condition.
61 The estimation of the contribution to the overall GDP took into account the contribution of crops to total agricultural output, the size of the agricultural sector in the overall economy, and spillover effects of higher agricultural output to other sectors of the economy.
62 United Republic of Tanzania (2015)
63 ibid
64 MEM (2011) and UNWOMEN (2016)
65 UN Women (2016)
66 UN Women (2016)
67 UN Women (2016)
68 UN Women (2016)
69 UN Women (2016)
70 United Republic of Tanzania (2013a)
72 United Republic of Tanzania (2015)
73 United Republic of Tanzania (2015)
74 These centres are located as follows: Dar es Salaam (Tabata Kisukuru, Mbande, Sabasaba, Ubungo Kibangu, Chanika, Chamanzi and Kunduchi Mtongani); Dodoma (Airport, Chamwino, Ipagala, Posta, Hazina Kikuyu, Kizota, Savanna Kikuyu, Chang’ombe, Mndani, Veyula, Mpwapwa, Kongwa and Mbande); and Mwanza (Nyakato, Igogo, Nyegezi, Pansiansi, Igoma, Kisesa, Magu, Misungwi and Kitangiri).
75 WWF (2014)
76 United Republic of Tanzania (2015d)
77 NHIF (2016)
78 United Republic of Tanzania (2014e)
79 United Republic of Tanzania (2016b)
80 United Republic of Tanzania (2014d)
81 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
82 United Republic of Tanzania (2014b)
83 UNICEF and World Health Organization (2015)
84 United Republic of Tanzania (2010b)
85 United Republic of Tanzania (2010b)
86 UNFPA (2014)
87 United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
88 United Republic of Tanzania (2016c)
89 UNWFP (2013)
90 UNWFP (2013)
91 UNWFP (2013)
92 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
93 United Republic of Tanzania (2016b)
94 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
95 URT, 2011
96 United Republic of Tanzania (2011)
97 UNWFP (2013)
98 Zero new HIV infections, zero discrimination and zero AIDS-related deaths
99 United Republic of Tanzania (2012b)
100 PMTCT Reports, 2010
101 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
102 SDC (2010)
103 Jhpiego (2013)
104 United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
105 United Republic of Tanzania (2012a)
106 Ashengo, et al. (2014)
107 Computed from budgetary data from the national budget speech by the Minister of Finance (2014/15, 2015/16 and 2016/17)
108 United Republic of Tanzania (2014i)
109 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
110 United Republic of Tanzania (2015f)
111 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
112 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
113 Zilimu (2014)
114 United Republic of Tanzania (2014f)
115 Karibu Tanzania Association and Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children (2015)
116 United Republic of Tanzania (2015j)
117 United Republic of Tanzania (2015a)
118 United Republic of Tanzania (2014i)
119 TCU reports, January, 2015
120 Tanzania Commission for Universities (2013)
121 15 years old+ individuals (census definition)
122 United Republic of Tanzania (2014b)
123 Bank of Tanzania (2016)
124 United Republic of Tanzania (2014d)
125 Kweyamba (2014)
126 Mush, n.d.
127 USAID (2015)
128 DPID (2014) and UNDP (2012).
129 Ibid footnote 41
130 Act No. 8 of 2002 as amended by Act No. 18 of 2007 (which established, inter alia, the Recruitment Secretariat Board to help to facilitate appointment in the public service).
131 The Tanzania Centre for Democracy (TCD) launched a Women Political Mentoring in August 2013, and since other CBOs have conducted similar exercises.
132 Ibid
133 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
134 Betron (2008)
135 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
136 Data from the Police Force, Dar es Salaam, June 2015
137 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
138 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
139 Oxfam (2013)
140 TACAIDS, Global AIDS Response Country Progress Report, March 2014
141 UNICEF (2011)
142 UNICEF (2011)
143 TAWJA (2011)
145 United Republic of Tanzania (2010)
146 UNICEF (2013)
147 United Republic of Tanzania (2004a and 2010)
148 USAID (2008)
149 Britt (2009)
150 HDT (2011)
152 Daily Newspaper, May 8th 2015. Article by Ludovick Kazoka
153 Legal and Human Right Centre (2013)
154 Legal and Human Right Centre (2012)
156 United Republic of Tanzania (2014c)
157 TAWJA (2011)
158 United Republic of Tanzania (2014c)
159 Engender Health (2013)
160 Likindoki (2012)
161 Breton (2008)
162 United Republic of Tanzania (2014c)
163 Most of the information is sourced from United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (2016)
164 SGBV among persons of concern is manifested in many forms, including but not limited to rape, sexual assault, physical assault, forced marriage, psychological and emotional abuse and denial of resources, opportunities and service (See the GBV IMS classification tool for more information - http://gbvims.com/wp/wp-content/uploads/ClassificationTool_Feb20112.pdf)
165 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (2016)
166 See, for example, the contradictory clauses between common law and customary law in the law of Marriage Act, 1971.
167 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (2016)
168 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (2016)
169 See particularly Articles 12 and 13 of the constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania. Articles 25 and 47 of the second draft constitution (inaugurated on 30 December 2013).
170 See, for instance, Article 13(1) of the constitution of Tanzania.
171 See particularly Article 17 of the 1977 constitution of Tanzania; Article 16 of the Zanzibar constitution (1984); the Employment and Labor Relations Act (2004); and Part IX of the Zanzibar Labor Relations Act (No. 1 of 2005).
174 See particularly the 13th Amendment to the constitution of Tanzania made in 2005 and the 10th Amendment to the constitution of Zanzibar made in 2010
175 The second Draft constitution has proposed the incorporation into the Bill of Rights a comprehensive list of rights, including a specific provision relating to the rights of women (Article 47).
176 Succession laws in Tanzania Mainland include the Probate and Administration of Estates Act, Cap. 352 R.E. 2002; the Rules on Will, Third Schedule to the Local Customary Law (Declaration) (1963) (No. 4) Oder, GN. No. 436 of 1963; and the Indian Succession Act (1965) (The Indian Succession Act was made applicable in Tanzania vide the Indian Acts (Application) Ordinance, Cap. 2 of the Laws of Tanganyika; and it is still recognized under the Judicature and Application of Laws Act, Cap. 358 R.E. 2002. However, Parts XXIX-XL and Section 333 of the Indian Succession Act does not apply in Tanzania in terms of item (a) the Second Schedule to the Judicature and Application of Laws Act).
177 Act No. 6 of 2004.
178 See Section 7(4) of the Employment and Labour Relations Act.
179 Popularly known as the Maputo Protocol
180 These annual exhibitions are organized and coordinated by the Tanzanian chapter of the Women in Law and Development in Africa (WILDAF)
181 The gender festivals are held once in every two years to, inter alia, raise awareness on women’s rights and welfare
182 Adopted in Maputo, Mozambique, on 11 July 2005 and entered into force on 25 November 2005
184 Swai et al (2012)
185 United Republic of Tanzania VPO, 2012
186 ibid
187 United Republic of Tanzania (1997)
188 TNRF (2011)
189 TNRF (2011)
190 United Republic of Tanzania (2001)
191 Yanda et al (2013)
192 PWANI Project (2012)
194 Barrow and Mlenge (2003); Monela et al (2005)
195 Meena and Sharif (2008)
196 Maliti and Leyaro (2016)
197 REDD+ Project (2014)
198 REDD+ Project, 20
199 See Hafkin (2002); Daly (2003); Yonah (2005) and United Republic of Tanzania (2005)
200 United Republic of Tanzania (2014)
201 Jones and Mhando (2006)
202 ibid
203 The EPOCA Act is a result of the harmonization of the Tanzania Broadcasting Service Act No. 6 of 1993, Tanzania Communications Act No. 18 of 1993 and Universal Communications Service Access Act of 2006, with the objective of creating an effective and attractive regulatory environment
204 Gender Links (2009)
205 Edda Sanga, a renowned Radio reporter believes that women’s representation in leadership positions in media houses in Tanzania, albeit still minimal, has had some influence in the portrayal of positive images of women (Interview on UN Radio, 12 February 2014)
206 GMPS, 2011, pp 46.
208 Tanzania Communication Regulatory Authority (2016a)
209 United Republic of Tanzania (2005)
210 Global Links (2011)
211 Jarida la Wanawake (lit: Women’s Newsletter); Wanawake Live (lit: Women Live); Binti (lit: girl/daughter).
212 Freemuse (2008)
213 Lobulu (2011). The role of Community Media in Tanzania