



Food and Agriculture Organization  
of the United Nations

## TANZANIA MAINLAND COUNTRY PROFILE

# Gender Inequalities in Rural Employment in Tanzania Mainland *An Overview*



TANZANIA MAINLAND COUNTRY PROFILE

**Gender Inequalities in  
Rural Employment in Tanzania Mainland**  
*An Overview*

By  
Martha Osorio,  
Monika Percic  
and Federica Di Battista

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS  
Rome, 2014

---

## RECOMMENDED CITATION

FAO, 2014. Tanzania Mainland country profile: gender inequalities in rural employment in Tanzania Mainland, an overview. Rome.

## COVER PHOTOS

Courtesy of Clara M. Park, FAO, and Patience Mutopo, Cologne Centre for African Studies, University of Cologne, Germany.

The designations employed and the presentation of material in this information product do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) concerning the legal or development status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. The mention of specific companies or products of manufacturers, whether or not these have been patented, does not imply that these have been endorsed or recommended by FAO in preference to others of a similar nature that are not mentioned.

The views expressed in this information product are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views or policies of FAO.

The designations employed and the presentation of material in the map(s) do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of FAO concerning the legal or constitutional status of any country, territory or sea area, or concerning the delimitation of frontiers.

© FAO, 2014

FAO encourages the use, reproduction and dissemination of material in this information product. Except where otherwise indicated, material may be copied, downloaded and printed for private study, research and teaching purposes, or for use in non-commercial products or services, provided that appropriate acknowledgement of FAO as the source and copyright holder is given and that FAO's endorsement of users' views, products or services is not implied in any way.

All requests for translation and adaptation rights, and for resale and other commercial use rights should be made via [www.fao.org/contact-us/licence-request](http://www.fao.org/contact-us/licence-request) or addressed to [copyright@fao.org](mailto:copyright@fao.org).

FAO information products are available on the FAO website ([www.fao.org/publications](http://www.fao.org/publications)) and can be purchased through [publications-sales@fao.org](mailto:publications-sales@fao.org).

---

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	III
LIST OF FIGURES.....	IV
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	VI
LIST OF ACRONYMS .....	VII
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY .....	VIII
INTRODUCTION.....	1
PART I: COUNTRY OVERVIEW .....	2
1.1    DEMOGRAPHIC CONTEXT .....	2
1.2    ECONOMIC CONTEXT.....	7
1.3    LITERACY, EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT.....	9
PART II: POVERTY AND INEQUALITIES IN RURAL TANZANIA MAINLAND .....	13
2.1    HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS AND POVERTY.....	14
2.2    INCOME SOURCES.....	17
PART III: GENDER INEQUALITIES IN RURAL EMPLOYMENT .....	20
3.1    LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION.....	21
3.2    EMPLOYMENT .....	21
3.3    SEASONALITY AND VISIBLE UNDEREMPLOYMENT .....	30
3.4    TIME USE.....	31
PART IV: GENDER PATTERNS IN FARMING .....	34
PART V: GENDER PATTERNS IN INTERNAL MOBILITY .....	39
KEY FINDINGS.....	42
CONCLUSION .....	44
METHODOLOGICAL NOTE.....	46
REFERENCES.....	51

## LIST OF FIGURES

### GRAPHS

Graph 1: Growth rate of population from 1960 to 2012 .....	3
Graph 2: Rural-urban distribution of the population by region (in %) .....	4
Graph 3: Total population structure.....	5
Graph 4: Urban and rural population structure .....	6
Graph 5: Female-headed households by region .....	7
Graph 6: Literacy rates in urban and rural areas (men and women, in %) .....	10
Graph 7: Male and female primary and secondary enrolment (rural and urban, in %).....	11
Graph 8: Highest qualification attained by women and men aged 25 years and above (rural and urban, in %) .....	11
Graph 9: Average age of household head by expenditure quintile .....	15
Graph 10: Total dependency rates by household head and by expenditure quintile.....	15
Graph 11: Average number of household members in working age by expenditure quintile .....	16
Graph 12: Average years of education of the household head by expenditure quintile .....	16
Graph 13: Participation in rural labour activities .....	17
Graph 14: Share of income from different labour activities .....	18
Graph 15: Labour force participation of women and men in urban and rural areas (in %).....	21
Graph 16: Employment rate in urban and rural areas by sex (in %) .....	21
Graph 17: Age structure of the female and male working population (rural and urban, by age groups) .....	22
Graph 18: Distribution of the employed population by educational attainment (rural and urban, in %) .....	22
Graph 19: Main sector of employment of rural women and men (in %).....	23
Graph 20: Average earnings for rural men and women by region in all employment types (Tanzania Shillings) .....	24
Graph 21: Employment status of rural women and men (in %).....	25
Graph 22: Distribution of the earnings from self-employment in agriculture activities in rural areas by sex (Tanzania Shillings) .....	26
Graph 23: Average weekly earnings of rural, self-employed (median) males and females by (Tanzania Mainland) regions (Tanzania Shillings) .....	26
Graph 24: First and second job by industry for both men and women (in %) .....	28
Graph 25: First and second job by status (in %) .....	28
Graph 26: Industry and status of 2nd job by sex(in %).....	29
Graph 27: Frequency and duration by employment status and sex (in %) .....	30
Graph 28: Visible underemployment in rural areas by age groups (in %) .....	31
Graph 29: Women's and men's time devoted to productive activities (in %) .....	32
Graph 30: Share of male and female landholders by region (in %).....	36
Graph 31: Main crops by type and sex of farmers .....	37
Graph 32: Use of improved seeds by sex and type of activity of the holder (in %) .....	38
Graph 33: for migrating by sex and destination – total population older than 14 (in %) .....	40
Graph 34: Reasons for migrating by sex and destination – youth population (in %).....	40
Graph 35: Working reasons for migrating by sex for individuals aged 14 and above (in %).....	41

## TABLES

Table 1: Distribution of urban and rural population (Tanzania and Tanzania Mainland, in %) .....	4
Table 2: FGT measures of poverty for the rural population by sex of the head of the household (in %).....	9
Table 3: Highest grade achieved for those not having completed primary education cycle (in %) .....	12
Table 4: Highest educational attainment in FHHs and MHHs (rural and urban, in %) .....	12
Table 5 : Percentage incidence of poverty in Tanzania Mainland (poverty head count index, in %) .....	13
Table 6: RIGA classification of income sources .....	14
Table 7: Characteristics of rural households by expenditure quintiles .....	18
Table 8: Unpaid family workers in agriculture by age and educational attainment (in %).....	27
Table 9: Average share of total hours in a week devoted to productive activities (main and second jobs) by male and female for all age groups (in %) .....	32
Table 10: Reproductive activities for employed males and females by age-category, total minutes per week .....	33
Table 11: Age of landholders by sex (in %).....	36
Table 12: Use of inputs by sex of the farmer (in %) .....	37
Table 13: Number of working days of hired labour by sex of the farmer and of the labourer per season ....	38
Table 14: Migrants by age group and sex (in %).....	39

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Our sincere thanks go to all those who helped make this report possible and useful. In the foremost place we would like to thank Sebastiaan Soeters (Utrecht University), Clara M. Park (FAO) and Lucia Latino (FAO) for their research and technical assistance. The completion of the Country Profile would not have been feasible without the valuable support of Rob Vos, Director of the Social Protection Division (ESP). Other FAO/ESP Staff members who played a significant role in the review process include Peter Wobst, Ileana Grandelis, Ana Paula Dela O Campos, Elisenda Estruch, Ilaria Sisto and Anamaria Paezvalencia.

The provision of data, relevant information and inputs received from national stakeholders, including the Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics, the Ministry of Labour and Employment, the Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security and Cooperatives, the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children and the ILO Tanzania Country Office, as well as the RIGA team of the FAO Agricultural Development Economics Division and the FAO Tanzania Country Office, were essential in facilitating the preparation of the report.

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ATA	Association of Tanzania Employers
CEDAW	Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESW	Gender, Equity and Rural Employment Division of FAO
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
FHH	Female Head of Household/Female-headed household
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPI	Human Poverty Index
HIS	Integrated Household Survey
ICESC	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
LGA	Local Government Authority
MAFC	Ministry of Agriculture Food Security and Cooperatives
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDGC	Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children
MDA	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MFEA	Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs
MHH	Male Head of Household/Male-headed household
MEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NPS	National Panel Survey
OSH	Occupational Safety and Health
PEDP	Primary Education Development Plan
SADC	Southern African Development Community
TPAWU	Tanzania Plantation and Agricultural Workers Union
RIGA	Rural Income Generating Activities
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UN-SC	United Nations Security Council
URT	United Republic of Tanzania



## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This country profile, prepared by the Social Protection Division (ESP) of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), aims to contribute to a better understanding of the types and the degree of existing employment-related gender inequalities in rural settings of Tanzania Mainland and highlight key areas of attention for policy makers conducive to poverty reduction and food security. It constitutes an important added value to existing sources, most notably because it provides rural-specific information and cross-examines different dimensions of inequality. The country profile assesses the nature and degree of existing gender disparities in employment and income in rural areas, linking them to factors such as education, age and wealth when possible.

Tanzania Mainland remains a primarily rural country with an agriculture-based economy and significant rural-urban and regional socio-economic disparities. It is widely recognized that improving the performance of the agriculture sector is critical for poverty reduction and food security. At the same time, a body of evidence has demonstrated that the underperformance of the agriculture sector is partially due to the existing gender inequalities in access, use and control of assets, resources, and services, including rural employment. Women, particularly in rural areas, are often disadvantaged in terms of decent work and income generating opportunities owing to limited access and control over resources, including education and training, land and decision-making powers. Rural women face greater difficulties in translating their labour into gainful and productive work that could ultimately lead to a reduction of poverty and enhancement of food security.

Agriculture is the largest sector of employment in Tanzania Mainland, with the vast majority of rural women and men employed in agriculture, mostly as self-employed on their own farms. The present country profile identified persisting gender inequalities in Tanzania Mainland, particularly in terms of access to productive resources, income generating and employment opportunities, time-use patterns and educational possibilities.

Rural women play a major role in farming, but face major constraints in access to productive resources. The majority of the rural working-age population in Tanzania Mainland is employed in the agricultural sector. Self-employment in agriculture is the most common form of labour deployment among rural people, in particular rural women. However, despite the crucial role women play in agriculture, their access to productive resources is more limited than that of their male counterparts. Nearly three-quarters of all landholders are men. When they are owners, women tend to have smaller plots. They own less livestock than men and have more restricted access to new technologies, training, vocational education, extension advice, credit and other financial services. In addition, self-employed women in agriculture are more likely to use their land for subsistence farming than for commercial farming. Farm activities are the most important source of income for rural households, and account for approximately half of household incomes across all expenditure quintiles. Self-employed women in agriculture earn significantly less than men, although there are significant regional variations. While more women than men are employed as casual labourers, the average wage for women is almost three times less than those paid to men. Most women in rural Tanzania work in low paying jobs.

Significant shares of female (48 percent) and male (34 percent) workers in rural areas have multiple occupations, but women are overrepresented in unpaid employment, particularly in their second occupation. This is probably because subsistence farmers often face meagre earnings from their primary source of livelihood as well as underemployment due to the seasonal nature of agricultural work. Although more women have a second job than men, most work as unpaid family workers in second jobs, henceforth, they do not generate extra monetary income from having two jobs. Nevertheless, second jobs are crucial for household well-being in the absence of social safety nets and service provision.

Heavy engagement of rural women in domestic, care and community activities limits their productive and educational potential. Social and cultural norms determine the role that women and men play in society, the community, and within households. Accordingly, the distribution of time between productive and reproductive activities differs substantially between men and women. In rural Tanzania Mainland, both men and women undertake a number of productive and reproductive activities. However, available data reveal that there is a wide gender gap in time allocation. Domestic tasks and household chores such as food preparation, water and fuel collection, and caring for children and the elderly are primarily carried out by women. Meanwhile, although rural men spend more time than rural women on productive and income-generating activities, the difference is not substantial, meaning that women's productive work often just gets added on to their existing reproductive work burden. As a result of time constraints, female workers encounter more difficulties in undertaking productive work, or even in combining part-time work with training or vocational education. Within households, the allocation of roles and time use is determined from childhood. Already at a young age, girls tend to be more involved than boys in reproductive activities such as cooking, fetching water and taking care of younger household members.

Education is a key component of human capital, and plays a fundamental role in determining households' ability to access better labour opportunities and escape poverty. Thanks to its education policies, Tanzania Mainland has successfully increased primary enrolment of girls and boys, and is close to achieving full gender parity in primary education. However, national illiteracy rates are still very high, especially in rural areas where 39 percent of women and 23 percent of men are illiterate. Out of the 59 percent of rural women aged 25 and above who have not obtained a primary qualification, as many as 74 percent never completed their first year, and only 11 percent completed the fourth year of schooling. The situation is even worse when looking at the percentages of rural men and women with secondary school qualifications: less than 0.5 percent in rural areas and around 2 percent in urban areas, with minor gender inequalities. In rural areas, only 15 percent of girls and boys are enrolled in secondary school compared with 48 percent in urban areas. Female members of female headed households tend to be the most disadvantaged.

Considering these gender inequalities, efforts are required to promote gender equality as a cross cutting priority in national policies, strategies and programmes that support gender-equitable decent employment in Tanzania Mainland, particularly in rural areas. The results of which will bring prosperity not only at the individual and household level through reduction of poverty and food insecurity but will also benefit communities and drive sustainable development of the rural economy and the agricultural sector on the whole.

## INTRODUCTION

Tanzania consists of two main areas, Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar. Due to data constraints, this country profile focuses on Tanzania Mainland only.<sup>1</sup> Rural poverty in Tanzania Mainland is widespread and both rural men and women face deficits in the quantity and quality of employment and income generating opportunities. However, rural women are often more disadvantaged than their male counterparts. As a result, women have greater difficulties than men in translating their labour into gainful and productive work that could increase food security and enhance their livelihoods. In view of this, efforts are needed to promote gender equality in labour markets and income-generating activities, and to support decent employment initiatives in rural areas. Yet, such efforts are often hampered by a lack of comprehensive information on the multiple dimensions of gender inequalities, particularly in rural areas. This country profile, developed by the Social Protection Division (ESP) of the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO), is intended to provide a response to this need.

This profile aims to contribute to a better understanding of the types and the degree of existing employment-related gender inequalities in rural settings of Tanzania Mainland and highlight key areas of attention for policy makers to better integrate gender equality and decent rural employment in agriculture and rural development policies and programmes. It constitutes an important added value to existing sources, most notably because it provides rural-specific information and cross-examines different dimensions of inequality. The country profile assesses the nature and degree of existing gender disparities in employment and income in rural areas, linking them to factors such as education, age and wealth when possible. In addition, it provides basic information on gender inequalities in education, recognizing its close correlation and support to increasing labour productivity and income generating capacity.<sup>2</sup>

The country profile relies upon the most recently available quantitative information and nationally representative survey data. In particular, it is based on the National Panel Survey (NPS) 2009, the FAO Rural Income Generating Activities (RIGA) 2009 database<sup>3</sup>, and the Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS) 2006. Specific methodological considerations are provided throughout the country profile and in the methodological note. The country profile is divided into four main parts. Part I provides an overview of the demographic and economic context, and of the literacy and education situation in the country. Part II addresses income, poverty and inequalities in rural Tanzania Mainland at the household level looking at how demographic characteristics, educational attainment and income sources shape such inequalities. Part III looks in detail at gender differences and inequalities in rural employment at the individual level. This part explores labour force participation, employment patterns in rural areas, and linkages between education level and employment. Part IV provides a snapshot of the farming population in rural areas including demographic characteristics, land tenure, land use patterns, holding size, use of inputs and wage labour. Part V addresses gender patterns in internal mobility (both rural-rural and rural-urban), looking at key drivers of migration and in particular labour-related migration.

---

<sup>1</sup> In sections of this country profile where Zanzibar has been included in the estimates (for instance, in the demographic section), this will be explicitly mentioned. The reason for focusing on the Mainland is that the available database for the Integrated Labour Force Survey 2006 (ILFS 2006) comprises only the Mainland. Thus, for the purpose of comparison, it was decided to restrict the analysis of the National Panel Survey (NPS) to the same sample population.

<sup>2</sup> Although we are aware that child labour is an important issue in Tanzania, especially in the rural areas of the country, we decided not to include information on child labour in the employment section of the country profile for two main reasons: first to be consistent with the other country profiles (Malawi and Ghana) for which the same decision was taken because of the lack of data on the topic. Second, even though the specific section on child labour in the ILFS 2006 questionnaire meant that the availability of data was significantly greater than for Malawi and Ghana, the section of the survey focuses on paid wage employment only, hence, not covering specifically child labour in rural areas and in agriculture, where children most commonly work. Nonetheless, relevant information on this age category of the population is provided in the time-use section of this country profile.

<sup>3</sup> The FAO RIGA database is composed of a series of constructed variables on rural income generating activities created from the National Panel Survey. See: <http://www.fao.org/economic/riga/en/>.

## PART I: COUNTRY OVERVIEW

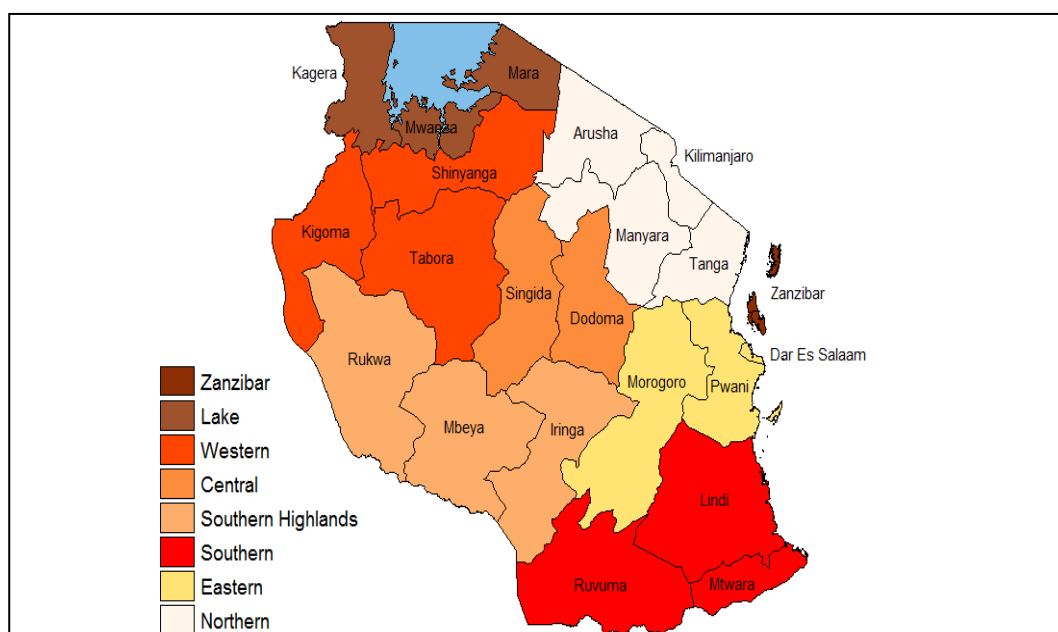
### Did you know?

- Tanzania's population is predominantly rural, with 76 percent of the total population residing in rural areas, and young, with 64 percent of the total population aged under 25 years.
- The country is primarily an agriculture-based economy by which agriculture generates 28 percent of the GDP and employs 88 percent of the working population.
- Primary school enrolment is high throughout Tanzania, however, school dropout rates are particularly high in rural areas. Half of the men and 74 percent of the women aged 25 and above who have not obtained primary qualification have not even completed their first year.
- Women head about a quarter of all rural households, and female members of female-headed households are the most disadvantaged in terms of education.

### 1.1 Demographic context<sup>4</sup>

Until recently, Tanzania Mainland was composed of 21 administrative regions: Dodoma, Arusha, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Morogoro, Pwani, Dar-es-Salaam, Lindi, Mtwara, Ruvuma, Iringa, Mbeya, Singida, Tabora, Rukwa, Kigoma, Shinyanga, Kagera, Mwanza, Mara and Manyara, sub-divided into 114 districts. In 2012 four new administrative regions were added: Katavi, Simiyu, Geita and Njombe, that make additional of 19 districts. In total, Tanzania Mainland currently has 25 administrative regions, sub-divided into 133 districts. The scope of the sample from the NPS 2009 – 3280 households – does not allow for the production of reliable statistics at the regional and district levels. However, significant statistics can be produced by aggregating the 25 administrative regions<sup>5</sup> into eight main areas: North, Central, Eastern, South, Southern Highlands, West, Lake and Zanzibar, as shown in Map 1.

**Map 1: Tanzania's seven main areas**



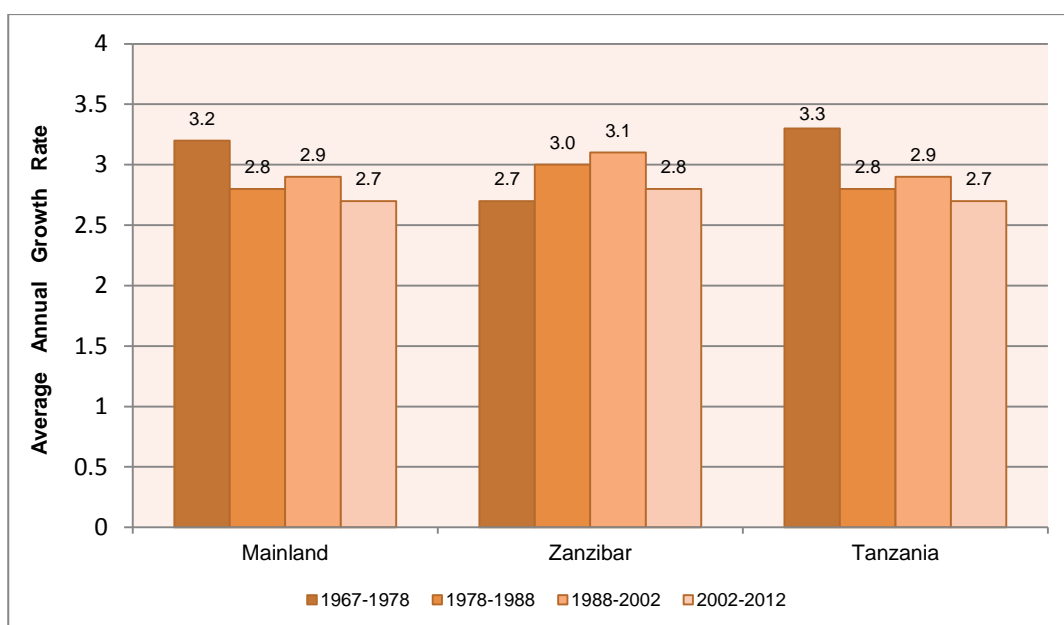
Source: NPS 2009

<sup>4</sup> This section includes Zanzibar in the estimates.

<sup>5</sup> The four new administrative regions are not shown as they were not yet considered as separate in the data aggregation process.

The 2012 Population and Housing Census (PHC) carried out by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) counted a total of 44,928,923 million people, of which 43,625,354 lived in Tanzania Mainland. The 2012 Census results revealed that 51 percent of Tanzanians were females and 49 percent were males, in line with other African countries<sup>6</sup>. The sex ratio of Tanzania Mainland was 95 males per 100 females. Population density is 51 people per square kilometre in Tanzania Mainland but there is a wide variation across regions. If the administrative regions are taken into account, population densities varies from 3133 persons per square kilometre in the Dar es Salaam region to 13 persons per square kilometre in Lindi. Female-headed households (FHHs) account for 25 percent of households nationally and for 24 percent in rural areas<sup>7</sup>. The average household size in Tanzania Mainland is 4.8 persons. Over 55 percent of households in Tanzania have a household size of 3 to 6 members<sup>8</sup>. Between 1960 and 2012, the population more than tripled sustained by an average population growth rate of about 3 percent annually. In Tanzania, the population growth rate has declined from 3.3 percent in 1967 to 2.7 percent in 2012. Tanzania Mainland shows a decline from 3.2 percent in 1967 to 2.7 percent in 2012. The growth rate of the population remained relatively stable at just above 3 percent until the early 1990s when it experienced a sharp decrease rising again to just under 3 percent in the first decade of the new millennium (see Graph 1). This is partly due to the influx of thousands of refugees from neighbouring countries.

**Graph 1: Growth rate of population from 1960 to 2012**



Source: NBS (2013) 2012 Census results

As shown in Table 1, the share of the urban population has been increasing steadily over time. The average annual population growth rate for the period between 2010 and 2015 is estimated at 4.7 percent in urban areas and 2.2 percent in rural areas<sup>9</sup>.

<sup>6</sup> National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) website <http://www.nbs.go.tz/sensa/new.html>

<sup>7</sup> URT 2006.

<sup>8</sup> NBS and ICF Macro, 2011.

<sup>9</sup> <http://data.un.org/CountryProfile.aspx?crName=United%20Republic%20of%20Tanzania>

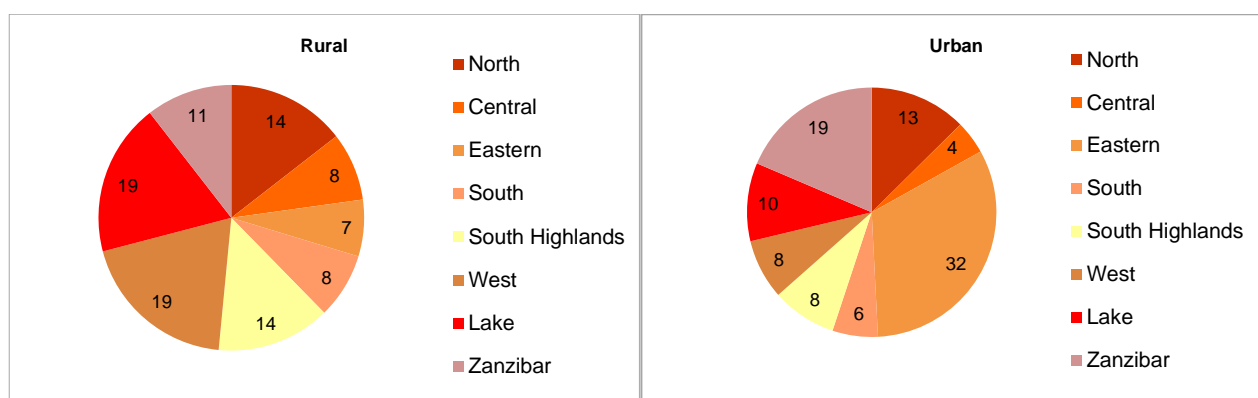
**Table 1: Distribution of urban and rural population (Tanzania and Tanzania Mainland, in %)**

Year	Tanzania Total		Tanzania Mainland	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1967	93.6	6.4	94.3	5.7
1978	86.2	13.8	86.7	13.3
1988	81.6	18.4	82.0	18.0
2002	76.9	23.1	77.4	22.6
2009	76.2	23.8	77.9	22.1

Source: Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics; NPS 2009<sup>10</sup>

**Tanzania is largely rural with some differences in the sex distribution of the population<sup>11</sup>.** Despite rapid urbanization, Tanzania Mainland remains largely rural. In 2009, around 78 percent of the Tanzania Mainland population was living in rural areas.<sup>12</sup> Graph 2 shows the rural-urban distribution of the total national population by region. In addition, the NPS 2009 reveals that there are small differences in the sex distribution of the population in rural areas (51 percent female population versus 49 of male population) which is a common pattern in most of African countries<sup>13</sup>, whilst in urban areas females represent 53 percent of the total urban population.

**Graph 2: Rural-urban distribution of the population by region (in %)**



Source: NPS 2009

**Tanzania has a young population.** The age structure of the population forms an almost perfect pyramid (see Graph 3). In 2009, around 64 percent of the total population was below the age of 25. The average age was 22.3 years for males and 22.7 years for females. Such a young population structure is mainly due to high fertility rates and low life expectancy. The young and rapidly growing population is also characterized by a high dependency rate of 90 percent<sup>14</sup>, which is one of the factors contributing to high and persistent levels of poverty. In the male population, the pyramid shows a gap of 5 percentage points in the 15-19 and the 20-24 age groups. This could indicate the presence of a significant flow of outbound migration of young

<sup>10</sup> The figures needed to calculate the distribution of urban and rural population were not publicly available when this report was finalized.

<sup>11</sup> Although the recently released findings of the 2012 census data provide a more up-to-date picture of the demographic characteristics of Tanzanian population, the demographic figures presented from this section onwards are based on the national representative household survey NPS 2009 because the education and agriculture section calculations were based on NPS 2009 data. Cross references were made to ensure consistency of the data used.

Moreover being the NPS 2009 sample representative for Tanzania overall and its macro-areas (see Map1 for further details), at these level we are not losing representativeness by using this survey instead of the census.

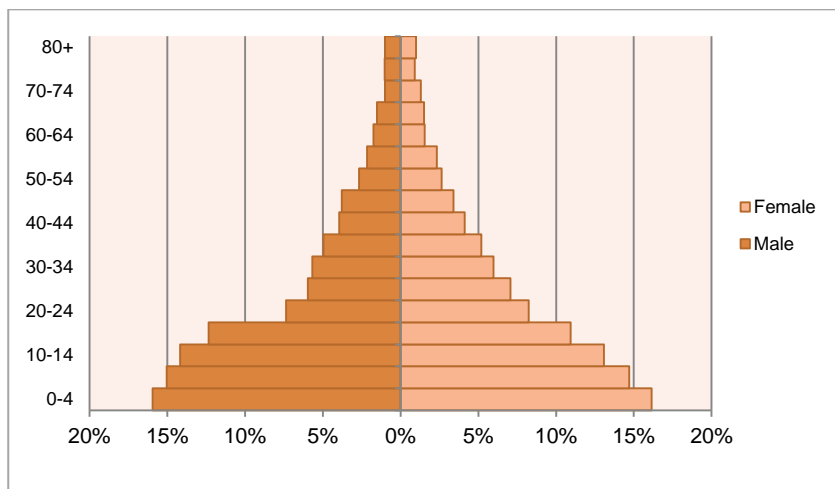
<sup>12</sup> NPS, 2009.

<sup>13</sup> NBS (2013). 2012 population and housing census.

<sup>14</sup> UNDP, 2010.

men in recent years<sup>15</sup>. Although Tanzania’s net (out) migration decreased between 2005 and 2010 from – 345 thousand to – 300 thousand<sup>16</sup>, as a percentage of total population, Tanzania’s net (out) migration is high when compared to other sub-Saharan African countries<sup>17</sup>. However, more research is needed to provide clarity in this issue.

**Graph 3: Total population structure**



Source: NPS 2009

The mean age of the total population in rural areas is 22.2 years, and in urban areas 23.5 years, indicating that the young and adult age groups are less represented in rural areas where almost half of the population – 47 percent – is made up of children aged 0-14. In contrast, in urban areas the 0-14 age group accounts for 37 percent of the total, while 40 percent of the population is distributed within the 15-34 age group. Consistent with national findings, both pyramids shrink considerably starting from 20-24 years (see Graph 4), which seems to confirm that an outflow of people is leaving the country. However, differences between the 15-19 and 20-24 age groups in urban and rural areas may also be due, albeit to a much lesser extent, to rural youth moving to urban areas.<sup>18</sup>

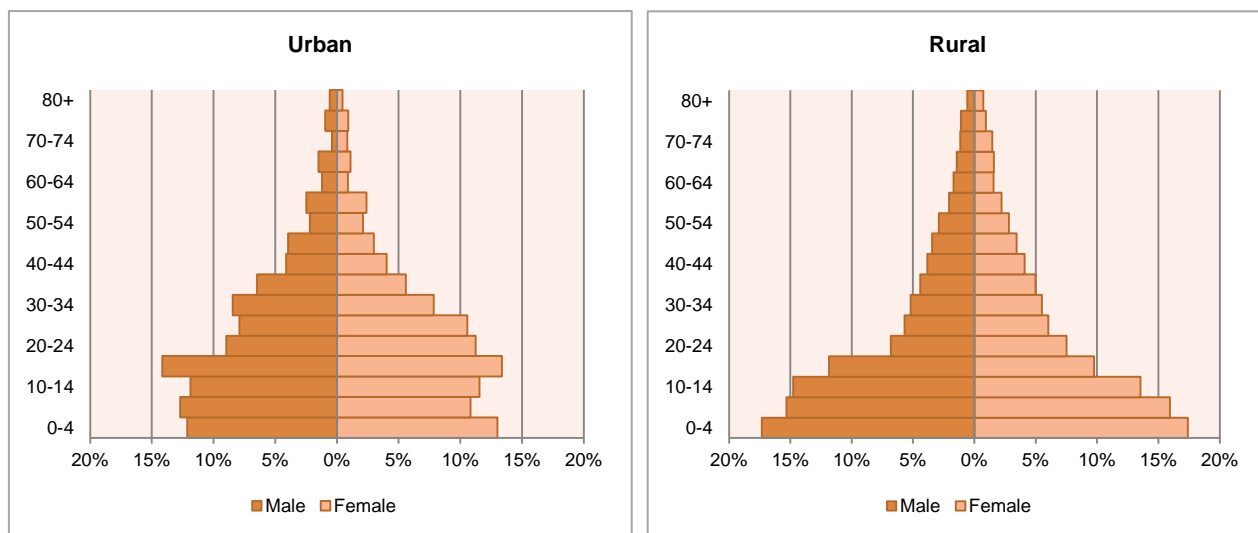
<sup>15</sup> During the three election periods of 1995, 2000 and 2004 political unrest in Zanzibar forced many youths to flee to the UK (IOM 2009).According to the Home Office, Zanzibar youths were among the most numerous group of applicants for asylum between 1995 and 2000.

<sup>16</sup> World Bank Data, net migration, Tanzania.

<sup>17</sup> Net out-migration is measured as the total number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants.

<sup>18</sup> Although rural-urban migration of youths has had an impact on differences in respective rural and urban population pyramids, the impact of rural-urban migration over the period 2001-2002 was not particularly significant. The relative contribution of migration to urban growth in Tanzania was 17.3 percent (against an average of 25 percent for Africa. The remaining 82.7 percent of urban growth was the result of internal growth and reclassification. See Muzzini and Lindeboom, 'Urban Transition in Tanzania, [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/CMUDLP/Resources/tanzania\\_wp.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/CMUDLP/Resources/tanzania_wp.pdf)

**Graph 4: Urban and rural population structure**



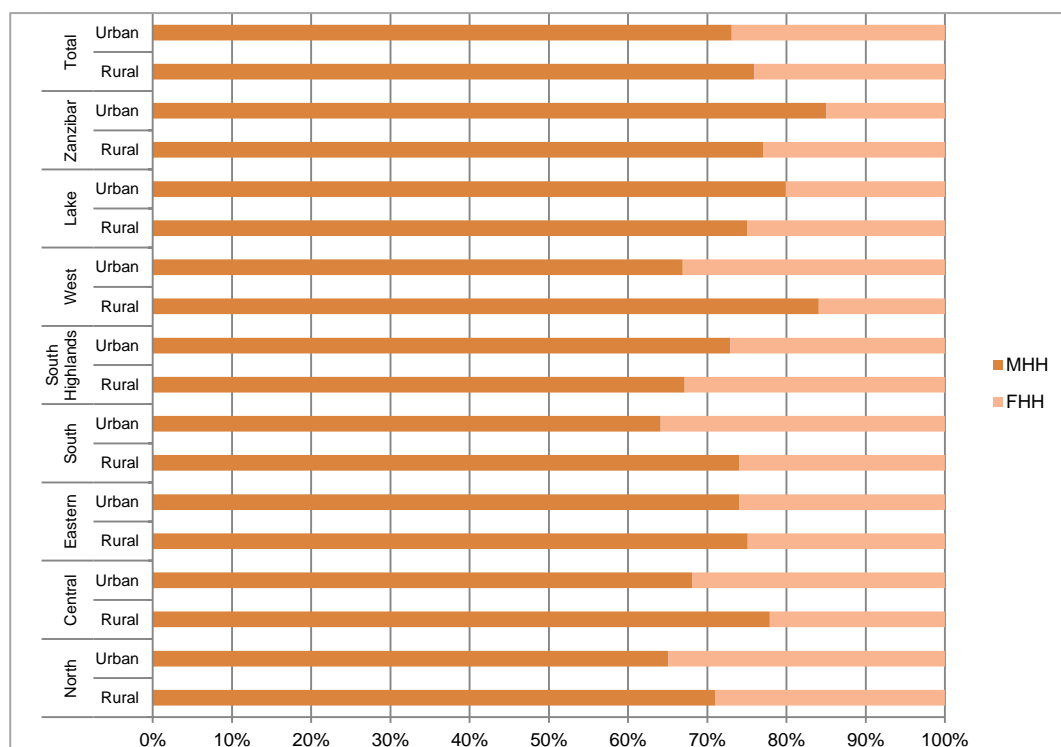
Source: NPS 2009

In Tanzania around 25 percent of households<sup>19</sup> are headed by women, about half of whom are widows. The national average of household heads by gender obscures important geographical differences, ranging from 16 percent of FHHs in the rural West area, to 36 percent in the urban South. Overall, in rural areas, FHHs account for about 24 percent of the total households, whereas in urban areas FHHs account for 27 percent of total households. The highest share of female headship in rural areas is observed in the North (29 percent), followed by the South and the South Highlands (26 percent, see Graph 5).

<sup>19</sup> The enumerator manual of the NPS 2008/09 defines the household's head as "the member of the given household who holds the role of decision maker in that household; other residents normally recognize this individual as their head. In most cases the household head should take part in the economy, control, and the welfare of the household in general." This definition is in line with the one adopted for the 2002 census: "A head of household in the context of the 2002 census is a person among the household members who is acknowledged by other members of the same household as their head. This individual is the spokesperson of the household members and is the one who often makes the decision concerning the welfare of the members of the household."



**Graph 5: Female-headed households by region**



Source: NPS 2009

A closer look at the structure of FHHs reveals that the majority of these households are headed by widows (47 percent), followed by those headed by divorced or separated women (27 percent).

**In rural areas male-headed households (MHHs) are larger than female-headed households, but have fewer dependents.** The average size of households in Tanzania Mainland is 5.2 members (5.4 individuals in rural areas and 4.6 individuals in urban areas). In Tanzania Mainland FHHs comprise on average 3.8 individuals in urban areas and 4.3 in rural areas, while MHHs consist on average of 4.9 individuals in urban areas and of 5.8 individuals in rural areas. As a result, FHHs have reduced workforce availability, which is especially relevant in rural areas. Moreover, FHHs are constrained by a larger share of dependent members: the dependency rate<sup>20</sup> for FHHs is 1.6 compared to 1.3 for MHHs.<sup>21</sup> This places additional pressure on the FHHs' productive members, as FHHs have higher dependency rates and fewer members. However, in order to gain a clearer picture of the situation, a comparative analysis of the households' composition should be conducted (in particular distinguishing between de jure and de facto FHHs, and investigating orphanhood).

## 1.2 Economic context<sup>22</sup>

Tanzania's per capita GDP at purchasing power parity (PPP) was estimated to be US\$ 591.19 in 2012<sup>23</sup>. The country has sustained high economic growth over the last decade, driven by structural reforms, steadily increasing its levels of exports and experiencing a significant financial deepening. Growth in GDP has been between 5 and 7 percent in recent years, underpinning notable development results. The main drivers of growth over the past decade have been mining, construction, communications, and the financial sector.

<sup>20</sup> This indicator measures the ratio of the number of people of non-working age (aged 0-14 and over 65) to the number of those of working age.

<sup>21</sup> The calculated difference between FHH and MHH is statistically significant at a 1 percent level.

<sup>22</sup> Data sources available for Zanzibar make possible to include information on Zanzibar in this section.

<sup>23</sup> World Bank, 2012.

Manufacturing, transport, and tourism have also posted solid growth rates. The service sector constitutes 47 percent of total value-added in the economy, compared to 36 percent in 1990.<sup>24</sup>

Despite the changes in the economic structure over the last decades, the country continues to have an agriculture-based economy that is highly dependent on rain-fed agriculture. The agricultural sector generates 25 percent of the GDP<sup>25</sup>, employs about 88 percent of the employed population, and accounts for between 50 and 66 percent of exports, according to different sources<sup>26</sup>. Food crop production is the most prevalent land use: 85 percent of the 5.1 million hectares cultivated annually<sup>27</sup> are used for a wide range of food crops<sup>28</sup>, including maize, which is the main food crop, alongside sorghum, millet, rice, wheat, beans, cassava, bananas and potatoes. The main traditional export crops are coffee, cashews, cotton, sugar, tobacco, tea, sisal and spices from Zanzibar<sup>29</sup>, while horticultural and floricultural crops are emerging cash crops. Horticulture is the fastest growing agricultural sub-sector in Tanzania, worth US\$ 45 million per year and providing direct employment to more than 10 000 people<sup>30</sup>. However, overall agricultural productivity is still very low. The sector depends on smallholder farm households that possess an average of between 0.9 and 3.0 hectares of land for a total land area of about 3 million hectares – equal to 34 percent of the total arable land<sup>31</sup>. About 70 percent of the cropped area is cultivated by hand hoe, 20 percent by ox plough and 10 percent by tractor. It is mostly rain-fed, with only 3.5 percent of arable land being under irrigation<sup>32</sup>.

Notwithstanding the economic transformation of the recent decades, Tanzania remains one of the poorest countries in the world, ranking 152 out of 187 countries on the HDI.<sup>33</sup> Despite sustained macro-economic growth, with the GDP growth rate accelerating from 4.1 percent in 1998 to 7.4 percent<sup>34</sup> in 2008, according to the National Panel Survey (NPS) 2008/09, 34 percent of the population continues to fall below the basic needs poverty line<sup>35</sup> and 17.4 percent below the food poverty line<sup>36</sup>. This represents about a 1 percent and 5 percent increase respectively in the poverty rates compared to the same data for 2007, when the values stood at 33.6 percent and 16.6 percent. Thus, Tanzania is lagging behind in meeting both nationally and internationally (MDGs<sup>37</sup>) set targets for poverty reduction. In addition, inequality also increased, with the Gini coefficient<sup>38</sup> rising from 0.35 to 0.38 between 2000 and 2007<sup>39</sup>. The poorest 20 percent of the population of Tanzania earn at present only 6.8 percent of the total income.

Poverty is widespread in rural areas. The proportion of rural population living below the basic needs line is about 40 percent, while those living below the food poverty line stands at 20 percent (for further details see table 5 part II). Interestingly, looking at the head-count ration FHHs are less affected by poverty compared to their male counterparts. Nonetheless the difference between the two categories shrinks when

---

<sup>24</sup> Ibid.

<sup>25</sup> MAFC (2008) Agriculture Sector Review and Public Expenditure Review 2008/09

<sup>26</sup> According to the National Website of the United Republic of Tanzania agricultural exports make up about two-thirds of total exports, 50 percent according to the Agricultural Sector Development Programme (ASDP), and 60 percent according to the Rural Poverty Portal.

<sup>27</sup> URT, 2010b.

<sup>28</sup> Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, National Information by Topics; Agriculture. <http://www.tanzania.go.tz/agriculture.html>

<sup>29</sup> International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2007.

<sup>30</sup> TPAWU, 2011, Action Research Report: Factors Affecting Labour Conditions in Horticulture Industry in Tanzania, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania: TPAWU.

<sup>31</sup> National Website of the United Republic of Tanzania (<http://www.tanzania.go.tz>)

<sup>32</sup> <http://www.tanzania.go.tz/agriculture.html>

<sup>33</sup> Human Development Index, UNDP 2011.

<sup>34</sup> GDP growth per annum has almost doubled over the last decade averaging about 7 percent per annum since 2000. As a result of the global economic and financial crisis, GDP growth fell to 6.7 percent in 2009 and 6.4 percent in 2010. It is projected to increase at a rate 6.5-7 percent in the time period 2012-2014 (World Bank).

<sup>35</sup> The national poverty line is adjusted for the prices faced by households in different areas.

<sup>36</sup> The food poverty line is the minimum spending per person needed to provide 2,200 calories a day for one month, based on the foods consumed by the poorest 50 percent of the population.

<sup>37</sup> While the Tanzanian Mkukuta II (NSGRP II) aimed to reduce the incidence of basic needs poverty to 24 percent in rural areas and to 12.9 percent in urban areas by 2010, The Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target is a 50 percent reduction in the incidence of poverty between 1990 and 2015.

<sup>38</sup> The GINI coefficient of inequality, commonly used as measure of inequality, varies between 0, which reflects complete equality and 1, which indicates complete inequality.

<sup>39</sup> <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI/>

more weight is given to the depth of poverty<sup>40</sup>, indicating that although the share is lower, poverty suffered by FHH is more deep.

**Table 2: FGT measures of poverty for the rural population by sex of the head of the household (in %)**

	MHH	FHH	Total
FGT0: poverty incidence	40.2	38.3	40.0
FGT1: poverty gap	12.5	11.6	12.4
FGT2: severity of poverty	5.4	4.8	5.3

Source: NPS 2009

The recent policy orientation has focused on growth for poverty reduction and lessening of gender and social inequalities<sup>41</sup>. Within this framework, agriculture has been attributed a key role in contributing not only to the country's economic growth, but also to the realization of Tanzania's National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty and of the first Millennium Development Goal, which aims to halve poverty and food insecurity by 2015.

### 1.3 Literacy, education and educational attainment

Education is a key component of human capital and plays a fundamental role in determining the ability of households to access better labour opportunities and escape poverty. Populations with higher levels of education, or more years of schooling, are more likely to have favorable labour market outcomes, in terms of job opportunities and higher incomes.

In Tanzania, Kiswahili or Swahili and English are official languages. The government has been trying to regulate language use through the educational system by prescribing the medium of instruction to be used at each level of education: Kiswahili for primary and adult education and English for secondary and tertiary education<sup>42</sup>. However, local languages are, for most people, first languages. In Tanzania Mainland, 64 percent of the population aged 15 and above is able to read and write Kiswahili, 1 percent is proficient in English only, and 9 percent can read and write in both languages. The literacy rate in rural areas is below the national average. While the literacy rate in urban areas is 89 percent (94 percent for men and 86 percent for women), only 68 percent of the rural population (77 percent of men and 61 percent of women) are able to read and write either in Kiswahili or in English.

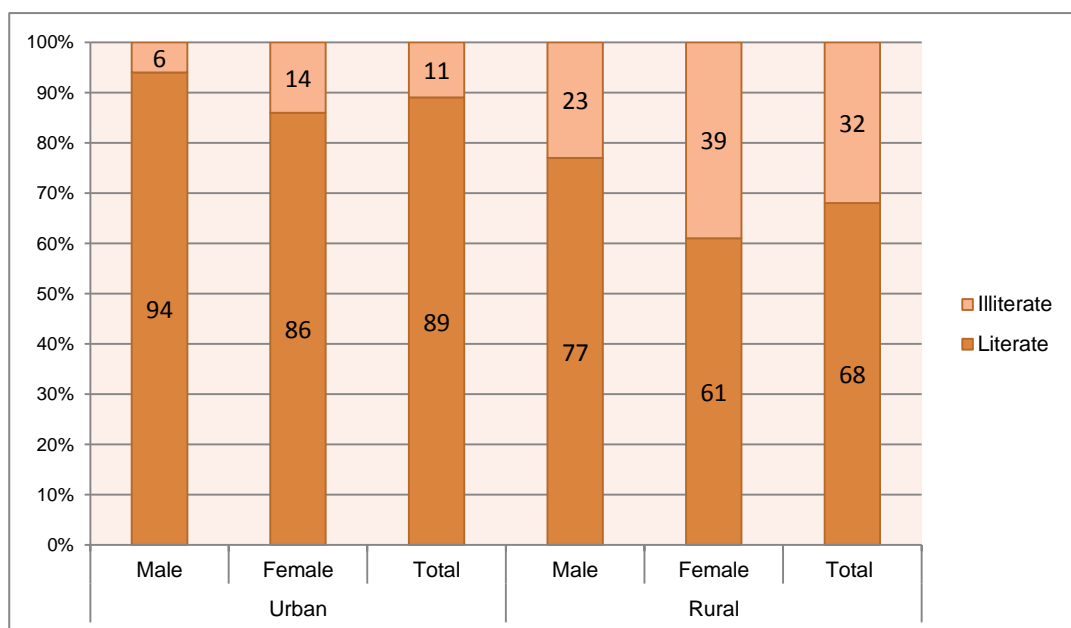
**Levels of literacy are lowest among older rural women.** The adult literacy rate is 74 percent. However, only 68 percent of women are literate, as opposed to 81 percent of men. Illiteracy is widespread especially among rural women, 39 percent of whom are illiterate as opposed to 14 percent of their urban counterparts. A noticeable gender gap – 8 percent – exists in urban areas as well (see Graph 6). Regional gender differences colour the picture further; women have the lowest literacy rate in the Western area (57 percent) where gender disparities are highest with a differential of 18 percentage points, followed by the Southern area (17 percentage points). The Eastern area, where Dar es Salaam is located, has the highest male and female literacy rates, 90 percent and 80 percent respectively. Not surprisingly, in rural areas the literacy rate increases as age decreases, from 32 percent among people aged 65 and above, to 78 percent of those aged 15-25. The gender gap is also smallest – 4 percent – in the latter group.

<sup>40</sup> FGT: Foster - Greer- Thorbecke poverty measures, computed following Foster *et al.* (1984).

<sup>41</sup> In 2010 the second National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP II or MKUKUTA II) was launched. MKUKUTA II is an organizing framework to rally national efforts in accelerating poverty-reducing growth. MKUKUTA II noted that gender balance at the Local Government level is critical for sustainable development.

<sup>42</sup> <http://www.tanzania.go.tz/ministriesf.html>

**Graph 6: Literacy rates in urban and rural areas (men and women, in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

**Rural women lag behind their male counterparts in educational attainment despite near gender parity in access to primary schooling.** Policies to re-boost education in Tanzania started in the 1990s<sup>43</sup> and have been driven more recently by the nation's Vision 2025 development plan<sup>44</sup>. Thanks to the formulation and implementation of policies on free primary education (FPE), including the abolition of primary school tuition fees and compulsory primary school enrolment and attendance<sup>45</sup>, enrolment rates have experienced a constant increase. Much emphasis has also been placed on facilitating the re-entry of girls to school after giving birth, with a number of new policies being implemented for this purpose. In 2009, 4965 girls dropped out of school as a result of falling pregnant.<sup>46</sup> Despite these new policies, data showed an increase in the number of dropouts due to pregnancy between 2008 and 2009<sup>47</sup> and there is no data on how many of these girls returned to school and completed their education. Overall, major setbacks and falling enrolment rates<sup>48</sup> were experienced during the era of structural adjustment policies which promoted market-oriented schooling and cost efficiency. The recent change of direction at the policy level has resulted in increased enrolment and a reduction of the gender gap in primary schools. In fact, enrollment rates in primary schooling are generally high with no significant differences across sex and locality. The only noticeable exceptions are the Central area, which scores lowest with a 66 percent enrollment rate, and the Western area, with 73 percent. However, the situation of secondary education is very different, especially in rural areas where only 15 percent of secondary school-age boys and girls are enrolled. In urban areas, the situation is better notwithstanding a gap of four percentage points between girls and boys (see Graph 7).

<sup>43</sup> In 1997, the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) was launched to translate the policy into a development framework. The development of the entire education sector through one-time intervention was not feasible, and hence the Government started placing focus on primary education and gradually expand to secondary and higher education levels. To support the ESDP, the Government launched the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) in 2002, which has been implemented in two five-year phases, the first from 2002 to 2006 and the second (PEDP II) from 2007 to 2011 (Simwanza Sitta 2007).

<sup>44</sup> Oketch Moses O. and Rolleston Caine M., 2007, Policies on Free Primary and Secondary Education in East Africa: A Review of the Literature, Brighton, UK: Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity, Centre for International Education, University of Sussex

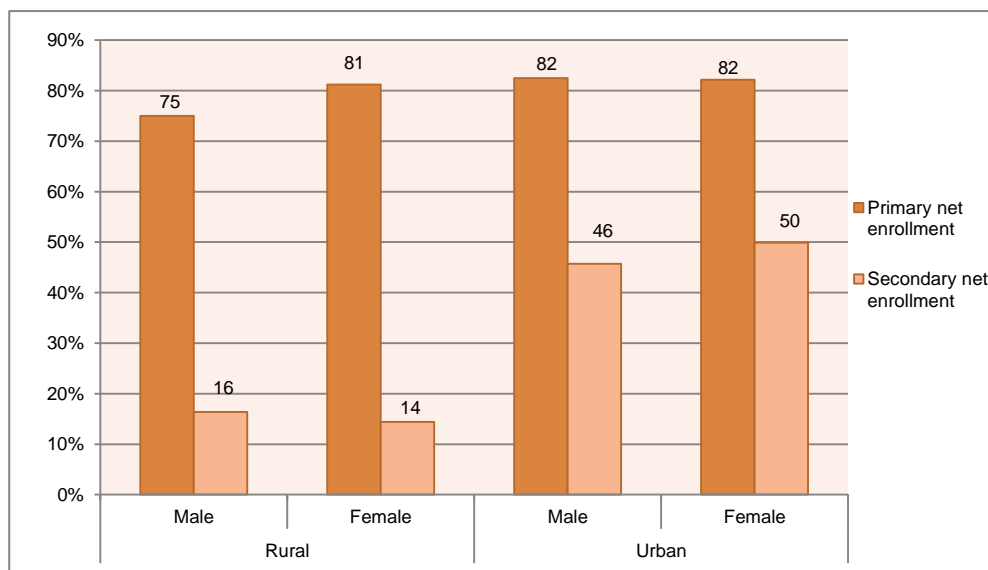
<sup>45</sup> Simwanza Sitta, M., 2007, 'Towards Universal Primary Education: The Experience of Tanzania', UN Chronicle, 1 December 2012. See also Galabawa, C. J., 2001, Developments and issues regarding universal primary education (UPE) in Tanzania. Report presented at ADEA Biennial meeting, Arusha, Tanzania, October 7-11.

<sup>46</sup> Empowered Girls; East Africa. <http://lenana.net/blog/?p=209>

<sup>47</sup> MEVT 2008 & BEST 2010.

<sup>48</sup> Net enrolment rates dropped from 67.6 percent in 1985 to 57 percent in 2000 (Ibid).

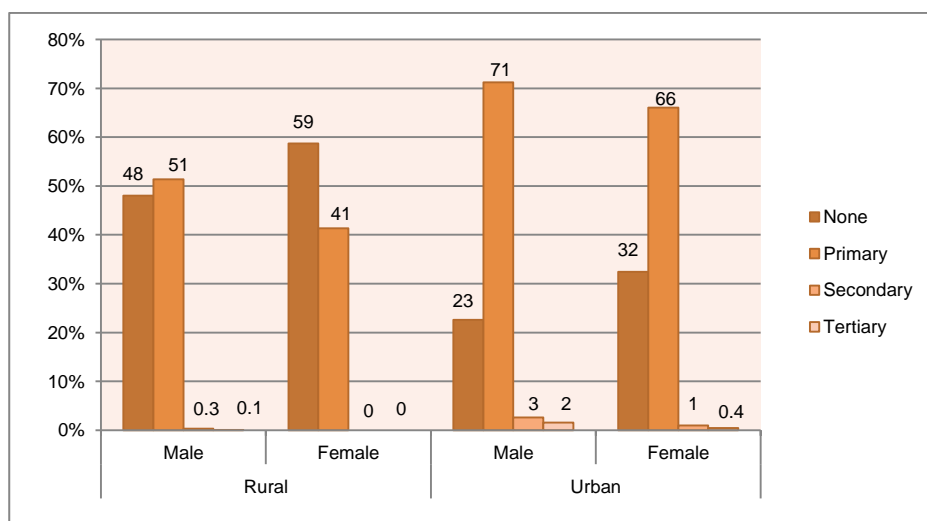
**Graph 7: Male and female primary and secondary enrolment<sup>49</sup> (rural and urban, in %)**



Source: NPS 2009

**Educational attainment levels are especially low among women, in both rural and urban areas** (see Graph 8). Levels of education are very low in the country, albeit the rural population is particularly disadvantaged with respect to the urban one. Graph 8 shows, that a very high percentage of rural women and men, but in particular the former have not even finalized their primary education cycle (in the graph is represented by no qualification attained).

**Graph 8: Highest qualification attained by women and men aged 25 years and above (rural and urban, in %)**



Source: NPS 2009

A closer look at the data unveils further insights on the nature of primary educational attainment. Out of 48 percent of rural males who have not obtained primary qualification, half never completed the first year, while 25 percent completed the fourth year, out of a total of seven years. The picture is grimmer for rural women: of the 59 percent share of women who have not obtained primary qualification, as many as 74

<sup>49</sup> Primary enrolment comprises children aged 7-13, while secondary enrolment includes those aged 14-18, for further details see the methodological notes.

percent never completed the first year, and only 11 percent completed the fourth year. Dropout rates are also high in urban areas where, amongst those who did not get a primary school certificate, 54 percent of males and 60 of females did not complete the first year. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that approximately half of the males and females that have started primary school drop out after completing the fourth year. This pattern may be partially explained by the nature of the school system which, prior to reforms initiated in the 1960s, consisted of four years of primary school<sup>50</sup>.

**Table 3: Highest grade achieved for those not having completed primary education cycle (in %)**

Years	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0	50	74	64	54	60	57
1	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	6	4	5	5	6	5
3	7	4	5	6	7	7
4	25	11	17	21	18	19
5	6	3	4	8	4	6
6	5	3	4	7	6	6

Source: NPS 2009

The educational attainment levels of the adult population are extremely low in both urban and rural areas. For instance, the percentage of adults who have attained a secondary school qualification is below 0.5 percent in rural areas, whereas in urban areas, only 3 percent of men and 1 percent of women attained a secondary school qualification. In the case of tertiary education, two percent of males and 0.4 percent of females in urban areas have achieved tertiary education. Moreover, the low attainment levels of tertiary education, particularly in rural areas, are not expected to improve in the near future due to current low levels of secondary enrolment.

**Female members of female-headed households are the most disadvantaged in terms of education.** Gender disparities in education can also be noted if the analysis is conducted at the household level, particularly in rural areas. Overall, FHH show lower levels of education than MHH. Moreover, table 4 reveals that females are more likely to be less educated than their male counterparts in both FHH and MHH (see Table 4).

**Table 4: Highest educational attainment in FHHs and MHHs (rural and urban, in %)**

Qualification	Rural						Urban					
	MHH			FHH			MHH			FHH		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
None	49	55	52	40	67	62	22	29	25	29	38	37
Primary	51	45	48	59	33	38	72	69	71	56	60	60
Secondary	0.5	0	0.3	1	0	0.2	4	1	3	13	1	3
Tertiary	0.1	0	0	0	0	0.0	2	0	1	1	0	1

Source: NPS 2009

<sup>50</sup> The present system consists of 7-4-2-3: seven years of primary school, four years of ordinary secondary school, two years of advanced secondary school and three years of first degree courses. The system is the results of reforms that reorganized primary and middle schools in the 1960s. Prior to that, the system consisted in a 4-2-3 scheme and the end of first education cycle was certified by the Primary Standard Four Examination (The National Examination Council of Tanzania website).

Did you know?

- The incidence of poverty is particularly high in rural areas: 88 percent of the poor lives in rural areas and 40 percent of the rural population falls below the basic needs poverty line<sup>52</sup>.
- Female headed households in rural areas have fewer member than male-headed households but higher dependency rates and are thus more constrained in their productive capacity, whilst female heads of household tend to be older and less educated than their male counterparts.
- Poorer households tend to engage more in agriculture than wealthier ones but the overall participation of all households is high. Farm activities are the most important source of income for all rural households accounting for about half of the household income across all expenditures quintiles.

Despite sustained macro-economic growth, Tanzania's economic growth has not been inclusive; it has not fostered significant decent employment opportunities for the majority of Tanzanians, who continue to earn a living in vulnerable<sup>53</sup>, informal (and often unpaid) employment. The lack of inclusiveness of Tanzania's macro-economic growth perpetuates poverty. According to data from the RIGA 2009 database, rural areas are the most affected by poverty with 40 percent of the rural people living below the basic needs poverty line compared to 16 percent in Dar es Salaam and 18 percent in other urban areas. Moreover, 44 percent of children in rural areas live in poverty. A recent study by Akorro and Mtweve (2011) showed that household poverty was a determining factor in influencing children's participation in economic activities, i.e. child labour.<sup>54</sup>

**Table 5 : Percentage incidence of poverty in Tanzania Mainland (poverty head count index, in %)**

	Year	Dar es Salaam	Other Urban Areas	Rural Areas	Tanzania Mainland
Food	2000/01	7.5	13.2	20.4	18.7
	2007	7.4	12.9	18.4	16.6
	2008/09	7.6	8.8	20.4	17.4
Basic Needs	2000/01	17.6	25.8	38.7	35.7
	2007	16.4	24.1	37.6	33.6
	2008/09	15.9	18.1	40.0	34.0

Source: URT, NBS, Household Budget Survey 2000/01, 2007 (URT 2010b) and NPS 2008/09

<sup>51</sup> The data presented refer exclusively to Tanzania Mainland if not specified otherwise.

<sup>52</sup> Poor households are characterized by food expenditure below the basic need poverty lines. The latter has been computed deflating the 2007 basic need poverty lines: T.Sh. 17941 in Dar es Salaam, T.Sh.14,896 in other urban areas and T.Sh. 13114 in rural areas (Tanzania National Panel Survey Report 2008/09).

<sup>53</sup> Vulnerable employment is defined as the sum of own-account workers and contributing family workers in total employment. Such workers are not protected by the labour legislation, are less likely to have formal work arrangements and are, therefore, more likely to lack decent working conditions, adequate social security and 'voice' through effective representation by trade unions and similar organizations. Furthermore, vulnerable employment is often characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult working conditions that undermine workers' fundamental rights. The indicator is based on the status in employment indicator contained in ILO's Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) that generally distinguishes between three categories of the total employed.

<sup>54</sup> Akorro, R.R.J. & Mtweve, N.A., 2011, 'Poverty and Its Association with Child Labor in Njombe District in Tanzania: The Case of Igima Ward', Current Research Journal of Social Sciences 3(3): 199-206, 2011.

Rural areas also have the highest percentage of poor households – 34 percent – followed by Dar es Salaam with 30 percent, and other urban areas with 14 percent. However, there are no significant gender gaps between MHHs and FHHs in rural areas; 35 percent of MHHs and 34 percent of FHHs are poor. Nonetheless, rural women are disproportionately affected by a number of noteworthy constraints in agricultural production, and face a number of gender-based inequalities. Furthermore, rural women are subjected to constraining socio-cultural norms, and tend to be more disadvantaged than men in their access to assets, resources and services, including education, health care, credit, technology, agricultural inputs, extension services and markets. These factors may exacerbate women’s overall exposure to poverty and that of their households.<sup>55</sup>

Based on RIGA 2009 data, different sources of income are assessed to identify the dependence on income from agriculture and the existence of opportunities for off-farm work for male and female-headed households of different expenditure quintiles groups. The analysis is carried out at the household level, as unfortunately no income (consumption) related data is available at the individual level. Several household characteristics, such as level of education, average age and gender of household head, and the number of working members within the household, are considered to assess poverty<sup>56</sup>.

In order to assess different income sources, the RIGA dataset classification is used as a reference. The RIGA dataset classifies income sources into seven main categories, which are then grouped into basic categories (see Table 6). Income is further aggregated into off-farm activities (the sum of agricultural wages, non-farm income and transfers/other); non-agricultural activities (the sum of the non-farm and transfers/other category); and agricultural activities (the sum of on-farm and agricultural wages).

**Table 6: RIGA classification of income sources**

Income sources	Categories
1. Income from crop production	On-farm activities (self-employed farming)
2. Income from livestock production	
3. Agricultural wages	Agricultural wage activities
4. Non-agricultural wage employment	Non-farm activities
5. Non-farm enterprises	
6. Public and private transfer income	Transfers/other
7. Other non-labour sources	

Source: RIGA 2009

## 2.1 Household characteristics and poverty

**Female heads of household<sup>57</sup> are older on average than their male counterparts in all quintiles.**

There are no clear patterns that emerge in terms of age of household heads across different expenditure quintiles (see Graph 9). For both male heads and female heads of households, the average age increases before reaching a peak in the middle quintile, and then decreases for the wealthier quintiles. This pattern is more pronounced for female heads than for male heads. The age-based gender difference is larger for the third quintile, where 33 percent of female heads of households are widows.

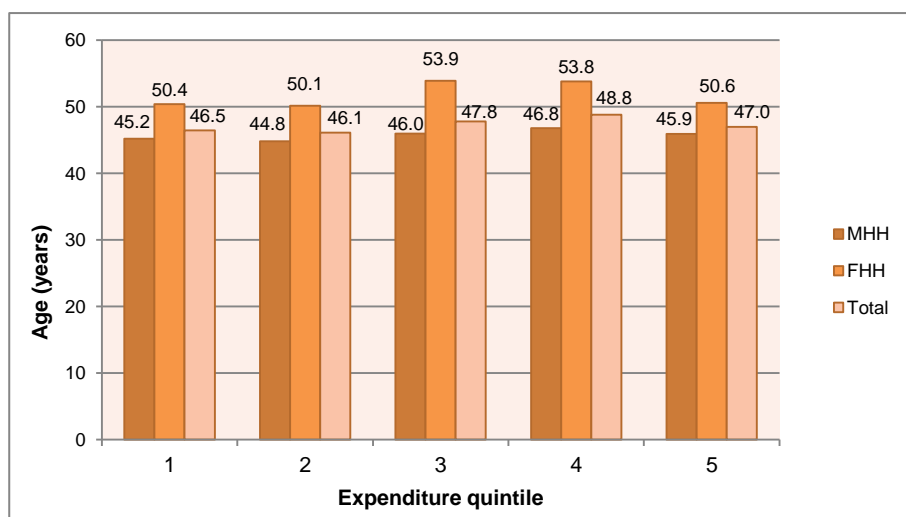
<sup>55</sup> See FAO, 2011. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/i2050e/i2050e.pdf>

<sup>56</sup> To compute poverty levels we use expenditure (consumption) as a proxy to income.

<sup>57</sup> The same definition of the household head applies here as in the footnote number 19.



**Graph 9: Average age of household head by expenditure quintile**

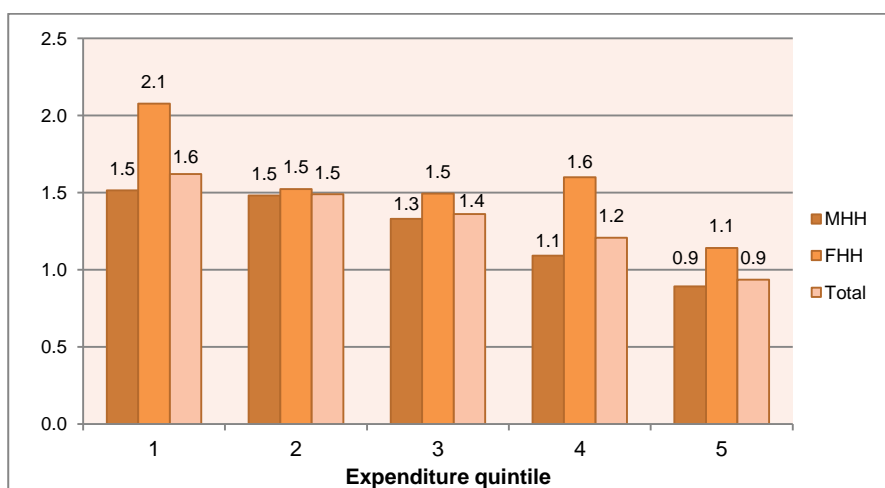


Source: RIGA 2009

Wealthier households tend to have lower dependency rates and households headed by women generally have more dependents and less working age members than those headed by men. According to the RIGA database, the overall dependency rate in rural Tanzania is 136 percent (130 percent for MHHs and 160 percent for FHHs), indicating that the non-active population is greater than the active population. The households showing the highest dependency rates are those headed by individuals older than 65 years for MHHs, and between 25 and 45 years old for FHHs.

Although the total dependency rate decreases across higher expenditure quintiles in both MHHs and FHHs (see Graph 10), the dependency rate of FHHs is higher in all expenditure quintiles. Notably FHHs in all quintiles have a dependency ratio greater than 1, indicating that the number of economically dependent members exceeds that of individuals in working age. The higher share of economically dependent members constitutes a burden on FHHs' livelihoods. For instance, a high dependency rate hampers household capacity to allocate labour to on-farm activities or other income-generating activities.

**Graph 10: Total dependency rates by household head and by expenditure quintile<sup>58</sup>**



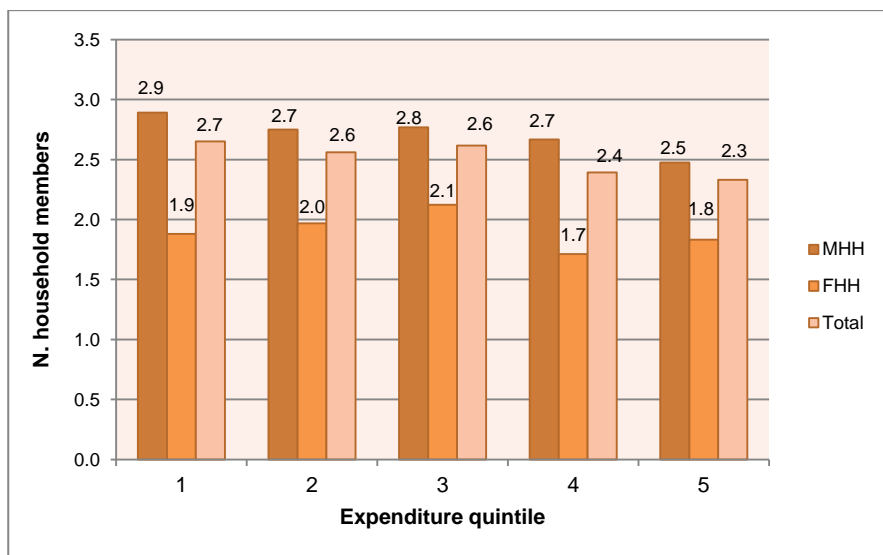
Source: RIGA 2009

Additionally, FHHs across all quintiles have, on average, less working-age household-members presumably because the spouse is missing (see Graph 11). This imposes labour constraints on these households, which

<sup>58</sup> Differences between MHH and FHH are statistically significant at a 1 percent level, except for the 2<sup>nd</sup> quintile.

may resort to employing non-working age household members, such as children. However, this hypothesis would need to be confirmed by further analysis. Poorer households have, on average, more working-age household-members. The average number of members of working age decreases with the level of welfare, resulting in wealthier households that are smaller in size – from 2.7 to 2.3 of working-age household-members (see Table 7).

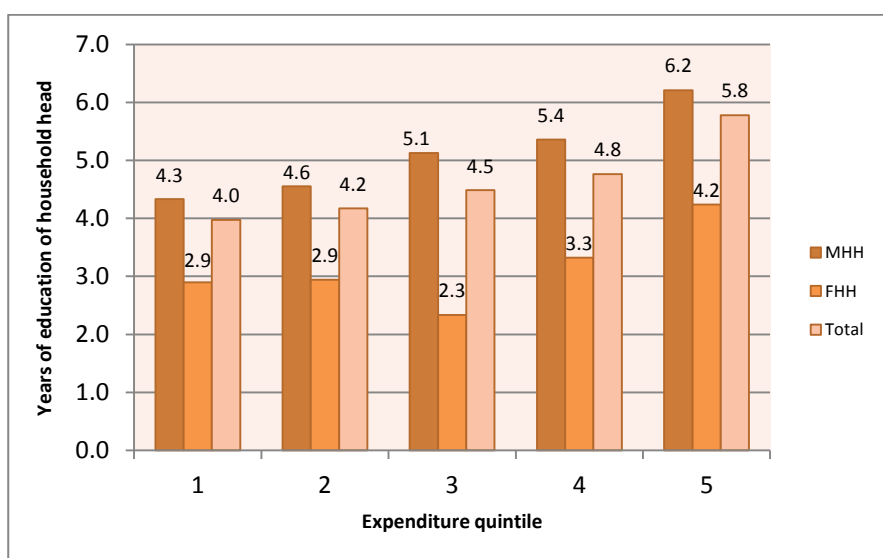
**Graph 11: Average number of household members in working age by expenditure quintile**



Source: RIGA 2009

**Higher wellbeing conditions are correlated with higher levels of education of the household head, and female heads systematically have lower educational levels than their male counterparts.** RIGA data show a clear correlation between income and education level, although the correlation is not always linear. In both groups heads of wealthier households have more years of education than those of poorer households (1.5 and 1.3 year gap between the highest and the lowest quintiles in MHHs and FHHs respectively). Graph 12 illustrates that FHHs are systematically disadvantaged in their educational attainment, as MHHs have on average more years of education than FHHs across all quintiles.

**Graph 12: Average years of education of the household head by expenditure quintile**



Source: RIGA 2009

## 2.2 Income sources

**Richer households tend to engage more in non-agriculture activities than poorer ones, but the overall participation in self-employed farming (on-farm) remains high.** Participation in different rural labour activities (Graph 13) and share of income from different labour activities (Graph 145) are used as complementary indicators to paint a picture of the diversification of the livelihood strategies of rural households in Tanzania. The degree of participation in rural labour activities differs across levels of household expenditure and the sex of the household head. According to available data, the highest level of participation within households in the lower expenditure quintiles is found in agricultural activities, whereas wealthier households (the fourth and fifth quintiles) show higher levels of participation in non-agricultural activities. Participation of both MHHs and FHHs in farm activities is high across all expenditure quintiles, with only a slight decline in participation in the last quintile. The relative importance of farm activities is also found in data at the individual level, confirming that the agricultural sector is crucial to rural livelihoods (see Employment section). Participation in waged employment in agriculture declines constantly as family welfare increases, but remains fairly constant across the third and fourth quintile for MHHs. On the other hand, participation in non-agriculture waged and non-agriculture self-employed activities increases with welfare, but the increase is more marked for MHHs.

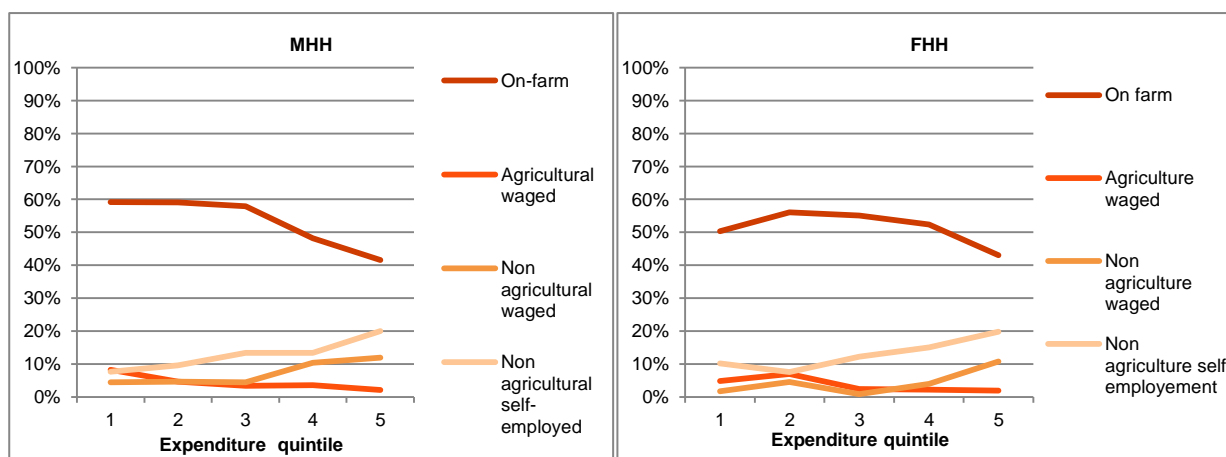
**Graph 13: Participation in rural labour activities**



Source: RIGA 2009

Farm activities are the most important source of income for all households, accounting for about half of household income across all expenditures quintiles. The data clearly show that agriculture is an important source of income for poor MHHs and FHHs, while the importance of this source of income declines as levels of wealth rise. However, while for MHHs the share of on-farm income clearly decreases for wealthier households, for FHHs the pattern is not as straightforward, since the share of on-farm income is lower for the lowest and highest quintiles. As noted previously, non-agricultural labour opportunities, in both wage and self-employment, are more accessible to wealthier households, especially MHHs.

**Graph 14: Share of income from different labour activities**



Source: RIGA 2009

Table 7 below summarizes the characteristics of rural households in Tanzania Mainland, disaggregated by sex of the household head and expenditure quintile.

**Table 7: Characteristics of rural households by expenditure quintiles**

	Expenditure quintile				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Average age head of HH	46.5	46.1	47.8	48.8	47.0
FHH*	50.4	50.1	53.9	53.8	50.6
MHH**	45.2	44.8	46.0	46.8	45.9
Total dependency rates	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	0.9
FHH	2.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.1
MHH	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.9
Average number of HH members in working age	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3
FHH	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.8
MHH	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.5
Average years of education of HH	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.6	5.5
FHH	2.9	2.9	2.2	3.1	4.2
MHH	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.2	5.9
Participation in on-farm activities (%)	98	100	99	99	96
FHH (%)	95	100	98	100	93
MHH (%)	99	100	99	98	96
Participation in agricultural wage labour (%)	32	23	21	18	14
FHH (%)	30	26	23	13	7
MHH (%)	33	22	21	20	16
Participation in non-agricultural wage labour (%)	11	12	12	22	24
FHH (%)	3	9	8	10	19
MHH (%)	11	12	12	22	24

	Expenditure quintile				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Participation in non-agricultural self-employment (%)	27	30	39	38	40
FHH (%)	26	25	36	35	28
MHH (%)	27	31	40	39	43
Share of income from on-farm activities (%)	57	58	57	49	42
FHH (%)	50	56	55	48	42
MHH (%)	59	59	58	48	42
Share of income from agricultural wage activities (%)	7	5	3	3	2
FHH (%)	5	7	2	2	2
MHH (%)	8	5	3	4	2
Share of income from non-agricultural wage activities (%)	4	5	4	10	12
FHH (%)	2	5	4	9	12
MHH (%)	4	5	4	10	12
Share of income from non-agricultural self-employment activities (%)	8	10	13	13	20
FHH (%)	10	8	12	15	20
MHH (%)	8	10	13	13	20

Source: RIGA 2009

\*FHH = Female head of household

\*\*MHH = Male head of household

## Did you know?

- Labour force participation is higher in rural areas compared to urban areas with about 58 percent of the rural labour force composed of people between 15-34 years of age. Despite low rural unemployment, high rural underemployment rates indicate a lack of additional employment opportunities for both rural women and men but in particular for women.
- Agriculture is the main employment sector in rural areas, with 90 percent of women and 85 percent of men working in agriculture, most of them as self-employed on their own farms.
- Participation rates in vulnerable types of employment are higher for youth (aged 15-24) than for the adult population. Most youth engage in farming activities on their families' farms but are also very likely to engage in non-paid employment in agriculture and other sectors.
- In rural areas, more women (nearly half) than men (about a third) have a second job, however, most women work as unpaid family workers without an extra income despite having two jobs.
- The average amount of time that women spend on reproductive activities is greater than that of men, even if women spend as much time as them in productive activities. The most time-engaging reproductive activities for women are cooking and taking care of children. The allocation of household roles, and, hence, of the time use of the household members, is determined from childhood with girls being involved more than boys in reproductive activities.

Improving women's access to more and better employment opportunities is essential to reducing poverty and eradicating hunger. Gender is a fundamental dimension of inequality in rural labour markets since women tend to be disadvantaged vis-à-vis men in a number of ways. For instance, the FAO's recent report *Women in Agriculture. Closing the Gender Gap for Development*<sup>60</sup> shows that even if rural women's participation in the labour market is increasing, women tend to earn less than men, their educational levels are lower than those of men and, in addition, they bear the burden of domestic work. Moreover, informal employment tends to be a greater source of employment for women than for men in most developing regions, with women often concentrated in the most casual and exploitative segments of informal work.<sup>61</sup> Despite the available existing evidence on labour markets in the country there are major knowledge gaps related to rural employment, in particular those related to the gender dimensions. Rural labour statistics, in particular age and sex-disaggregated data, are therefore needed to fill critical gaps in knowledge and highlight key areas in which policy attention is required to address major gender inequalities in rural employment.

Based on a relatively recent labour survey for the country, Part III of the country profile provides a detailed picture of the rural employment patterns at the individual level highlighting the nature and degree of existing gender/age related inequalities to enrich the picture provided in the previous section on the main income sources at the household level. More concretely, this chapter offers a snapshot of the main characteristics of the nature and type of employment in which rural adult and youth women and men are involved (industry, status, seasonality, earnings levels), as well as the time use patterns for productive and domestic activities for the main age groups of the working population (adult, youth and children).

---

<sup>59</sup> The survey used for the production of the statistics in Part III is the ILFS 2006. The main reason behind this choice is that the labour section of the NPS 2009 questionnaire, despite containing more up to date information, does not properly capture specific characteristics of rural employment especially with regards to the employment status and working conditions of those engaged in subsistence agriculture and family economic activities in the rural informal economy. Furthermore the information contained in the ILFS 2006 provides a more comprehensive and complete picture of the labour market of Mainland Tanzania than the NPS 2009 does.

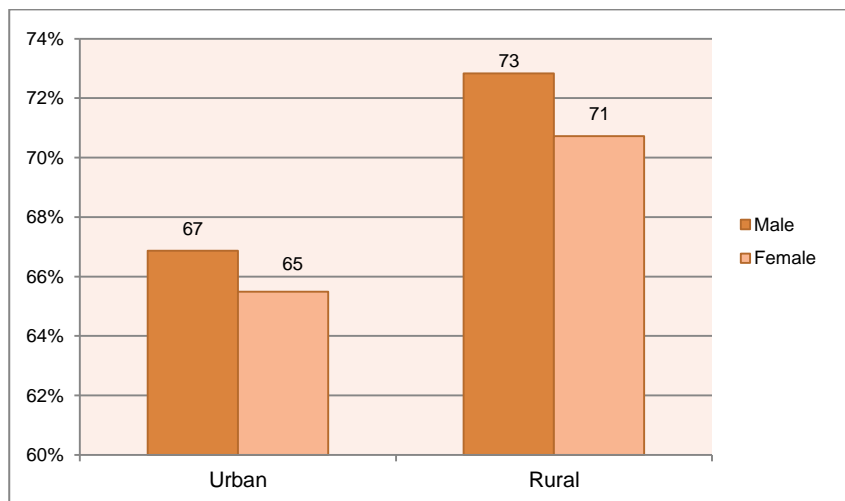
<sup>60</sup> FAO, 2011.

<sup>61</sup> UNRISD, 2011.

### 3.1 Labour force participation

The labour force participation rate of both women and men is higher in rural areas than in urban areas by 6 percentage points (see Graph 15). The breakdown of the rural labour force by age groups reveals that about 60 percent of both the female and male workforce is made of individuals ranging between 15 and 34 years, almost equally distributed in the two age groups 15-24 and 25-34.

**Graph 15: Labour force participation of women and men in urban and rural areas (in %)**



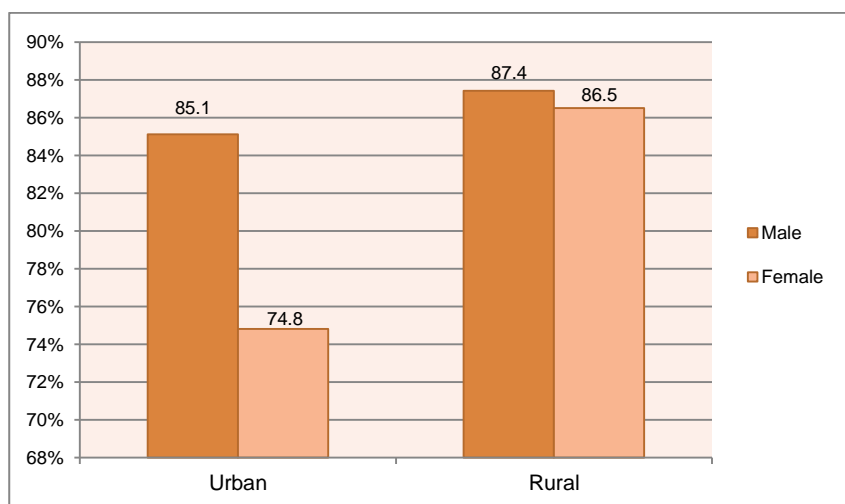
Source: ILFS 2006

### 3.2 Employment

In this analysis, the “employed or working population” includes those individuals engaged in both formal and informal work, in paid and unpaid work, including work on their own farm, as well as help provided on family members’ farms without pay. According to this definition, 87 percent of the rural working-age population was employed in 2006.

**Women’s employment rates lag behind in urban areas.** While in rural areas there is gender parity in terms of the employed population, noticeable gender differences emerge in urban areas, where the female employment rate is 10 percentage points lower than the male one (see Graph 16). However, the seemingly high employment rates, and the low gender disparities characterizing the rural labour force, are mainly due to the fact that this is predominantly made up of self-employed subsistence farmers.

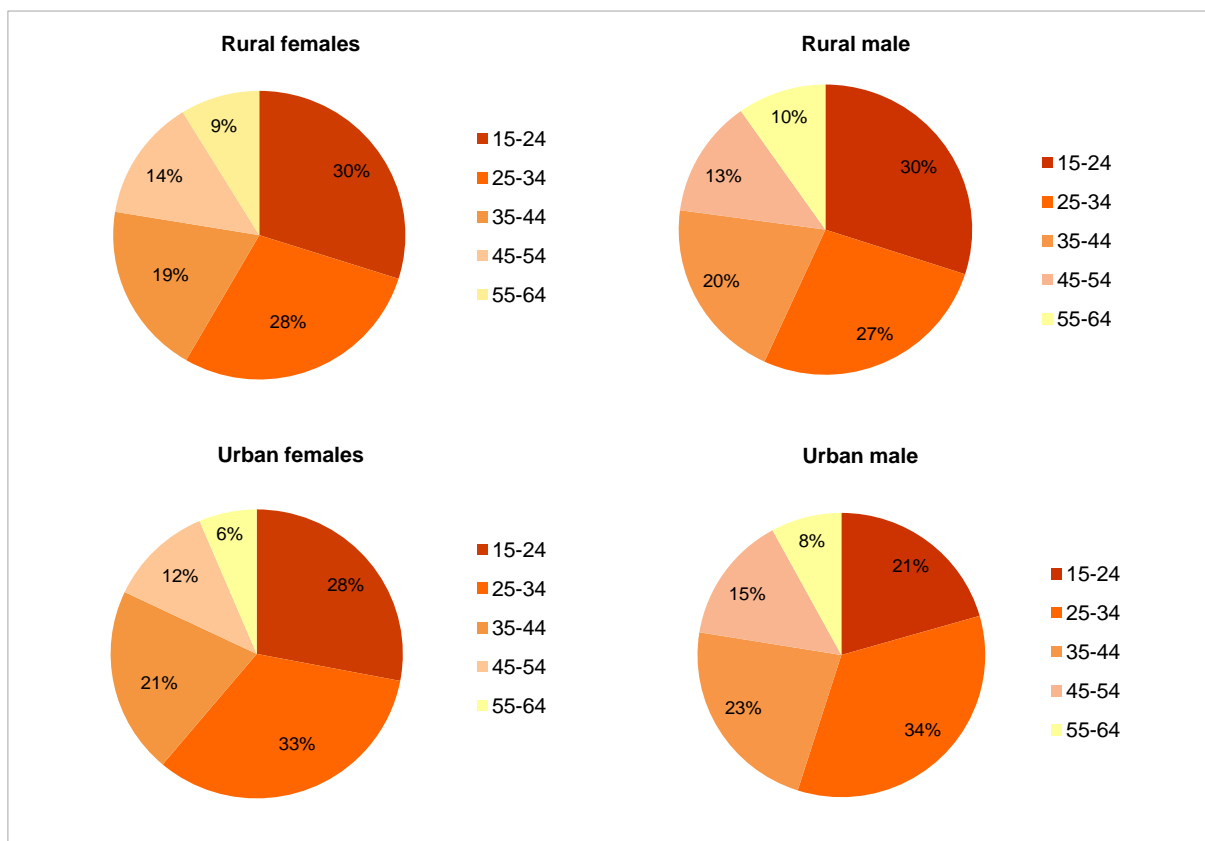
**Graph 16: Employment rate in urban and rural areas by sex (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

**The largest share of female and male youth is employed in rural areas.** In Tanzania Mainland, the highest share of the rural working population is concentrated in the 15-24 and 25-34 age groups, with minor differences between them. While no major gender differences emerge, when disaggregating by age cohorts, rural and urban comparisons reveal notable patterns (see Graph 17). In rural areas, the largest share of the working population is concentrated in the 15-24 age group. In urban areas, however, the 25-34 age group has the highest share of working individuals, suggesting that rural women and men enter the labour market earlier than their urban counterparts.

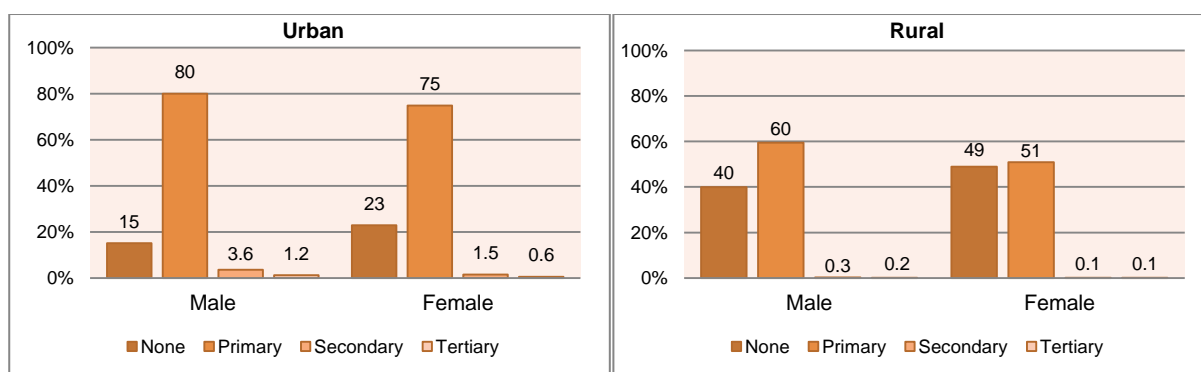
**Graph 17: Age structure of the female and male working population (rural and urban, by age groups)**



Source: ILFS 2006

Levels of education are low amongst both rural employed men and women, but especially amongst rural women. In rural areas the average length of education is 6.6 years, and 40 percent of male workers and 49 percent of female workers have no educational attainment at all. Moreover, the employed male population is substantially more educated than the employed female population: 60 percent of males in rural areas and 80 percent in urban areas have attained primary education compared to 51 percent of females in rural areas and 75 percent in urban areas (see Graph 18).

**Graph 18: Distribution of the employed population by educational attainment (rural and urban, in %)**

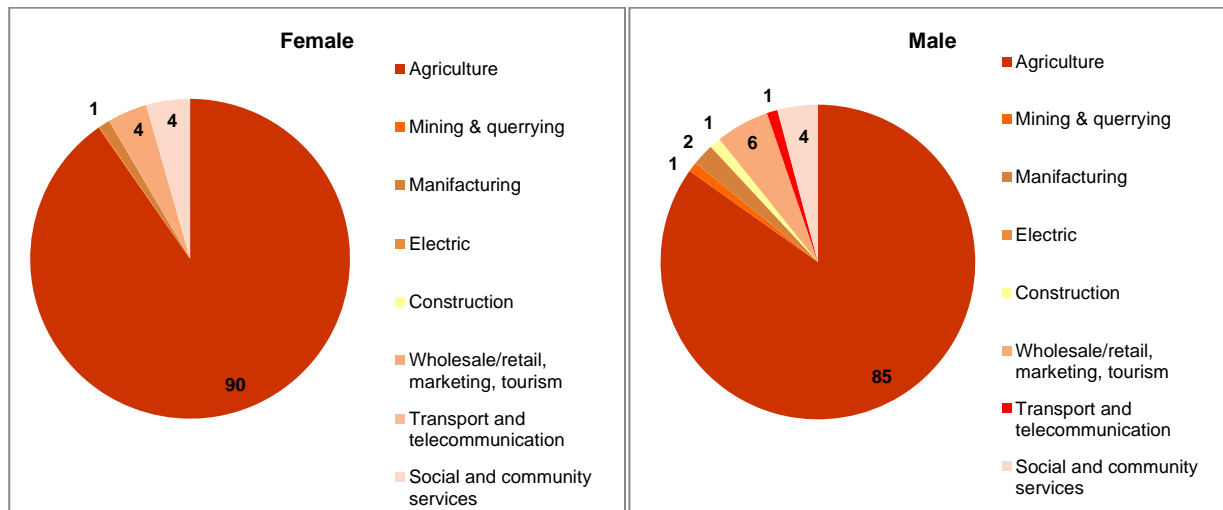


Source: ILFS 2006



The agricultural sector is by far the main sector of employment. This is especially the case for rural women. 90 percent of rural women and 85 percent of rural men work in agriculture. Available data indicates that there is slightly more diversification among male workers in terms of their economic activities, than among female workers. Yet, for both groups, wholesale and retail activities, and social and community services form the largest source of employment after agriculture (see Graph 19).

**Graph 19: Main sector of employment of rural women and men (in %)**



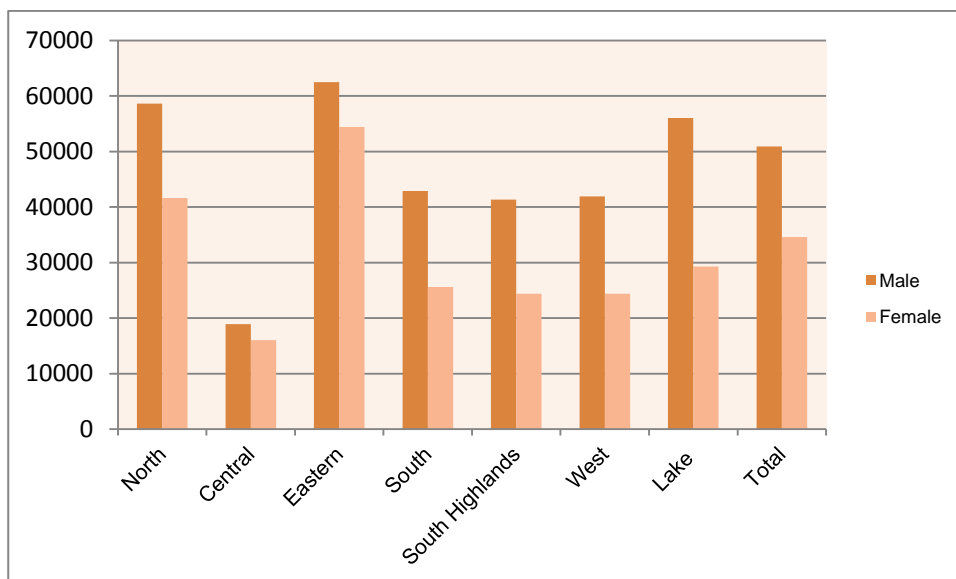
Source: ILFS 2006

The distribution of working rural youth follows the same pattern of the overall rural employed population, with 88 percent of rural youth being employed in the agriculture industry. However, compared to the overall female rural employed population, the percentage of young women employed in the social and community sector (probably as unpaid family worker as we will see in Graph 21) is greater: 7 percent as opposed to 4 percent.

**On average, in all regions, rural men have higher earnings<sup>62</sup> than rural women.** Although women are disadvantaged in terms of earnings across all regions, the gender gaps are smaller in the Eastern and Central regions (see Graph 20 below). Moreover, data for rural areas at the national level show wide regional disparities. Based on data for earnings from main occupation, on average rural workers in the Eastern region enjoy higher earnings than those in other regions, while the lowest average earnings are observed amongst those working in the Central region.

<sup>62</sup> Earnings refer to cash wage from paid employment whereas for self-employed jobs it consists of earnings and/or takings (net of the expenses sustained to earn the money) got from business or businesses.

**Graph 20: Average earnings for rural men and women by region in all employment types (Tanzania Shillings)**

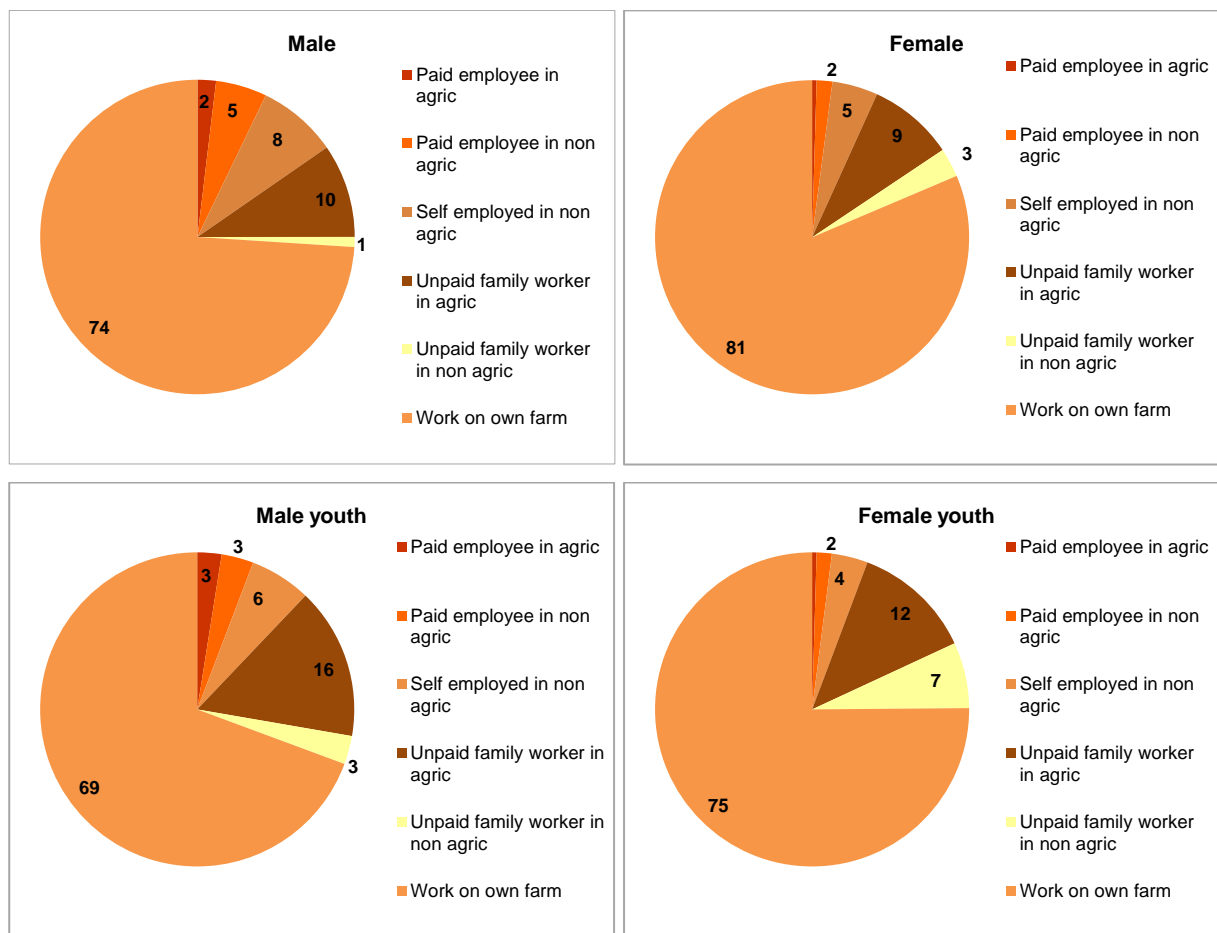


Source: ILFS 2006

**The majority of the rural employed population works mainly on their own farm, particularly in the case of women.** 78 percent of the rural working population indicates they work on their own farm. Furthermore, the majority of those who work on their own farm are subsistence farmers, according to the findings of the agriculture section. Although working predominantly on their own farms, men have slightly more opportunities than women to participate in other categories of employment, such as paid employment in agriculture and non-agriculture, as well as self-employment in non-agriculture. In fact, 74 percent of men work on their own farms, compared to 81 percent of women (see Graph 21). However, the reliability of these findings is questionable, as there are ambiguities in the interpretation of the term “own farm”<sup>63</sup>.

<sup>63</sup> The ILFS 2006 questionnaire refers to the status as working on own farm. However, this could be interpreted as referring to the land owned by the household as a whole rather than by the individual. For example, both a husband and a wife cultivating household land could consider themselves as falling under the category of those ‘working on own farm’ regardless of who actually owns the land. This distinction is especially important when considering that less than 20 percent of land owners are women, and that most of the farms are owned jointly (family farm) where women and youth provide unpaid labour.

**Graph 21: Employment status of rural women and men (in %)**

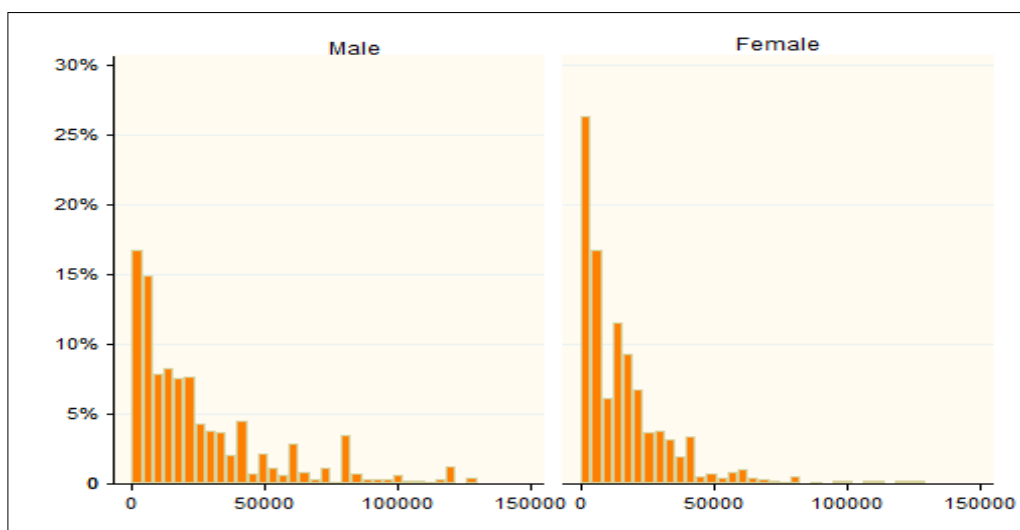


Source: ILFS 2006

Women self-employed in agriculture earn significantly less than their male counterparts, albeit with significant regional differences. Furthermore, as shown in Graph 22, self-employed women working in agriculture are over-represented in low-earning activities<sup>64</sup>.

<sup>64</sup> The difference between the mean and the median earnings is greater for men than for women (respectively 33140 and 15800 for men and 25380 versus 12000 for women). This suggests that earnings are more equally distributed amongst women than amongst men and that women are more concentrated in low earning levels.

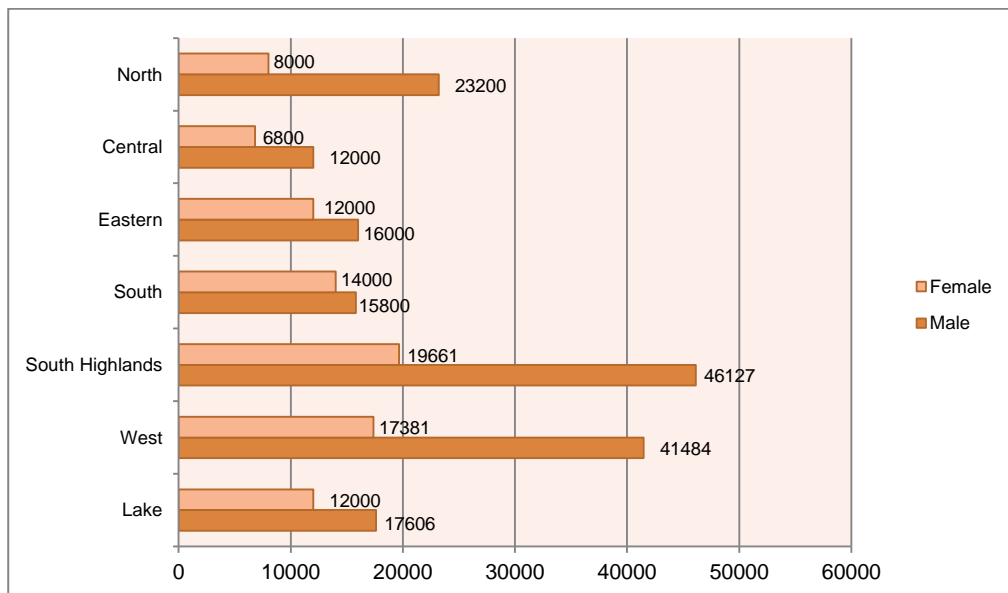
**Graph 22: Distribution of the earnings from self-employment in agriculture activities in rural areas by sex (Tanzania Shillings)**



Source ILFS 2006

National median rural earnings highlight substantial regional disparities. In the South Highlands and North, rural, self-employed men, earn more than in other Tanzania Mainland regions. On the contrary, rural, self-employed women in the Central regions, earn comparatively less than the in other regions, whereas women in the South Highlands earn slightly more. The largest gender gaps can be seen in the North, where men earn 2.9 times more than women, in the West, where men earn 2.4 times more than women, and in the southern Highlands, where men earned 2.3 times more than their female counterparts. In the South and in the East the gender gaps in earnings are less pronounced. Overall the lowest average earnings are found in the Central regions.

**Graph 23: Average weekly earnings of rural, self-employed (median) males and females by (Tanzania Mainland) regions (Tanzania Shillings)**



Source: ILFS 2006

It is worth noting that the overall average earnings by region for all employment types present patterns that are similar to the regional average earnings from self-employment in agriculture. This is probably due to the relative weight of self-employment in agriculture, which comprises 78 percent of the entire rural working population.

After work on the own farm, unpaid family work in agriculture is the second most prominent type of employment for both rural men and women. Similar patterns are found between rural youth and adults in terms of employment status, albeit with some differences, as youth workers are relatively less engaged on their own farms, and participate more in unpaid family work (in agriculture and non-agriculture) than the rural adult working population. A closer look into the unpaid family workers category shows that female youths are more engaged in non-agricultural activities than male youth. The percentage of unpaid family workers<sup>65</sup> is on average eight percentage points higher for the youth population than for the adult population, with no major observable gender differences, underlining a worrying shortage of employment opportunities in rural areas. Once again, caution is needed with this data, as the definition of work on own farm and unpaid family worker in agriculture is not straightforward.

Most of the unpaid family workers in agriculture consist of youth with primary (around 20 percent for both males and females) or no educational attainment (30 percent and 22 percent respectively for men and women). However, the analysis of the age distribution shows that while the engagement of males in unpaid work decreases with age, women are more likely to continue being unpaid family workers even as they grow older (see Table 8).

**Table 8: Unpaid family workers in agriculture by age and educational attainment (in %)**

Age	Male				Female			
	None	Primary	Secondary	Total	None	Primary	Secondary	Total
15-24	30.1	19.9	0.1	50.0	22.1	19.8	0.0	41.9
25-34	7.4	12.1	0.0	19.5	10.7	14.0	0.0	24.6
35-44	3.0	10.3	0.0	13.3	7.1	9.2	0.0	16.3
45-54	4.9	5.3	0.0	10.2	7.3	2.6	0.0	9.9
55-64	5.2	1.8	0.0	7.0	6.5	0.8	0.0	7.3
Total	50.5	49.4	0.1	100.0	53.7	46.3	0.0	100.0

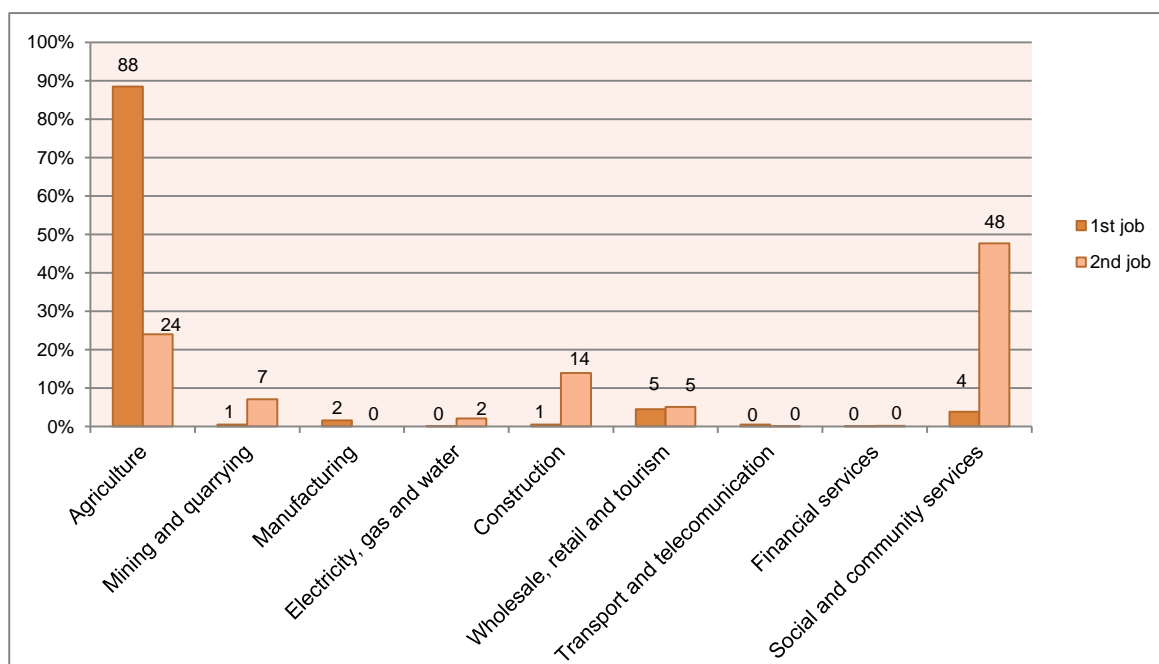
Source: ILFS 2006

Forty-one percent of the rural employed population has two or more jobs<sup>66</sup> and the majority of them work in social and community services activities. About 48 percent of adult women as opposed to 34 percent of adult men, and 48 percent of female youth, compared to 33 percent of male youth have a second job. Moreover, while agriculture is the leading sector in providing first jobs to a large share of rural women and men, this is not the case for second jobs. As illustrated by Graph 24, social and community services, followed by agriculture and construction, are the main industries providing second jobs to the male and female employed population.

<sup>65</sup> Unpaid work is the sum of unpaid family worker in agriculture and unpaid family worker in non-agriculture; paid work is calculated based on the sum of paid employee in agriculture, paid employee in non-agriculture and self-employed in agriculture.

<sup>66</sup> The characteristics of the second job described in this section, refer to the secondary economic activity on which the worker spends most of his/her time. The worker may have more than two jobs with characteristics that differ from the two main jobs.

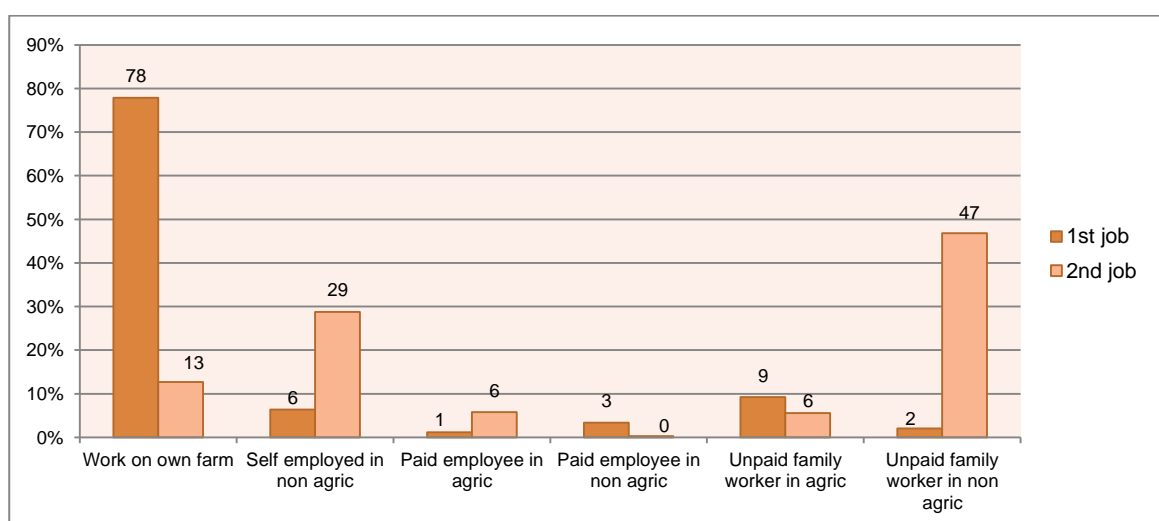
**Graph 24: First and second job by industry for both men and women (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

The overwhelming majority of those having a second job work as unpaid family workers or self-employed in industries other than agriculture (see Graph 25).

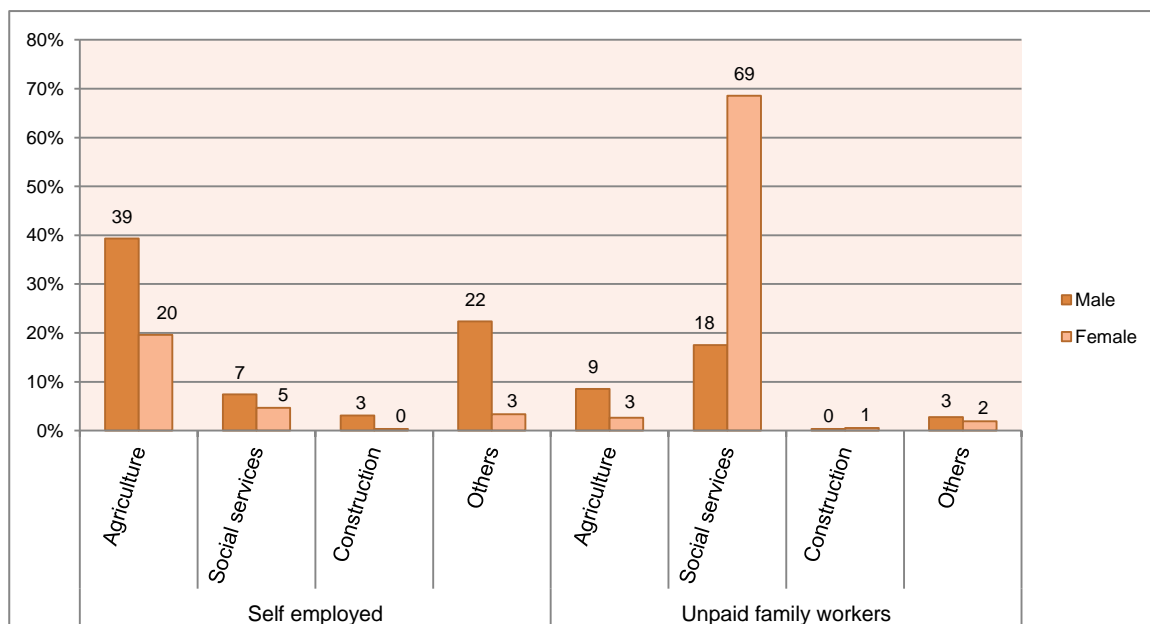
**Graph 25: First and second job by status (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

Despite most people being unpaid family workers in their second job, there are relevant differences between women and men. According to the data from the ILFS 2006, 75 percent of women are unpaid family workers, compared to 30 percent of their male counterparts. Moreover, delving into the categories of unpaid family workers and the self-employed, further gender differences emerge (see Graph 26). While females are mainly employed as family workers in social services, males are more evenly distributed between self-employment and unpaid family workers and the industries in which they are engaged. This means that despite having second jobs, most women do not get an income from their second job. Further research would be needed to better understand the nature of the activities and the kind of benefits obtained from women's involvement as unpaid family workers in the community and services industry.

**Graph 26: Industry and status of 2nd job by sex<sup>67</sup>(in %)**



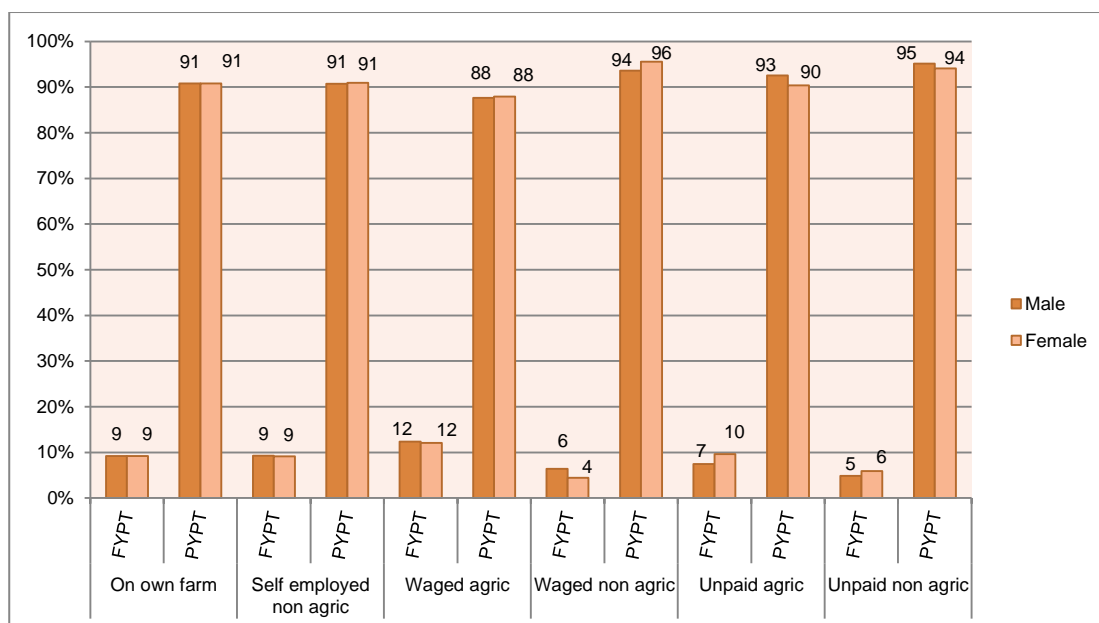
Source: ILFS 2006

<sup>67</sup> Paid employment is excluded from the graph since only 6 percent (11 percent for male and 3 percent for female) of the rural employed population is employed as waged employee in their second job; given the small dimension of this sub-sample (particularly for female workers) reliable statistics could not be computed.

### 3.3 Seasonality and Visible Underemployment

The great majority of the rural working population works on a part-year, part-time (PYPT) basis with no emerging major gender differences. The seasonal nature of Tanzania Mainland's agricultural cycle leads to labour shortages during the peak of the cropping season, while for most of the year there is substantial underemployment, especially in rural areas<sup>68</sup>. Graph 30 below indicates that while a minority of the rural working population (around 9 percent) work on a full-year, part-time basis (FYPT) the vast majority of both men and women work on a PYPT basis, as 91 percent of both males and females fall in this category<sup>69</sup>.

**Graph 27: Frequency and duration by employment status and sex (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

**Visible underemployment<sup>70</sup> is widespread in Tanzania Mainland's rural areas, and no major gender differences emerge.** Available data from the ILFS show that 31 percent of the employed population (40 percent for women and 22 percent for men) work less than 40 hours per week. Moreover 83 percent of the working population in rural areas worked less than 40 hours per week (taking into account first and second job) and wanted to work more. Disaggregation by age cohorts shows some interesting patterns. Both the youth and the 56-64 age groups seem to be more comfortable with their working hour's pattern than workers in the other age groups. There are no significant gender differences, except for the age category 55-64 years (see Graph 28), where the visible underemployment rate of the male population is higher.

<sup>68</sup> Gender, Time Use and Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank Seasonal Paper no. 73, 2006, p. 97,

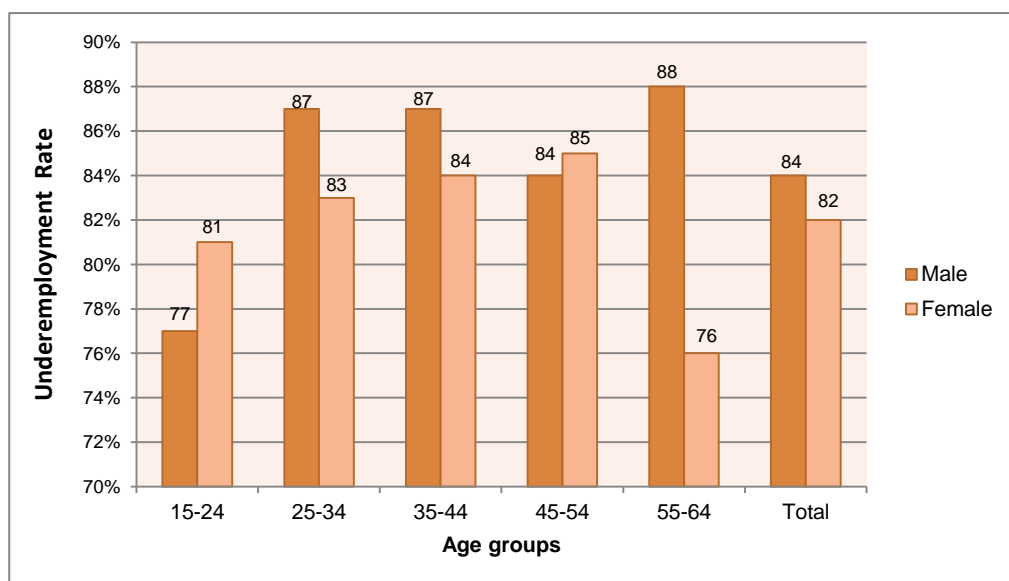
[http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPGENDER/Resources/gender\\_time\\_use\\_pov.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPGENDER/Resources/gender_time_use_pov.pdf)

<sup>69</sup> During the analysis, two other groups of employment conditions were considered, namely the FYFT (full year, full-time) and the PYFT (part year, full-time) categories. These are not reported in the country profile since there were virtually zero rural workers falling in these two classes.

<sup>70</sup> The visible underemployed population comprises the employed population working less than 40 hour per week and willing to work more.



**Graph 28: Visible underemployment in rural areas by age groups (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

Such high underemployment rates are a clear symptom of the lack of working opportunities for the rural population and particularly for rural women. It is difficult to say whether this is due to land scarcity or to the constraints they face in accessing employment opportunities outside agriculture (including due to their low educational level).

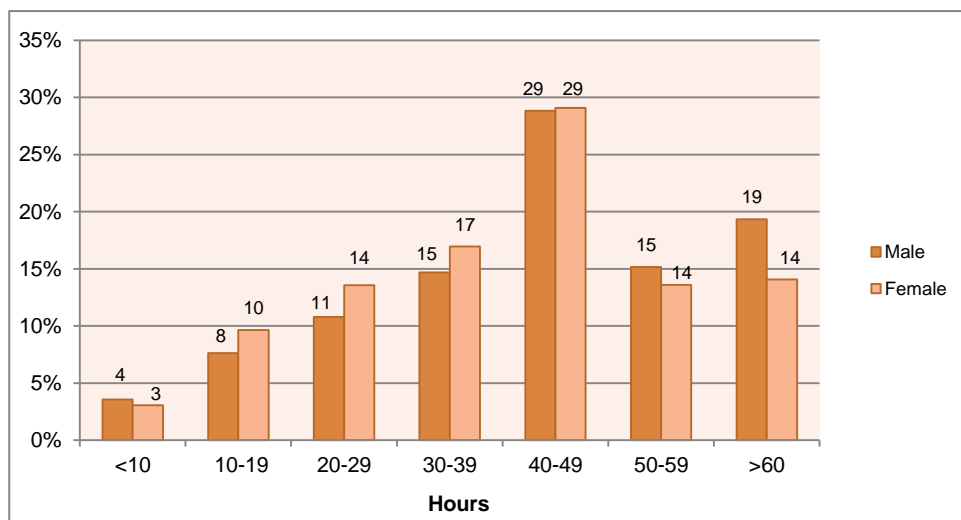
### 3.4 Time use

Time use studies are useful to understand the gender division of labour, including reproductive activities, and how such a division affects women's and men's access to income-generating opportunities and rural households' livelihood strategies. This section highlights the different constraints that female and male workers encounter in allocating their time between productive and reproductive activities. As a result of gender-differentiated time constraints, female workers are more disadvantaged in undertaking productive work. In this subsection the activities of individuals are divided into two broad categories, namely, productive activities and reproductive activities.<sup>71</sup>

**Slight differences exist in the amount of time that women and men dedicate to productive activities.** Amongst the rural employed population, more men (34 percent) than women (28 percent) spend over 49 hours per week on productive activities. However, more women (60 percent) than men (55 percent) spend between 20 and 49 hours per week on productive activities (see Graph 29).

<sup>71</sup> The productive activities include the SNA (Standard National Account) activities: employment for establishments, primary productive activities (such as crop farming, animal husbandry, fishing, forestry and processing) and other productive activities (income services, trade and business). The reproductive activities consist of extended-SNA activities, including household maintenance, domestic duties, care for children, the sick and the elderly and community services. The activities related to learning, social and cultural activities, mass media and personal care and self-maintenance constituting non-productive activities are not taken into consideration.

**Graph 29: Women's and men's time devoted to productive activities<sup>72</sup> (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

The figures about the share of time devoted to productive activities (for both main and second jobs) also confirm the gender differences highlighted above: males spend a higher percentage of their time in productive activities compared to females in all age groups. The difference is more evident among adults, suggesting once again that constraints preventing female access to the labor market are still binding.

**Table 9: Average share of total hours in a week devoted to productive activities (main and second jobs) by male and female for all age groups (in %)**

	Male	Female
Children (5-11)	9	6
Children (12-14)	11	8
Youth	17	14
Adult in working age	22	17
Elderly	20	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>

Source: ILFS 2006

Reproductive activities, particularly cooking and taking care of the children, add a considerable time burden on rural women hampering their chances to access productive work. 52 percent of women's time is devoted to reproductive activities compared to 32 percent of men's. This means that while men spend a larger portion of their time on income generating activities, women are severely constrained in the actual amount of time they are able to allocate to productive and remunerative activities. The analysis by age cohort shows that while there are gender gaps in all age categories, adult females (34-65) spend on average twice as much time on reproductive activities than men for the same age categories. Overall, women of working age (15-65) spend a disproportionate amount of time carrying out domestic and care duties. This suggests the existence of great gender inequalities in terms of ability to access and retain employment.

When looking in detail at the different types of reproductive activities, we notice that both women and men devote most of their time to cooking, although women spend three times as much time as men on cooking. Overall, except for household maintenance and shopping, females in all age categories spend more

<sup>72</sup> Time spent in productive activities was computed for the employed population only.

minutes per week than men carrying out different types of domestic duties. Similarly, all women regardless of age, spend a greater amount of time taking care of children than men do, even if the largest difference – 35 vs. 11 minutes – can be seen in the adult population group.

**Table 10: Reproductive activities for employed males and females by age-category, total minutes per week<sup>73</sup>**

	Children (5-11)		Children (12-14)		Youth		Adult population		Elderly	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cooking	41	65	47	85	56	122	44	129	39	90
Collecting water	15	20	18	24	16	27	10	23	8	15
Collecting firewood	9	11	12	10	11	15	11	16	8	12
Cleaning	9	12	9	14	9	15	6	15	7	10
Care of clothes	7	10	9	11	7	14	5	12	4	6
Maintenance and shopping	11	12	16	17	21	20	29	23	29	23
<b>Total Domestic</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>156</b>
Care of children	17	30	15	19	15	29	11	35	8	19
Care of sick	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	4	4	5
Care of disabled	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Care of elderly	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Care of others	2	2	2	3	4	4	7	7	7	7
<b>Total Care</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Total Community services</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>Total reproductive</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>174</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>192</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>260</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>273</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>201</b>
<b>Total productive</b>	<b>126.9</b>	<b>89.1</b>	<b>163.9</b>	<b>120.3</b>	<b>241.0</b>	<b>198.1</b>	<b>313.7</b>	<b>244.0</b>	<b>281.5</b>	<b>216.9</b>

Source: ILFS 2006

**Age is an important determinant of time use.** Gender differences in time spent on reproductive activities are more striking within the adult age group. The time spent by men on domestic activities increases gradually from childhood to youth, reaching its peak at 2 hours for youth males. However, it decreases by 15 minutes for adult males indicating that on average, working age men engage less in domestic activities than youth and children. Conversely, the time devoted by women to domestic activities increases constantly from childhood to adulthood, reaching its peak at 217 minutes for adult women of working age, and decreases slightly for elderly women. This means that as they become economically active, men engage less in domestic activities. The same however, is not true of women whose productive work adds to the reproductive work burden. The data also confirm that the gender division of roles in the household, and consequently the time use pattern of household members, is determined from childhood, with girls being more involved than boys in reproductive activities like cooking, fetching water and taking care of younger siblings.

<sup>73</sup> Time spent in productive activities was computed for the employed population only.

### Did you know?

- Male landholders considerably outnumber female landholders: 73 percent of holders are men whereas only 27 percent are women. Women landholders have fewer and smaller plots that are predominantly subsistence oriented.
- Women's farms are largely rain fed and use less hired labour. However, women are hired more often as casual labourers than men and their mean wages are almost three times lower than those of men in agriculture.
- Maize is the main crop cultivated by both women and men in both small and medium/large farms.
- Overall, few farmers, women or men, benefit from the use of inputs. However, the gender gap is widest with regards to improved seeds among market-oriented farmers.

Access to productive resources such as land, modern inputs, technology, education and financial services is a critical determinant of agricultural productivity. While women play a key role in agriculture, comprising on average 43 percent of the agricultural labour force in developing countries<sup>75</sup>, they have less access to the productive resources and services required by agricultural producers. Women are less likely than men to own land or livestock, adopt new technologies, use credit or other financial services, or receive education or extension advice. In some cases, women do not even control the use of their own time. The size of the gender gap differs by resource and location, but the underlying cause of the gender asset gap is repeated across regions: social norms systematically limit the options available to women. Regardless of cause or magnitude, however, the gender asset gap reduces the agricultural productivity of women and thus involves broader economic and social costs.<sup>76</sup>

---

<sup>74</sup> All the statistics in the agriculture section refer to the long rainy season of 2008. The choice of the NPS 2009 as the source of data for the agriculture section of the Country Profile has been made for several reasons. First, despite being far from exhaustive, the NPS provides information about farming activities at the individual level. On the other hand, the Agriculture Sample Census 2007/08, while containing a more complete and detailed set of information, allows only for gender disaggregation at the household level. Second, the aim of the profile is to shed light on some of the main gender inequalities in the agriculture sector rather than to compile a detailed and comprehensive report of the farming sector, and the NPS allows for presenting statistics disaggregated by gender at the individual level. Third, by describing few (but nonetheless relevant) aspects of the agriculture sector in Tanzania, the present analysis will contribute to the design of forthcoming Agriculture Census and Surveys' questionnaires to enable analysis of statistics that are age and gender disaggregated at the individual level. The ILFS 2006 is used in this section in a very marginal way only to assess the average salary for those employed as waged workers in agriculture. The agricultural questionnaire included in the NPS collects information on each plot held by the household, including tenure, cultivated crops and agricultural inputs. The questionnaire is thus designed to collect information at the level of the plot and not at the level of the individual farmer who may actually hold more than one single plot. For this reason, the information in this section provides insights from two different perspectives: 1) the perspective of the holder/farmer - distribution by sex, age, region, type of activity - not taking into account the number of the plots which he/she holds; 2) the perspective of the plot - dimension, crop cultivated, quality of soil, use of agriculture inputs - counting each individual with more than one plot as many times as the number of plots he/she holds.

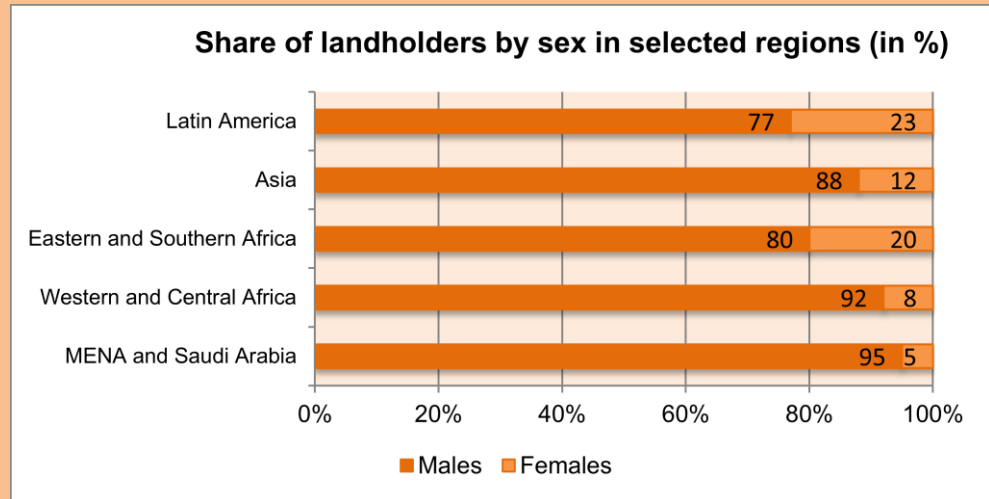
<sup>75</sup> FAO, 2011.

<sup>76</sup> Ibid.

In Tanzania Mainland's rural areas, agriculture employs the largest number of workers. As seen in the previous section, in Tanzania Mainland, 91 percent of rural women and 86 percent of rural men have their first job in the agricultural sector and the majority of them work on their own farm. Moreover, 24 percent of those with a second job also engage in agriculture.

### Gender Inequalities in Land Rights

Gender inequalities in land rights are pervasive. Women across all developing regions are consistently less likely to own, manage or operate land. The FAO Gender and Land Rights Database (FAO 2010) shows that the share of female holders in developing countries is substantially lower than that of males.



Therefore, getting a picture of the

farming population, their farming practices and the intrinsic gender patterns is key to developing a better understanding of the role that farming plays in the livelihood strategies of rural women and men.

**Women landholders are fewer and older compared to male holders, and have less and smaller plots, which are predominantly used for subsistence-oriented farming activities.** According to the NPS, in Tanzania Mainland, 73 percent of landholders are men, whereas only 27 percent are women. Although in all regions male landholders considerably outnumber female landholders, there are regional differences to be accounted for. Landholders are more concentrated in the regions of the West, Lakes and North, while the larger share of female holders can be found in the North and Southern Highlands (see Graph 30). The area with the highest inequality in terms of land distribution by gender is the West, where female holders constitute only 16 percent of all landholders. Further research would be needed to understand why some regions perform better than others in terms of women's land ownership and management. A number of changes to the laws governing land ownership were made during the 1990s, most notably the introduction of the Lands Act (1999)<sup>77</sup> and Village Lands Act (1999).<sup>78</sup> The new acts included a number of clauses aimed at encouraging female land ownership<sup>79</sup>. However, a number of declarations that explicitly discriminate against female land ownership are still on the books, and there are reportedly problems with the implementation of a number of the clauses in the new acts, especially where they conflict with customary and religious legal systems, such as in the case of female land ownership.<sup>80</sup>

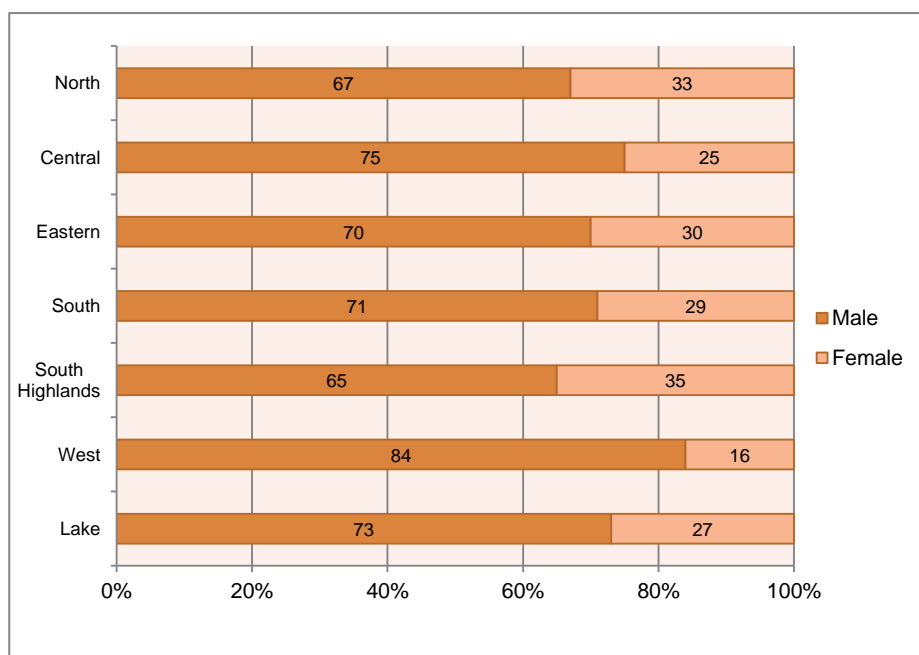
<sup>77</sup> <http://polis.parliament.go.tz/PAMS/docs/4-1999.pdf> The Land Act (1999) has also been included in the Annex.

<sup>78</sup> <http://polis.parliament.go.tz/PAMS/docs/5-1999.pdf> The Village Lands Act (1999) Has also been included in the Annex

<sup>79</sup> [http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:6d2Dfyt2tYJ:www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/nr/images/resources/pdf\\_documents/kagera/tanzania/1999\\_land\\_act\\_and\\_village\\_land\\_act.rtf+fao+tanzania+land+act+and+village+lands+act&cd=1&hl=nl&ct=clnk&gl=nl](http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:6d2Dfyt2tYJ:www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/nr/images/resources/pdf_documents/kagera/tanzania/1999_land_act_and_village_land_act.rtf+fao+tanzania+land+act+and+village+lands+act&cd=1&hl=nl&ct=clnk&gl=nl)

<sup>80</sup> [http://www.wri.org/property-rights-africa/wriTest\\_Tanzania//documents/Tanzania\\_LessonBrief\\_3.pdf](http://www.wri.org/property-rights-africa/wriTest_Tanzania//documents/Tanzania_LessonBrief_3.pdf)

**Graph 30: Share of male and female landholders by region (in %)**



Source: NPS 2009

93 percent of the plots are smaller than five acres (around two hectares). Of the plots larger than 5 acres, only 11 percent are held by women. Moreover, men tend to hold more plots than women: the average number of plots held by women is 2.5 against 3.0 for men. If data are analyzed at the household level, the average number is 2 plots for FHHs and 2.3 plots for MHHs.

Female landholders are older on average than their male counterparts: 27 percent of male holders are aged between 25 and 34 years, compared to only 19 percent of female holders. On the other hand, one quarter of the female holders are older than 55, whereas only 15 percent of male holders are in the same age group (see Table 11). This suggests that women are likely to access land at a later stage of their (productive) life.

**Table 11: Age of landholders by sex (in %)**

Age	Male	Female	Total
15-24	5	3	4
25-34	27	19	25
35-44	29	28	28
45-55	23	26	24
55-64	15	25	18

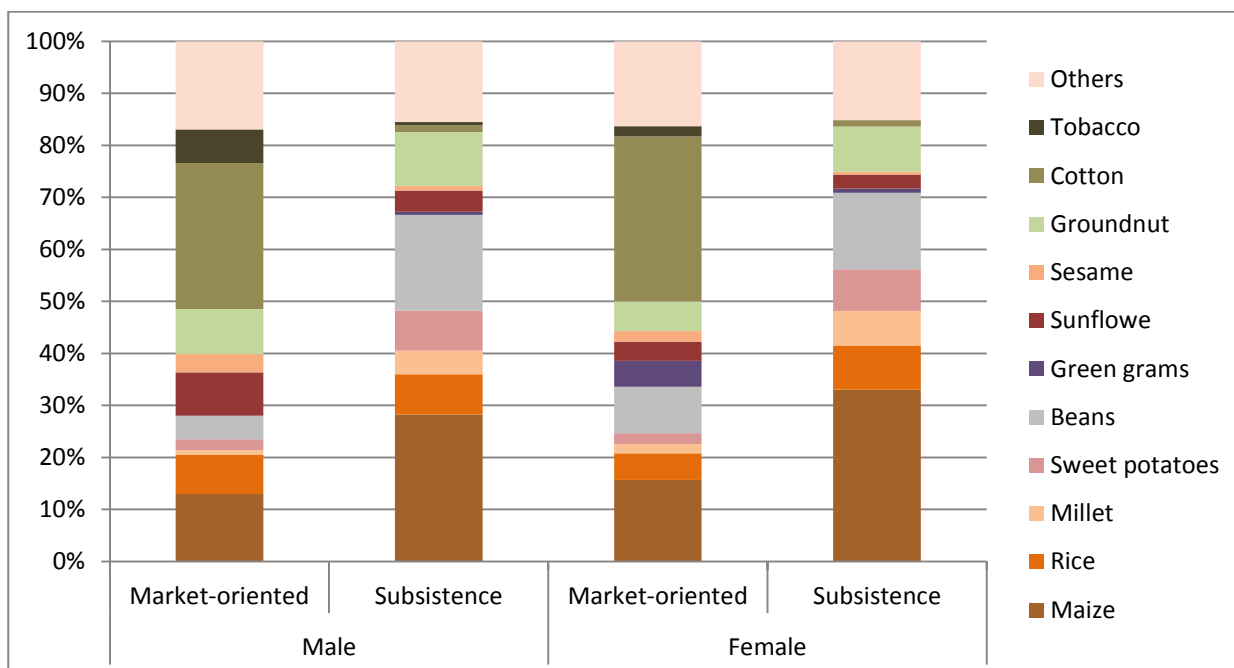
Source: NPS 2009

Most farm holders operate at subsistence level, comprising 89 percent of male holders and 92 percent of female holders. Farm holders cultivate between two and three different crops on average, with no major differences between sexes. Regardless of the sex of the farm holder, maize is the main crop in both small and medium/large plots, followed by cassava and rice. However, some differences emerge when disaggregating by subsistence and market-oriented<sup>81</sup> farm holders. Not surprisingly, market-oriented farm holders of both sexes cultivate a smaller share of food crops and focus on cash crops such as tobacco and

<sup>81</sup> The farmer's activity is classified as market-oriented if more than 70 percent of the total harvest coming from all plots held is sold at the market, otherwise it is classified as subsistence.

cotton. Despite similarities in choice of market-oriented crops (as for example maize and cotton), some differences between females and males can be noticed (see Graph 31).

**Graph 31: Main crops by type and sex of farmers**



Source: NPS 2009

Few farmers, either women or men, benefit from use of agricultural inputs, and there is a significant gender gap among market-oriented farmers with regard to the use of improved seeds. Organic/inorganic fertilizers, pesticides and herbicides are used in only about 10 percent of the plots, regardless of the kind of activity carried out by the farmer (whether market-oriented or subsistence farming). These percentages are usually lower for plots held by females, but the difference is not significant (see Table 12).

**Table 12: Use of inputs by sex of the farmer<sup>82</sup> (in %)**

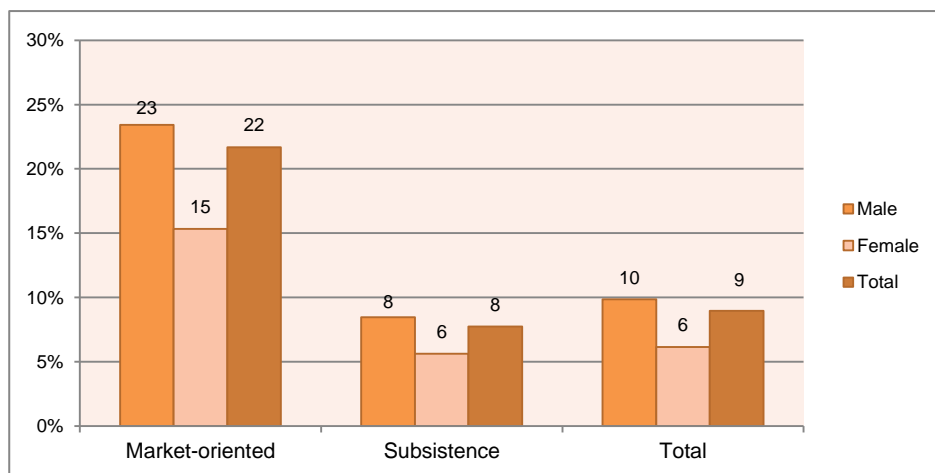
Sex of farmer	Inorganic fertilizer	Pesticide/herbicide	Improved seeds
Male	10	11	10
Female	9	8	6
Total	10	11	9

Source: NPS 2009

Available data also show that the use of improved seeds is extremely low as it does not exceed 10 percent nationwide. A closer look into the category of users of improved seeds reveals significant inequalities. First, there are considerable differences between market-oriented and subsistence farmers. In fact, 22 percent of plots held by market-oriented farmers benefit from the use of improved seeds, compared to 8 percent of the plots held by subsistence farmers. Furthermore, a wide gender gap is evident in the use of improved seeds, in particular among market-oriented farmers (see Graph 32).

<sup>82</sup> The calculated difference between men and women has a 1 percent significance level.

**Graph 32: Use of improved seeds by sex and type of activity of the holder (in %)**



Source: NPS 2009

**Women’s plots are largely rain-fed and use less hired labour.** While most of the plots are irrigated by flooding (71 percent) and buckets (18 percent), considerable gender differences exist with regards to irrigation. 92 percent and 8 percent of the plots held by women are irrigated by flooding and by bucket respectively, as opposed to 63 percent and 23 percent of men’s plots. None of the women in the sample were reported as having plots that benefit from mechanical irrigation systems such as sprinklers, drip irrigation or water hoses.

Finally, female farmers tend to hire less labour than male farmers, perhaps due to the lack of resources, or due to the fact that they are more engaged in small scale farming. This might have consequences in terms of productivity and profitability of their farming activities and of the time-burden overload. Both male and female farmers tend to use more female than male casual labour (Table 13). This could be linked with the fact that hiring a woman is cheaper than hiring a man (mean wages of men are indeed almost three times higher than those of women in agriculture<sup>83</sup>, but further research is needed to better understand these patterns.

**Table 13: Number of working days of hired labour by sex of the farmer and of the labourer per season<sup>84</sup>**

Landholder	Land preparation and planting		Weeding		Harvesting	
	Male labour (days)	Female labour (days)	Male labour (days)	Female labour (days)	Male labour (days)	Female labour (days)
Male farmer	2.5	5.4	4.4	4.3	2.5	3.2
Female farmer	1.6	4.2	2.8	2.8	2.0	2.1

Source: NPS 2009

Although the available data provides only limited insights, the resulting picture indicates that female landholders are more disadvantaged than their male counterparts in terms of access to land, quantity of plots, use of improved seeds and access to irrigation and hired labour. This means that their productive capabilities are hampered by significant gender inequalities which impose real costs and constraints on the agricultural sector, and on food security, economic growth and broader social welfare. Thus, while more research would be required, it can be nonetheless concluded that closing the gender gap in access to resources and empowering women to contribute more effectively to, and benefit more fully from, the economic opportunities offered by agricultural and rural employment, could generate significant gains for the sector and society as a whole.

<sup>83</sup> ILFS, 2006.

<sup>84</sup> The calculated difference between men and women has a 1 percent significance level.



## PART V: GENDER PATTERNS IN INTERNAL MOBILITY

### Did you know?

- At least 29 percent of the population above 14 years has migrated at least once in their life. Internal migration originates mainly from rural areas by which rural to rural migration is relatively more important than rural to urban migration. Young women migrate more than young men, whereas adult women migrate less than adult men.
- Family is the main reason for migrating; this is true especially for women, whereas men are more likely to move in order to find better agricultural land, and for work-related reasons. Female and male youth move predominantly for family reasons both in urban and rural areas.
- Among work-related reasons for migrating, looking for a waged-employment is the main driver for people in both urban and rural areas. However, women who migrated to other rural areas are the exception, generally doing so as a consequence of job transfers.

**At least 29 percent of the population older than 14 years has migrated at least once in their life<sup>85</sup>.** This migration flow has not taken place in recent years, as 22 percent of people had moved to their present location more than five years prior to the survey. More than 50 percent of the people who migrated are younger than 34 years. Although there are no significant gender differences, young women (15-34) migrate more than men, while older women migrate less than men (see Table 14). The age distribution of migrants can probably be better explained in light of the main reasons behind men and women's migration which are discussed in more detail below.

**Table 14: Migrants by age group and sex (in %)**

Age	Male	Female	Total
15-24	24	29	27
25-34	29	32	31
35-44	25	23	24
45-64	11	8	10
65+	11	8	9

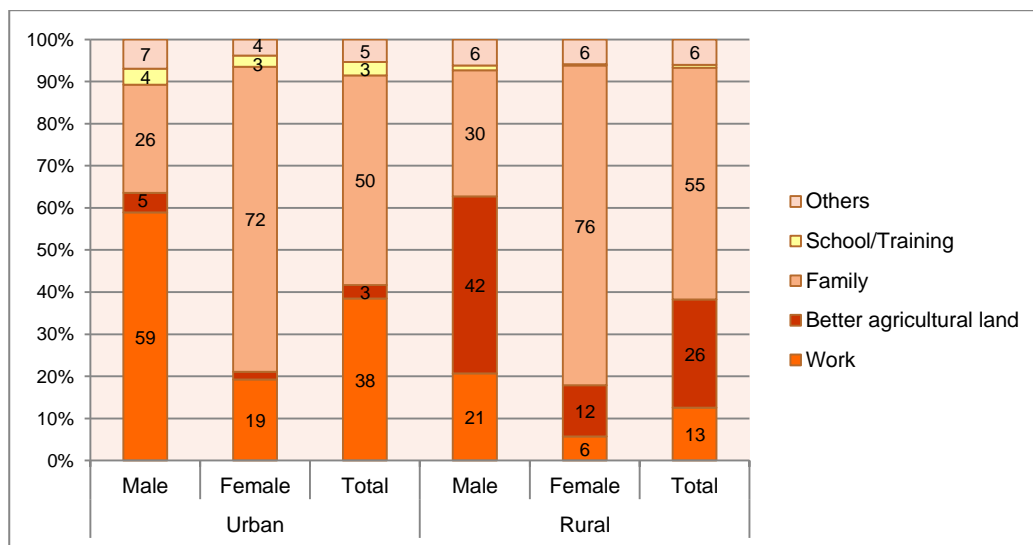
Source: ILFS 2006

Internal migration originates mainly in rural areas. In addition, rural to rural migration is relatively more important than rural to urban migration. The data available from the ILFS 2006 show that migration is mainly a rural phenomenon. Of all internal movements of the population above 15 years, 71 percent has a rural origin. Moreover, most rural migrants have moved to another rural setting (58 percent), and only a minority, 42 percent, have migrated to an urban centre. A closer look at the youth population (15-24) reveals a similar picture: it is largely the rural youth who move away (69 percent) and the majority of them (53 percent) have moved to other rural areas.

<sup>85</sup> Using ILFS 2006 data, migrant' is defined as a person who is not in his place of birth, and migration patterns are restricted to in-country mobility patterns only. The migration is measured building upon the question: "How long have you lived in this town/district?". As a result, the survey does not capture return migration and external migration. This measurement fails also to capture short-term and temporary migration, such as seasonal migration and pastoralism. Pastoralists and seasonal agricultural workers are likely to be excluded or underrepresented / underestimated in the present analysis.

Most people migrate for family reasons, such as marriage, but rural men migrate more than women for work-related reasons<sup>86</sup>, and particularly to look for better agricultural land. Nationwide, family related reasons, such as marriage, emerge as the main motivation for migrating (52 percent), followed by work (25 percent). However, this national average masks important differences as reasons for migrating vary according to sex, place of destination and age. When analyzing the reasons in more detail, major gender differences arise (see Graph 33). Both women in urban and rural areas move predominantly for family reasons, which help to explain the relative younger age of female migrants. Unlike women, men have more than one predominant reason for migrating. In urban areas, they move mainly for work-related reasons, but also for family reasons, whereas in rural areas they move mainly to look for better agricultural land, rather than for family reasons, or to find paid jobs.

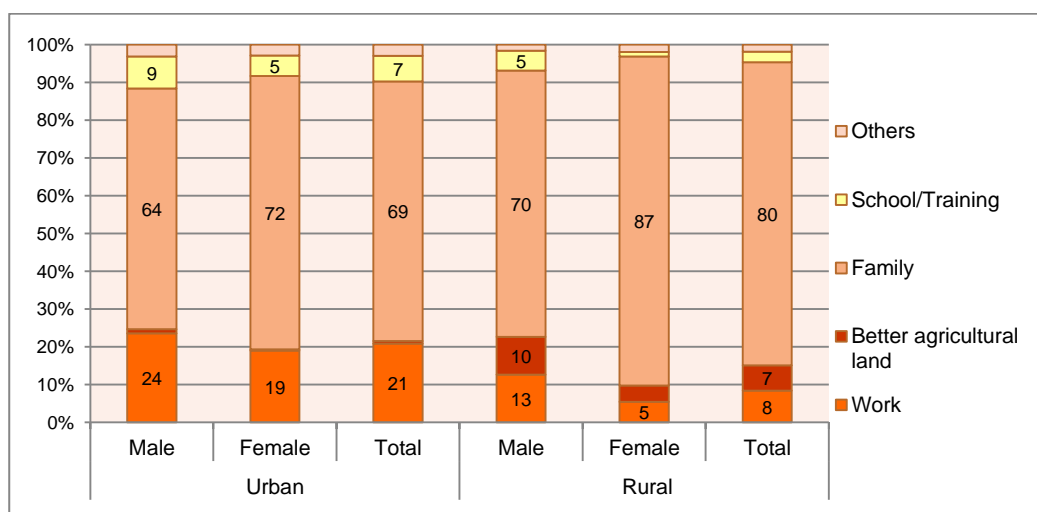
**Graph 33: for migrating by sex and destination – total population older than 14 (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

Interesting differences emerge when focusing on the youth population. In the case of youth, family emerges clearly as the main reason for migration among young women and men, both in urban and rural areas (Graph 34).

**Graph 34: Reasons for migrating by sex and destination – youth population (in %)**

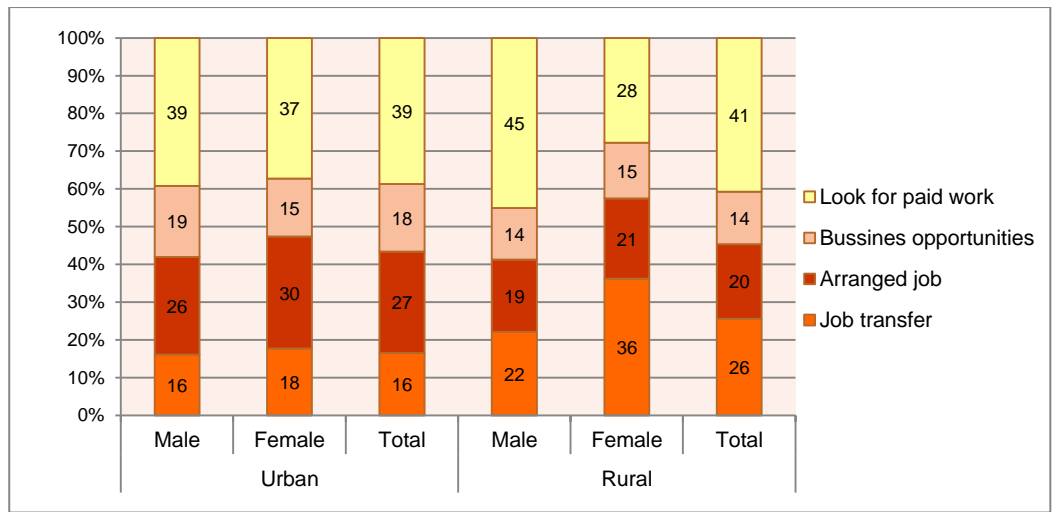


Source: ILFS 2006

<sup>86</sup> Migration is considered for family reasons if the individual moved to join his/her family or spouse, while working reasons includes job transfers, arranged job, business opportunities and look for paid work.

When taking a closer look at the work-related reasons for migration (see Graph 35), searching for paid work emerges as the main driver for migration to both urban and rural areas. The only exception is women moving to rural areas as 36 percent of these women did so as a consequence of job transfers.

**Graph 35: Working reasons for migrating by sex for individuals aged 14 and above (in %)**



Source: ILFS 2006

## Key findings

1. Despite rapid urbanization, Tanzania remains largely rural. In 2009, around 78 percent of both the male and female population was living in rural areas.
2. In 2006, the total labour force population of Tanzania Mainland was 18.8 million of which 2.2 million, or 11.7 percent, were unemployed. Rural areas had the highest labour force participation rate at 90.8 percent.
3. Tanzania has a young and rapidly growing population. In 2009, around 64 percent of the total population was below 25 years of age. Between 2010 and 2015 the estimated average annual population growth rate was 4.7 percent in urban areas and 2.2 percent in rural areas.
4. Poverty continues to be primarily rural: 88 percent of Tanzania's poor live in rural areas, and around 40 percent of the rural population lives below the basic needs poverty line. There is a clear tendency for the poorest households to be headed by younger members of the population. In addition, poorer households are more likely to engage in agriculture than wealthier ones, but overall, the participation of the population in the agricultural sector is high. Farm activities are the most important source of income for rural households, accounting for about half of the household income across all expenditure quintiles.
5. The agricultural sector is the main employer in rural areas for both women and men, with 90 percent of women and 85 percent of men working in agriculture.
6. The working population in the agriculture sector is poorly educated, levels of education are particularly low amongst rural working women (51 percent of rural working women did not attain primary education, compared to 43 percent of their male counterparts).
7. In rural areas female headed-households (FHHs) account for 24 percent of all households. In rural areas, FHHs tend to have fewer members but more dependents, and are thus more constrained in their productive capacity. Moreover female household heads tend to be older and less educated than their male counterparts.
8. Rural women lag behind their male counterparts in education, despite relative gender parity in access to primary schooling. In rural areas more girls than boys are enrolled in primary school education (75 percent for boys compared to 81 percent for girls). Despite this, more males than females attain primary school education (51 percent for males compared to 41 percent for females). Attainment rates are low for both girls and boys, but particularly for girls.
9. Women in rural areas are over-represented in unpaid employment. This is true for both first and second jobs, but especially for the latter, where 64 percent of women work as unpaid family workers in the non-agricultural sector, according to the ILFS 2006. Thus, secondary jobs do not generate extra income for the majority of women, as is the case for men, although more women than men have second jobs - 48 percent as opposed to 34 percent.
10. Self-employment is the most common employment status for the rural population in Tanzania Mainland. For instance, about 74 percent of men and 81 percent of women work on their own farm. Nevertheless data revealed that men who are self-employed in agriculture earn more than women. Not only are men's average earnings higher than women's, but also more women than men are concentrated in low levels of earnings. This may be because women are concentrated in a limited range of low-earning occupations.
11. Participation rates in vulnerable types of employment are higher for the youth than for the adult population. While most youth engage in farming activities on their families' farms, often as non-paid contributing family workers, they are also very likely to engage in unpaid employment in agriculture and other sectors. With regard to vulnerable types of employment amongst youth, there are no significant gender differences.

12. Seasonality and underemployment are major features of Tanzania's rural landscape. Virtually all (94 percent) men and women in non-wage employment in agriculture worked part year, part time (PYPT). This was also the case for the majority of those self-employed in agriculture (91 percent), and for those in wage employment in agriculture (88 percent). Underemployment is therefore a major issue in rural areas: 83 percent of the rural working population worked less than 40 hours per week, despite wanting to work more. Underemployment in rural areas varies significantly across age groups for rural men, while there are no major differences across different age groups for rural women. However, there are no significant gender differences, except for the rural population aged 55-64 years, amongst whom significantly more men than women are underemployed.
13. Females are heavily engaged in domestic, care and community activities throughout their entire life cycle. In Tanzania, both men and women undertake a number of productive and reproductive activities. However, available data reveal that there is a wide gender gap in time allocation, specifically to reproductive activities, including domestic, care and community activities. The average amount of time that women spend on reproductive activities is greater than that of men, despite the fact that women spend as much time as men on productive activities. The most time-intensive activities for women are cooking and taking care of children. Moreover, the allocation of roles in the household and consequently of household members' time use is determined from childhood, with girls being more involved than boys in reproductive activities such as cooking, fetching water and taking care of the younger members in the household.
14. Major gender-based differences are found in land ownership, with only 27 percent of landholders being women. Even if women play an essential role in agriculture and food production, they generally hold fewer and smaller plots than men. However, no major gender differences emerge either in the relative importance of market-oriented and subsistence farmers, or in the use of fertilizers/pesticides, although there is a wide gender gap in the use of improved seeds. Female farmers also tend to hire less labour than male farmers.
15. There is a large amount of internal mobility amongst Tanzania's rural dwellers. At least 29 percent of the population above the age of 14 years have has migrated at least once in their life. Internal migration originates mainly from rural areas, and rural to rural migration is relatively more important than rural to urban migration. There are important gender and age dynamics in internal mobility. Young women migrate more than young men, but adult women migrate less than adult men. The main reason for migration is family related reasons such as marriage. This is especially true for women, as more men than women are likely to migrate to look for better agricultural land, and for other work-related reasons.

## Conclusion

In recent decades, the United Republic of Tanzania has experienced tremendous economic progress. However, this economic success has not translated into inclusive growth with a broadening of the economic base: it remains one of the poorest countries in the world and poverty in rural areas is pervasive.

Despite the role that women play in farming, their access to productive resources, in particular land, is more limited than that of their male counterparts. Moreover, self-employed women in agriculture earn significantly less than men and an important share of those who have a second job are family workers. Although further research would be needed to better understand the nature of women's activities, the kind of benefits obtained from women's involvement as unpaid family workers, and the contribution of these activities to the wellbeing of the households, the available evidence indicates that additional efforts are necessary to enable women to generate sufficient income through their main occupation.

Moreover, heavy engagement of rural women in domestic, care and community activities limits their productive and educational potential. Social and cultural norms determine the role that women and men play in society, the community, and within households. Available data reveal that domestic tasks and household chores such as food preparation, water and fuel collection, and caring for children and the elderly are activities primarily carried out by women, while the difference in terms of time allocation between women and men to productive and income-generating activities is not substantial. Furthermore, within households, the allocation of roles and time use is determined from childhood. Already at a young age, girls tend to be more involved than boys in reproductive activities such as cooking, fetching water and taking care of younger household members. As a result of time constraints, female workers encounter more difficulties in undertaking productive work, or even in combining part-time work with training or vocational education. Girls' substantial involvement in household chores might also constrain their educational progress and future working opportunities.

Education is a key component of human capital, and plays a fundamental role in determining households' ability to access better labour opportunities and escape poverty. Populations with higher levels of education, or more years of schooling, are more likely to have favourable labour market outcomes in terms of both job opportunities and higher incomes. Implementation of educational reforms in the country has yield important results. For instance, primary enrolment of girls and boys has substantially increased, and the country is close to achieving full gender parity in primary education. However, national illiteracy rates are still very high, especially in rural areas where 39 percent of women and 23 percent of men are illiterate. Furthermore, while rural primary enrolment rates are high, the average length of education is only 6.6 years, which means dropout rates are extremely elevated. Out of the 59 percent of rural women aged 25 and above who have not obtained a primary qualification, as many as 74 percent never completed their first year, and only 11 percent completed the fourth year of schooling. Although more research is needed to understand the causes underpinning high dropout rates, existing evidence shows that female school desertion is linked to early pregnancy, among other factors.

Informality, multiple occupations and meager earnings are the rule in the agriculture sector and women are particularly disadvantaged in all three areas. Females are also particularly affected by time poverty that limits their productive capacity and their educational outcomes. Although more research is required to establish causal linkages between the identified gender gaps, major efforts to implement and enforce existing policies and legislations, as well as international commitments, in terms of decent employment and gender equality are urgently needed, in particular in rural areas of the country. Such efforts will contribute to ensuring that Tanzania's growth is more inclusive by enhancing the livelihoods of rural women and men in a sustainable way.

Particular attention would be required in the following areas:

- Improvement of women's land rights and access, use and control of productive resources and services through targeted and integrated interventions. Often access to different assets is inter-linked and the constraints women face are often mutually reinforcing. Therefore, interventions should be appropriately bonded and organized to address multiple constraints. Particular efforts would be needed to understand which are the context-specific obstacles that women face. Thus, improving the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data is a crucial step for interventions that are more gender sensitive.
- Formalisation of farm and off-farm agricultural jobs and application of decent work principles in rural areas, including: the creation of work opportunities as well as their quality, productivity and profitability; the provision of social security to agricultural workers; the strengthening of collective action mechanisms; the promotion of social protection programmes that adequately cover rural women, youth and female household heads. These should ensure that women and their households are protected against unforeseen shocks and that their productive capacities are enhanced.
- Integration of women into commercial cash crop systems and value chains and promotion of female-led small and medium size agro-enterprises that allow women to generate sufficient income through their first occupation. The promotion of opportunities for women to actively participate in collective action mechanisms, such as producers' organizations, that can promote rural women's voice and socio-economic empowerment is also crucial.
- Promotion of sustained rural skills development for both children and youth through formal education and for adults, particularly women, through vocational training and extension services which take into account women's time and mobility constraints; prevention of high dropout rates in primary school education for example through reproductive health education; provision of high-quality primary education in rural areas;
- Sensitization of stakeholders including policy makers, civil society, private sector, producer's organizations, local authorities etc. about the fundamental role that rural women play as economic actors and the multiple obstacles they face to accomplish their roles. Sensitization efforts at all levels and sectors need to be continuous so that social and cultural discriminatory practices and norms underpinning gender inequalities and discrimination against women could be transformed.
- Women's time poverty associated to their heavy involvement in domestic activities needs to be tackled. Issues needing particular attention are: access to water and fuel; availability of infrastructure and distance to schools, health centres, financial institutions and markets; availability and adoption of labour-saving technologies and infrastructure; and access to social care services, such as child care facilities. Moreover transformative approaches that challenge gender-biased social norms responsible for confining women and girls to most reproductive responsibilities are required to promote more gender equitable societies.

## METHODOLOGICAL NOTE

This country profile provides information about social and gender inequalities associated with rural employment issues. It has a descriptive orientation, presenting information that can be used for more specific and in-depth analysis.

The country profile uses the most recent nationally representative data available in the country. The selection of the data sets and indicators was conditioned to a significant extent to frame the analysis around social and gender inequalities, taking into account the decent work framework (particularly focusing on job creation and quality of employment). After an appraisal of the most recent available data, three databases were selected for the development of the Tanzania Country Profile:

- National Panel Survey 2009: The 2009 wave is the first wave of the panel survey, which has been planned to be repeated biennially. The Survey was designed with the objective of monitoring the progress toward the goals set out in the National Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction; it has a national representative sample of 3280 households. The survey has been used for the production of the statistics in the Demographic, Education and Agriculture Section.
- Integrated Labour Force Survey 2006: The survey was designed to provide up-to-date information needed by policy makers and other stakeholders related to human economic activities. In the context of this profile, it has been used to analyze employment and literacy as well as, more marginally, the agriculture sector.
- RIGA (2009): The RIGA dataset is based on the NPS 2009. It provides information that is relevant to labour issues by reorganizing at the household level the information originally contained in the NPS 2009 and by creating new variables. RIGA is a joint project of FAO, the World Bank and the American University in Washington. The database has been used together with the NPS 2009 in the Income and Inequality Section.

These databases have been used in a complementary manner to cover the different sections of the country profile, bearing in mind that only the NPS 2009 and RIGA 09 are directly comparable. At the bottom of each table, graph and map, the corresponding source is indicated.

### **Programs:**

- Stata10
- Microsoft Excel 2007

### **Key definitions and concepts:**

*Rural*

The rural-urban classification is provided by the questionnaire.

*Disaggregation*

Sex, age, location (rural-urban), geographical (by zone).

*Area*

The country has been divided into seven areas due to the limited size of the sample of the NPS 2009 which does not allow regional and district disaggregation.

Central	Dodoma, Singida
Northern	Arusha, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, , Manyara
Eastern	Morogoro, Pwani, Dar-es-Salaam
Southern	Lindi, Mtwara, Ruvuma
Southern-Highlands	Iringa, Mbeya, Rukwa
Western	Tabora, Kigoma, Shinyanga
Lake	Kagera, Mwanza, Mara



<i>Dependency rate</i>	The dependency rate is the ratio between the size of population not in active age (younger than 15 years old and older than 65 years old) and the population in active age (between 15 and 64 years of age).
<i>Literacy rate</i>	The literacy rate is computed as the percentage of the population aged 15 and above that can read and write in at least one language.
<i>Enrolment rate</i>	Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.
<i>Children and child labour</i>	Child labour is defined by the ILO Conventions No. 138 and No. 182 as work that interferes with compulsory schooling and is damaging for health and personal development. Especially in the context of family farming and other rural family endeavours, it is important to recognize that some participation of children in productive non-hazardous activities can be positive as it contributes to the inter-generational transfer of skills.
<i>Youth</i>	Population aged between 15 and 24 as per UN definition. National age definitions of youth may vary.
<i>Age structure of the population</i>	The population pyramids represent the age structure of the population from 0 to 85 years old and above.
<i>Labour force participation</i>	Population aged between 15 and 64, including those who are currently working or actively looking for a job. Students are not considered as labour force participants.
<i>Age structure of the working population</i>	The working population includes individuals aged between 15 and 64. Five age groups have been defined and each group comprises a ten year-range.
<i>Employment</i>	The ILFS 2006 questionnaire classifies as employed all the individuals who did “any work of any type for pay, profit, barter or home use during last week”. In other words, employed people are those who participate in the labour force and have a job, regardless of the type of work arrangement and/or duration; also considered employed are those who, although not working in the 7 days prior to the interview, have a job or own a farm or enterprise to which they will definitely return to work. Employment includes both formal and informal work, both paid work (in cash, in kind, or barter) and unpaid work, contributing to the livelihood of the household, including work on the agricultural holding, performed not only by the owner, but also by unpaid family members.
<i>Informal Employment</i>	All economic activities by workers and economic units that are – in law or in practice – not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements. Their activities are not included in the law, which means that they are operating outside the formal reach of the law; or they are not covered in practice, which means that, although they are operating within the formal reach of the law, the law is not applied or not enforced; or the law discourages compliance because it is inappropriate, burdensome, or imposes excessive costs.
<i>Vulnerable employment</i>	This measures the proportion of own-account workers and contributing family members in total employment. The indicator is based on the status in employment indicator contained in Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) that generally distinguishes between three categories of the total employed. These are: 1. wage and salaried

workers (also known as employees); 2. self-employed workers that include self-employed workers with employees (employers), self-employed workers without employees (own-account workers) and members of producers' cooperatives; 3. contributing family workers (also known as unpaid family workers).

*Time use in productive and domestic activities*

Information on time use is drawn from the Time Use Survey attached to the ILFS 2006. Time use is expressed as minutes per week spent in different activities; the latter have been organized into three broad categories, namely, those included in the Standard National Accounts (SNA), extended SNA activities, and non-productive activities:

UN classification	TUS classification
SNA	Employment in establishments
	Primary productive activities
	Other productive activities
Reproductive / Extended SNA	Domestic activities
	Care activities
	Community services
Non productive	Learning activities
	Social and cultural activities
	Media use
	Personal care

Collecting firewood or dung, collecting water and waiting to collect water were classified as primary productive activities but have been considered domestic activities in the analysis. In addition, the gender differences being more pronounced in the category of domestic activities, a further disaggregation has been carried out to allow for a more in depth analysis (i.e. cooking, cleaning, care of clothes, shopping, household management and maintenance, collecting firewood and collecting water).

*Unemployment*

The unemployed population is composed of individuals not employed in the last 7 days but available to work and actively looking for work in the 4 weeks prior to the interview.

*Underemployment*

Employed population working less than 40 hours per week who are willing to work more.

*Education groups*

In terms of educational attainment, four education groups have been defined for the population aged 25 and above (i.e., derived from the variable "highest grade completed"). These are: 1) none (those with no education; 2) primary (those who completed the 7<sup>th</sup> year of primary education); 3) secondary (advanced A- level); and 4) post-secondary (holders of bachelor or master's or doctorate degrees). The use of the highest level of education attained as an indicator for educational

achievement requires some caution in the interpretation. It does not adequately capture those individuals who have started but not completed a certain stage of education. It is nonetheless a good indicator to gather evidence about the education system in terms of quantity of schooling.

*Income activities*

In the income section, data from the RIGA dataset are used. In particular, “participation in” and “share of income from” – are used as complementary indicators to assess the diversification of income sources and the nature of the jobs from which people derived the income. The income aggregates constructed for the RIGA countries contain seven principal income sources (crop; livestock; agricultural wages; non-agricultural wages; non-farm enterprises; transfers; other non-labour activities) which are grouped into the following four basic categories: 1) on-farm activities (self-employed farming, income being the sum of crop and livestock production - in this category only agricultural production activities are included); 2) agricultural wage activities; 3) non-agricultural waged activities; and 4) self-employment (income from non-farm business - it should be noted that this category includes self-employment in the agricultural sector only if the activity consists of processing activities).

*Holder*

When only one owner is indicated in the survey, the land is assigned to the unique owner of the plot. In the case of multiple ownership, the land is assigned to the person responsible for decisions over land use (i.e. which crop to plant on the plot). If this information is missing, the first owner in the survey is considered the holder of the plot. Finally, if the information about the owner of the plot is missing, the farm is assigned to the person responsible for decisions over land use.

*Farm dimension*

Farms are classified into small farm (less than 5 acres, or about 2 hectares) and medium/large farm (more than 5 acres, or about 2 hectares).

*Farmer’s activity*

Following the RIGA methodology, a farmer’s activity is classified as market-oriented if more than 70 percent of his/her total harvest is sold in the market; otherwise, he/she is classified as subsistence-oriented. For matters of compatibility among the agriculture-related databases composing the NPS 2009, the classification of the activity is centralized at the farmer level (and is based on the total harvest obtained from all the farms held) and is then reattached to each single farm he/she holds; nonetheless it should be made clear that it might well be that a single farmer can practice different activities on different plots.

*Main crop*

This information comes from a specific question on the questionnaire: “What was the main crop cultivated on this plot in the long rainy season 2008?”.

*Crop harvested*

This includes the entire range of crops harvested by the farmer during the past 12 months prior to the interview, regardless of the land on which they were cultivated.

*Age classification of land holder*

Landholders have been classified into five age categories, each of them comprising a range of 10 years. The total distribution spans from 18 to 65 years.

*Ownership status*

This indicates the kind of right (if any) the farmer has to his/her land. It has been classified into five statutes, namely: owned, rented in, shared-

rent, shared-owned, used free of charge.

*Crop harvested*

This includes all types of crops harvested by the farmer during the last long rainy season, regardless of the land on which they were cultivated.

*Migrant*

According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the United Nations defines 'migrant' as an individual who has resided in a foreign country for more than one year irrespective of the causes, voluntary or involuntary, and the means, regular or irregular, used to migrate. Under such a definition, those travelling for shorter periods as tourists and business persons would not be considered migrants. However, common usage includes certain kinds of shorter-term migrants, such as seasonal farm-workers who travel for short periods to work planting or harvesting farm products.

*Sex ratio*

Male population share / Female population share

## REFERENCES

- ASDP Evaluation, 2011. Evaluation of the Performance and Achievements of the Agricultural Sector Development Programme (ASDP), submitted to the Director of Policy and Planning, Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security and Communities, June 12, 2011. Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania: Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security and Communities.
- CEDAW, 2007. Consideration of reports submitted by State parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women. Combined fourth, fifth and sixth periodic reports of States parties – Tanzania (available at <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/reports.htm#t>)
- CEDAW, 2008. Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women: United Republic of Tanzania, Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women Forty-first session 30 June-18 July 2008.
- FAO, 2009. “We All Inherited this Earth” Inheritance Rights of Widows and Orphans in the Context of HIV and AIDS: Legal Overview. Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East (Draft). Rome: FAO.
- FAO, 2011. State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11: Women in agriculture, Closing the gender gap for development. Rome, Italy: FAO.
- Foster, W., Valdés, A., Davis, B., Anríquez, G. 2001. The filters to exit rural poverty An analysis of the complementarities of assets in developing countries, ESA Working paper 11-01, February 2011. Rome: FAO.
- Foster, James; Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke, 1984. A class of decomposable poverty measures”. *Econometrica*. 352;761-766.
- Galabawa, C. J., 2001. Developments and issues regarding universal primary education (UPE) in Tanzania. Report presented at ADEA Biennial meeting, Arusha, Tanzania, October 7-11.
- IFAD, 2007. United Republic of Tanzania Country Strategic Opportunities Paper, Executive Board, Ninety-first Session, 11-12 September 2007 (available at <http://www.ifad.org/gbdocs/eb/91/e/EB-2007-91-R-14.pdf>). Rome.
- IOM, 2009. Tanzania Mapping Exercise – London, March 2009, London: IOM UK.
- MFEA, 2010. Tanzania Gender Indicators 2010, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs.
- MFEA, 2011. National Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction II, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs.
- NBS, 2002. Household Budget Survey 2000/01. Key findings. Dar es Salaam: NBS.
- NBS and ICF Macro, 2011. Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey 2010. Dar es Salaam: NBS and ICF Macro.
- Oketch Moses O. and Rolleston Caine M., 2007. Policies on Free Primary and Secondary Education in East Africa: A Review of the Literature, Brighton, UK: Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity, Centre for International Education, University of Sussex.
- Simwanza Sitta, M., 2007. ‘Towards Universal Primary Education: The Experience of Tanzania’, UN Chronicle, 1 December 2012.
- TPAWU, 2011. Action Research Report: Factors Affecting Labour Conditions in Horticulture Industry in Tanzania, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania: TPAWU.
- UNDP, 2011. Human Development Report 2011. Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All (available at <http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr2011/download/>). New York, USA: UNDP.

- UN-HABITAT, 2002. Rights and realities. Are women's equal rights to land, housing and property implemented in East Africa? Nairobi: UN-HABITAT.
- UN-HABITAT, 2006. Progress Report on Removing Discrimination against Women in Respect of Property & Inheritance Rights. Nairobi: UN-HABITAT.
- URT, no date. Official online gateway of the United Republic of Tanzania, <http://www.tanzania.go.tz>
- URT, 1995. Education and Training Policy. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Culture.
- URT, 1995b. Tanzania Development Vision 2025, Dar es Salaam: Planning Commission.
- URT, 2001. Agricultural Sector Development Strategy. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Agriculture Food Security and Cooperatives.
- URT, 2005. Country Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and the Outcome Document of the Twenty-Third Special Session of the General Assembly – Beijing +10, Women 2005. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children.
- URT, 2006. Tanzania Census 2002: Analytical Report, Volume X. Dar es Salaam: National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, Economy and Empowerment.
- URT, 2009. Poverty and Human Development Report 2009, Dar es Salaam: Research and Analysis Working Group Mkukuta Monitoring System, Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs.
- URT, 2010. The 2009 Economic Survey. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs.
- URT, 2010b. National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II Mukukuta II. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs .
- URT, 2011. A National Gender Diagnostic Study in Tanzania (draft), Dar es Salaam: MCDGC.
- URT, 2011b. Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children Strategic Plan July 2011 – June 2016 (Final Draft), Dar es Salaam: MCDGC.
- URT and NBS, no date. Tanzania National Panel Survey Report– Round 1 2008-2009, Dar es Salaam: URT and NBS.
- WB, 2004. Tanzania strategic country gender assessment. Washington DC: WB.
- WB, 2008. Agriculture for Development World Development Report 2008 (available at [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTWDR2008/Resources/WDR\\_00\\_book.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTWDR2008/Resources/WDR_00_book.pdf)). Washington DC: WB.
- WB, 2011. World Development Indicators (available at <http://data.worldbank.org/country/tanzania>), Washington DC: WB.

## **Websites**

CIA World Fact Book, 2012:

<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/tz.html>

FAO Gender and Land Rights Database:

<http://www.fao.org/gender/landrights>

FAO RIGA Database:

<http://www.fao.org/economic/riga/en>

The National Examinations Council of Tanzania:

<http://www.matokeo.necta.go.tz/>

Food, Agriculture & Decent Work website - ILO & FAO Working together:

[http://www.fao-ilo.org/fao-ilo-home/en/?no\\_cache=1](http://www.fao-ilo.org/fao-ilo-home/en/?no_cache=1)

International Monetary Fund:

<http://www.imf.org/external/data.htm>

UNdata:

<http://data.un.org/>

UNDP Human Development Reports website:

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/>

World Bank website:

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/TANZANIAEXTN/0,,menuPK:287345~pagePK:141132~piPK:141107~theSitePK:258799,00.html>

Tanzania National Website:

<http://www.tanzania.go.tz/>



**Food and Agriculture Organization  
of the United Nations**