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I. INTRODUCTION

1. The present report covers the period from 1990 to 1996.
2. The United Republic of Tanzania signed the Convention in August 1985 and ratified it in 1986. Its initial report was discussed by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women in January 1987. The addendum to the initial report was prepared and presented to the Committee in 1989. It was discussed by the Committee at its session in January-February 1990. In accordance with article 18 of the Convention governing rules for submission of reports by State parties, the current report serves as the second and third periodic report of the United Republic of Tanzania.

II. GENERAL DEVELOPMENTS IN THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

3. The initial report of Tanzania was accepted in 1990. Since then, many changes have taken place. The Convention has now been translated in Kiswahili, the national language, so that the majority of Tanzanians can know of its existence. By November of 1990, the women's national machinery in Tanzania was elevated to a full-fledged ministry with a woman minister and a woman chief executive. The creation of the ministry led to a lot of restructuring, not only

non-governmental institutions, individuals, finance institutions and official visits and studies of the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh and credit programme projects throughout Tanzania. The credit guidelines, as a policy to guide credit delivery and recovery for women in the country, provides for the establishment of a Women Development Fund (WDF), to be registered and operate as an autonomous non-governmental organization coordinated by the Ministry Responsible for Women's Affairs but supervised by a Board of Trustees.

2. The Women Development Fund

7. Action for the establishment of WDF started in 1992 and was approved by Parliament in 1993. WDF will be mobilizing its own resources; initial capital of 500 million Tanzanian shillings (equivalent to US\$ 1 million) was approved by Parliament in the June-August 1993 budget session. Other sources of funds for WDF will include contribution by women beneficiaries through their savings and various governmental and non-governmental institutions and donors. Presently the donor community is funding various women's economic activities in an isolated manner. Pooling such resources within WDF may, in the long term, ensure accessibility of credit to the majority of rural women.

8. WDF is being run by a Board of Trustees, with a few credit office bearers acting as a secretariat to the Trustees and performing the day-to-day office administrative functions. The structure of WDF has been kept simple to minimize bureaucracy and to enhance activities. There are coordinating units at the national, zonal, ward or local levels. The chief executive of WDF will be the Executive Secretary, who will head the National Coordinating Unit (NCU). NCU has three main departments: Technical, Finance and Administration and Coordination, Information and Public Relations. The beneficiaries are women aged 18 years and above and young mothers. Young mothers include those who acquire marital status before they are 18 years old and those who become mothers before they are 18 years old.

9. Credit delivery and recovery will involve a multi-pronged approach. At the grass-roots level, the women are to run individual economic enterprises within a group. Five women choose each other, either on the basis of friendship or understanding or neighbourliness, but not on a family basis. These five will sit together and form a constitution and open individual and joint savings accounts. They will decide the order of who should request/get the loan. For better organization and development, these small groups will join with other groups to form a larger group of 30 people. These larger groups will form the Associations of Rural Women Enterprises (ARWES). ARWES will be registered under the Cooperative Act of 1992 as savings and credit societies.

10. The specific objectives of WDF include: mobilizing resources, providing loans, acting as a guarantee fund, creating employment, generating income and offering business advisory services. To attain such objectives, the Fund needs qualified staff in credit, management, banking, accountancy, business and entrepreneurship development, and grass-roots training. Such staff is available through the 1990-1995 pilot project credit scheme for productive activities of women in Tanzania. This United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)-supported project is being administered by the Ministry of Community

Development, Women's Affairs and Children at the national level and is being implemented at the grass-roots level by community development/women in development officers stationed in the rural villages. As a pilot project, it comes to an end in February 1995. The use of the experiences of such personnel in WDF will ensure sustainability and replication of the credit scheme. At this initial stage, the Fund operates in seven regions, which have been chosen as pilot areas.

B. Training programmes

11. Training of women in Tanzania has taken various forms, including programmes aimed at improving technical, managerial and other necessary skills to enhance their contribution to national development. Such training has been provided through institutions and tailor-made programmes under the Training Fund for Tanzanian Women (TFTW), a project funded by the Governments of Tanzania and Canada.

12. The five-year project (1990/91-1994/95) has made a contribution to the country's development by helping women in various sectors improve their professional/technical skills so that they can impart their knowledge to other women. It has helped women enhance their skills in the areas of agriculture, education, health, environmental health, gender and development, entrepreneurship, statistics, accounting, food production, engineering, rural and social development, food processing technologies, medical parasitology,

the constitution and even with the sensitization of the public, men's and women's rights to life and liberty continue to be abused through various forms of violence perpetrated against them. This is partly the result of deficiency in existing laws, and partly of the lack of laws prohibiting certain practices such as female genital mutilation.

15. So the Government, through the Ministry Responsible for Women's Affairs, identified and forwarded to the Law Reform Commission (LRC) operating since 1981 10 pieces of legislation which relegate women to a position of inequality in relation to men in various spheres of life. These laws cover three areas: women's rights, rights of children and laws of succession.

16. LRC has already done extensive work on these laws. Research was done to solicit views from the public as regards changes that will be effected in these laws. Reports have been compiled.

Law of succession

17. In September 1994, a major information dissemination workshop was organized jointly by LRC and the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children. The law of succession was the subject for discussion, whereby various individuals and religious institutions aired their views and made comments that will enable the Government to come up with a uniform law on matters of succession. The report has been forwarded to the Attorney General's Chambers, where a bill will be drafted to be presented in Parliament.

18. It is anticipated that this law will meet women's needs for property ownership and inheritance rights. To ensure that women give their views, ideas have been solicited from women in groups consisting of men and women and in separate groups of women only.

Law of marriage

19. The law of marriage of 1971 has been reviewed so that it can be amended. Although this law protects women's rights, it has various anomalies, such as lack of a clear-cut provision on division of matrimonial assets whereby spouses have to prove contribution towards acquisition of the assets. Many unemployed women end up with almost nothing at the end of marriage. The same law does not protect women's reproductive health, as it sets minimum age to marry at 15 for girls. The three types of marriage - polygamous, monogamous and potentially polygamous - allowed under this law pose a problem for women.

Law of the child

20. Proposals for enacting the law of the child have been made to bring together various pieces of legislation which cater to the articles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (ratified by Tanzania in 1991). A report on the issue has been compiled and forwarded to the Attorney General's Chambers for necessary action.

Other laws

21. Apart from the above three areas of the law, which need to be revised, in 1991 a presidential commission identified 50 pieces of legislation that need revision in order to effect socio-economic changes. These include those laws

institutionalize a mechanism within which the Government will address human

into the planning process in both the national and sectoral plan have been emphasized so that women's concerns can be addressed.

and the number of privately owned newspapers and television and radio stations is increasing geometrically.

36. However, it is still to be seen whether women will fare better under multi-party democracy. The elections held in October 1995 revealed that women have still got a long way to go. Out of about 20 presidential candidates only one was a woman, and she did not manage to get through the preliminary process.

37. Since submission of its initial report, Tanzania has developed gender-related statistics. A Swahili version was produced in 1993. Tanzania has also prepared a book entitled Tanzanian Women and Men: Trends and Statistics for the United Nations. This book covers many areas including:

- (a) Women and men and families;
- (b) Housing, human settlements and environment;
- (c) Women's and men's work;
- (d) Public life and leadership;
- (e) Education, science, media and culture;
- (f) Health and nutrition status;
- (g) Violence against women.

This information augments the Government's efforts in the planning process for improving the lives of men and women.

38. As indicated in the initial report, the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, as amended in 1984 and again in 1994, guarantees the right of women to participate on an equal basis with men in political and public life under the provisions of the Bill of Rights.

39. Women in Tanzania constitute the majority of the population (51 per cent according to the 1988 census), which means they are the majority and can influence the outcome of an election if they so wish. The right to vote and to stand for election is given to men and women equally. But after 35 years of independence and despite a good literacy level (88 per cent for women and 93 per cent for men in 1988), the level of participation of women in Parliament and local councils leaves much to be desired. Consequently, in 1992 the Government enacted laws stipulating that at least 15 per cent of the members of Parliament must be women and at least 25 per cent of local government seats must go to women.

40. With the coming in of multi-party democracy, aspirants for local and parliamentary elections contest on a party ticket. So far there are 13 registered political parties in the country, and women in their respective parties competed with men on an equal basis in constituent parliamentary seats. However, the results have not been very promising.

41. Other women competed for the seats set aside for women (15 per cent) on a proportional rate to the number of seats won by each party. Fifteen per cent of the reserved seats for women were contested by women from their political parties.

42. Parliamentary elections under the multi-party system were held for the first time in October 1995. Considerable efforts were made to educate women about multi-party democracy, which to many was a new phenomenon. Voter education was conducted countrywide.

43. Regulations were prepared and put into practice during the local authorities elections, which were held from October to December 1993. In those elections, the chairpersons of Mitaa and Vitongoji and members of the Village Assembly were elected. For ward councils, elections were carried out in October 1994. Vitongoji are subdivisions of villages in rural areas and Mitaa are subdivisions of wards in urban areas. Most of the women who won elections were able to do so owing to the allocation of 15 seats for women. Whatever the case, the number of women is too small to bring the pressure needed.

44. The outcome of the local authority elections was that women got only 6 per cent of the seats in the mixed category of men and women. These results indicate that governments and political parties should intensify efforts to stimulate and ensure participation by women in the forthcoming elections.

45. The participation of women in the country's political affairs is outlined below:

1. Legislature

46. Women account for 16 per cent of the members of Parliament, which is composed of 275 members (231 men and only 44 women);

2. The executive

47. The number of women holding high-level posts (minister and principal secretary) has increased. Whereas in 1990 out of 25 ministers 3 were women (12 per cent), in 1994 the number increased, as two women were appointed to the post of Deputy Minister. In 1996, as a result of reduction of Government costs, the number of ministers was reduced to 23, out of which 3 were women. As for principal secretaries, there are now two women principal secretaries and two deputies.

48. With regard to high ranking officers in the civil service at regional and district levels, in 1991, out of a total of 20 regional commissioners, 18 were men and 2 were women. As for the regional development directors, all are men. Out of 82 district commissioners, 8 were women, and out of 82 district executive directors, 4 were women. As at 1996, the number of regional commissioners was 20, 1 being a woman. As for the 20 regional development directors, 4 were women. Out of 82 district commissioners, 15 were women.

3. The judiciary

49. Women participate in the Judicial arm of the Government in administering justice. The judicial hierarchy is such that there is the Court of Appeals at the apex, followed by the High Court and courts subordinate to it. The High

High Court judges

59. Pre-1990. The number of judges of the High Court was 25, out of whom only 1 judge was a woman. This is a mere 4 per cent of the overall number of judges of the High Court.

60. Post-1990. The number rose to 28, of which 2 are women. This is 7.14 per cent of the overall number of judges as it stood in 1994. (Source: High Court, Office of the Director of District Court, Dar es Salaam)

State Attorneys 1994

61. In 1994, out of 95, 37 were women and 58 men. This means that women accounted for 38.94 per cent of the overall number of state attorneys. (Source: Attorney General's Office, Dar es Salaam)

62. The above trends show that although women participate and hold positions in the judicial hierarchy, their numbers tend to decrease as you go up the ladder, where positions involve major decisions.

4. Non-governmental organizations

63. At present there are over 365 civil organizations concerned with elevating

66. Whereas a foreign woman married to a Tanzanian man acquires citizenship automatically (subject to denouncing her former citizenship, as required by law), a foreign man marrying a Tanzanian women does not enjoy the same right.

67. Children born in Tanzania, regardless of the citizenship of the parents, automatically acquire Tanzanian citizenship. However, because Tanzanian law does not allow dual citizenship, on reaching the age of majority (18 years), such children are required by law to denounce one citizenship.

68. This position regarding citizenship has not caused problems as far as women's rights are concerned.

F. Article 10. Education

1. Access to education

69. Inequality of access to education still exists at all levels between children from rural and urban locations, children of the rich and poor, children of educated and uneducated parents, as well as between boys and girls and as regards subjects offered at certain levels of education.

70. Inequalities in learning achievement still persist as a result of differentials in facilities offered, the general school environment, supply of instructional materials, equipment and other teaching aids, and curriculum content. Lack of awareness of the general value of education in different communities and by individual parents affect girls' education even more. Cultural values and practices are another big cause of inequality in access and learning achievement for women.

71. An analysis of government efforts to improve education to date suggests that among the post-independence education policies, focus has been on the distribution and equalization of educational opportunities for both sexes and expansion of the system at all levels, including the attainment of universal primary education.

72. Although compulsory enrolment in primary school offers equal opportunities for boys and girls, secondary education is not a right of every child. The transition rate from primary to secondary schools in Tanzania is very low. It stands at 15 per cent. Inequality of access to secondary education between males and females still exists. The number of boys in secondary school is greater than that of girls. The ratio stands at 40 per cent for girls as against 60 per cent for boys. At the advanced secondary level, the same situation obtains, girls having access to fewer places than boys.

73. The Government has not been able to expand public secondary schools at the same rate as primary schools. Of the girls enrolled in secondary schools 62 per cent are in private schools. This has a negative effect on equality, since achievement rates in private secondary schools are much lower than in public schools owing to poor staffing, the lack of necessary institutional materials and poor educational structures. Introduction of a double-shift

arrangement in urban secondary schools has steadily increased enrolment at the secondary level.

2. Educational trends in Tanzania

74. School enrolments had more than tripled since independence (1961) at all levels. However there has been a gradual decline, especially in mid-1980 and in 1992. Total enrolment dropped from 50 per cent in 1989 to 48.6 per cent in 1992.

75. Gender inequalities in the education process can be seen in the socio-economic and cultural norms and attitudes. Oppressive gender relations affect women's chances for education at all levels. Although enrolment in primary education is compulsory, the impact of structural adjustment programmes on families hit women and girls especially hard because families give priority to boys so that girls can stay home and marry or help with household chores.

3. Decision-making in the educational process

76. Women's participation in producing knowledge is still very marginal. Out of 40 principals of teachers colleges, only eight are women. Out of 190 heads of public schools, 30 are women. For the most part, female heads of schools can be found only in girls schools or in co-educational institutions. Out of 105 district chief inspectors, only 15 are females. Out of regional education officers in all the 20 mainland regions, 2 are females. Decision-making in matters of education is heavily concentrated at the higher echelons of the organizational structure, which means, with such minimal female participation, education for women cannot change much.

G. Article 11. Employment

77. The situation of women in employment has not changed much since 1990. During 1990/91 a labour force survey was carried out in which the labour force was classified depending on different dynamic activities relating to the International Standard Industrial Classification. Out of the total labour force of 11,294,927, 10,889,205 were employed, and 405,722 were unemployed. Of those

H. Article 12. Health

80. Economic recessions have had a negative impact on health facilities and health conditions of the population. Services that used to be provided free of charge, including maternal health care, now have to be paid for.

81. However, there are ongoing projects and programmes geared towards promoting health. A description of a number of them is given below.

1. Health through sanitation and water

82. This programme, executed by the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children, covers the three Lake Victoria regions of Kagera, Mwanza and Mara. The task during the period under review has been, among other things, to facilitate, mould, formulate and adopt a clear vision and mission of the programme, as well as to facilitate translation into concrete integrated plans of operation and preparation modules of intervention testing and the application of the same.

83. This programme, which is supported by Sweden, has seven components, namely, shallow wells, improved traditional water sources, water schemes, institutional rural water holes, water jars, institutional latrines and village health workers. The programme thus improves very much the life of rural women. Future plans are geared towards extending this programme to other regions of the country.

2. Safe motherhood initiatives

84. In 1992, under the guidance of the Ministry of Health, with support from Family Care International, a Safe Motherhood Strategy for Tanzania was prepared. It is a coordinated effort to reduce maternal mortality. In this initiative, women have shown their advocacy and men are called upon to show their solidarity. The rate of current maternal mortality is very high. As part of the initiative, the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children is to sensitize communities and extension workers. Thus, in 1992 and 1993 the Ministry organized seminars for extension staff of the Ministries of Agriculture, Community Development, and Health (maternal aids). The topics covered included safe motherhood and the health of women, safe motherhood and family planning, food security at the family level, the law and safe motherhood, child survival, protection and development, the establishment of child-care centres (nurseries) and the role of various sectors in safe motherhood.

3. National Plan of Action for Child Survival, Protection and Development

85. In 1992, under the chairmanship of the Planning Commission and in collaboration with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Ministry of

Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children developed a National Plan of

Action for Child Survival, Protection and Development. The Plan of Action assigns roles to various major sectors to ensure that children realize their rights, as stipulated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, in the Organization of African Unity (OAU) Charter on the Welfare and Rights of the Child and in accordance with the global goals for children and the national

been HIV-positive. Epidemiological analysis has illustrated that 80 per cent of the HIV transmission results from heterosexual practice. As a result of polygamous marriages in most of Tanzanian societies, and given the existing attitudes regarding sex, sexuality and women's rights, women have little option in protecting themselves against this killer disease.

89. Surveys by the National AIDS Control Programme in 1991 revealed that women

95. There is, however, a form of social security system for those who are in the wage or salary employment sector. However, few women benefit from the scheme because only a small percentage of women are employed. Available statistics show that about 32 per cent of Government employees are women, which means even if there are social security programmes or schemes, men will continue to be the beneficiaries because they are the majority in the working labour force.

96. Women dominate only the lower levels of the labour force, in casual, temporary employment and in the informal sector, such as food stalls, etc. In these areas, there are no developed formal social security programmes or systems. Usually women work in these difficult conditions and environments without any formal insurance or retirement benefits. Women organize their activities informally depending on individual creativity and immediate needs, and therefore the future is not considered because it does not address immediate needs. The future will be taken care of through the extended family system.

97. However, with changes that are taking place as a result, inter alia, of the economic crisis and modernization, some of the traditional social security systems and institutions, such as the extended family system, are dying out.

98. Existing social security systems in the formal sector for salaried employees include paid maternity leave of 84 days every third year for women. For a working woman this is an improvement, but for an unemployed or rural woman this has no meaning. Her activities in and around the house give her no time off. She has to work every day to provide for herself and her family.

99. There are other social security systems or social insurance systems pertaining to employment injury, old age and death. These systems are financed by contributions from employees and workers.

There are:

- (a) Pension schemes for government employees;
- (b) The Parastatal Pension Fund for workers in parastatals;
- (c) Insurance against death, personal injury, etc., under the National Insurance Cooperations.

2. Pension

100. All civil servants who are appointed and confirmed on permanent and pensionable terms are entitled to be paid retirement benefits which are governed by one basic law - the Pension Ordinance Cap 371. There are other laws as well which cater to special circumstances, such as:

- (a) The Specified State Leaders Retirement Benefits Act No. 2/1986;
- (b) The Political Leaders Pension Act No. 14/1981;
- (c) The Parastatal Pension Act No. 14/1978.

The first two, which cater to the top leadership, obviously do not benefit women, since women do not hold such high posts of President or Premier.

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101. Pension is not an absolute right as, according to law, no officer has the right to be compensated for past service or to pension, gratuity or other allowance. The law allows an appropriate authority to dismiss an employee at any time without compensation.

102. There are categories of employees which do not qualify for pension, gratuity or other allowances, such as:

- (a) Persons on probation;
- (b) Those under 18 years of age;
- (c) Persons who are dismissed from public service.

103. Pension, gratuity and other allowances are granted under certain circumstances, such as:

- (a) On attaining the age of voluntary (50 years for men, 45 years for women) or compulsory (55 years for both) retirement;
- (b) Transfer to other public service;
- (c) Abolition of office;
- (d) On medical grounds.

3. Other provident funds

104. Many women had been caught up in a discriminatory regulation (Standing Order No. D.20), which imposed an option on women officers who marry to convert to non-pensionable provident fund terms. This option is irrevocable. Many female officers have shown resentment to this obviously discriminatory standing order. Women who enter employment now do not opt for this arrangement and hence are not affected by it.

4. Other benefits

Advances

105. The Government has introduced salary advances to enable officers to purchase items that will motivate workers towards increased productivity. This covers both men and women without discrimination.

5. Other social security schemes

106. The National Provident Fund, the Parastatal Pension Fund and the Insurance Scheme are monopolized by the Government and cover a small section of society, namely the contributors, who are normally employed by the Government or the parastatal and business community. The Government is in the process of allowing

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the private sector to open up other schemes. As far as women are concerned, it is the few women who fall under the stated categories that benefit from the schemes.

J. Article 14. Rural women

107. About 80 per cent of the Tanzanian population lives in rural areas. The trend in policy is to develop rural areas by providing social services, such as safe water, health facilities, appropriate technologies and good infrastructure. However, with the decline in the economy, such efforts have been hampered.

108. The Government and non-governmental institutions are trying hard to develop programmes for the rural population to improve their living conditions and especially to reduce the workload for women.

109. Government institutions such as the Technical Department in the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children, in collaboration with other Ministries, such as the Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals, the Ministry of Health, and research and development institutions, such as Carmatec, the Institute of Production Innovations and the Small Scale Industrial Development Organization, have engaged in the dissemination of appropriate technologies to rural women and rural masses.

110. The technologies that are being disseminated are those which save time and energy and reduce walking distances. These technologies include:

(a) Household energy technologies (improved cooking stoves, husk stoves and biomass technology);

(b) Rainwater harvesting and storage using tanks and water jars;

(c) Transportation (handcrafts, wheelbarrows, animal-drawn carts and improved hand planters);

(d) Food storage and processing (oil extraction and improved traditional storage facilities);

(e) Housing technologies (use of locally available building material, such as burnt bricks, for construction of simple houses).

111. The dissemination of these technologies is done through working workshops, in which participants are trained to produce the required technologies. In some areas, groups of youth and women have been formed and given materials for producing technologies.

112. Youth groups have been assigned the task of producing technologies, and women's groups have been assigned the task of selling the products. However, in household energy and water storage facilities, women have been encouraged to produce and sell the products themselves.

K. Articles 15 and 16. Equality before the law